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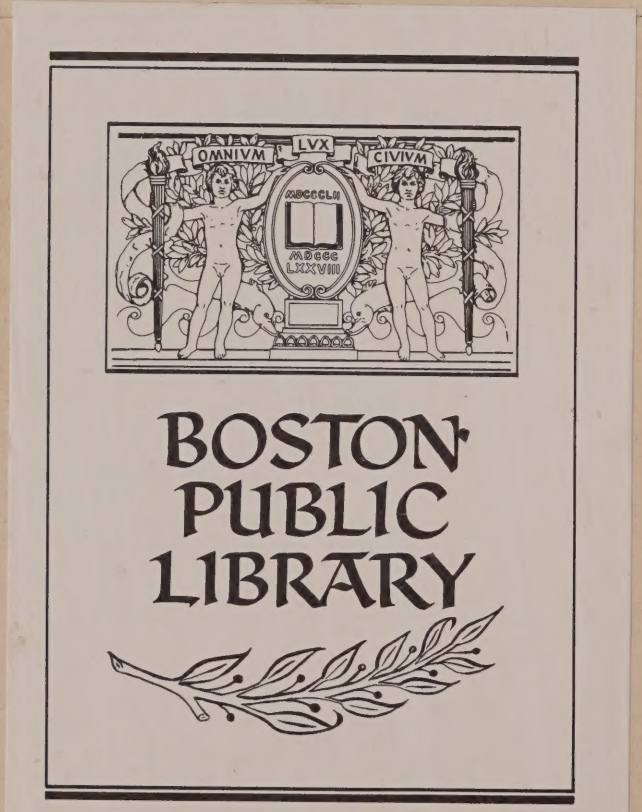

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The Week.

An unpleasant rumor has found currency that the sum of $250,000 asked for by the State Department last year, for the purpose of carrying on negotiations with the Nicaraguan Government, was wanted for the purpose of smoothing the way of the Canal treaty among the impecunious X Y Z's of that Republic. We do not believe that any such use was intended to be made of the fund, or that Secretary Frelinghuysen would take part in any transaction which contemplated the bribery of public officials, even in a country where bribery is a customary means of attaining important public ends. It is said that no other conceivable use for the money can be thought of; that the ordinary channels of diplomatic intercourse had been provided for; that our Minister to Central America was not so overburdened with work that he required the assistance implied in the disbursement of a quarter of a million of dollars; that no purchase of lands or vested rights antecedent to the ratification of the treaty was contemplated, and that nevertheless this large sum of money was asked for. It must be said, on the other hand, that the money was not voted, and yet the negotiation was carried through successfully without it. The suspicion of intended bribery lacks the support which it would have had if the negotiation had failed. Unless, therefore, the *Times* can produce some evidence that Secretary Frelinghuysen "admitted to members of the Committee that the money was to be used, if he should obtain it, in getting several Nicaraguan officials out of the way," we shall not believe that he consented to do, or even contemplated doing, an act which was so scornfully rejected when the X Y Z's of the French Directory offered themselves as subjects of pecuniary persuasion to the Administration of John Adams.

Rejecting this rumor as highly improbable, the fact remains that the treaty is largely a question of money—money to be lent to Nicaragua, money to buy lands for right of way, money to be spent in canal building. The amount required is estimated at $150,000,000. This sum, the *Tribune* tells us, is of no consequence because the people of this country do not feel the taxes which they pay. If this be true, it is another proof that we are a race of superior beings. People who do not feel what they pay, and are, therefore, indifferent how much their rulers spend, are a variety of taxpayers whom the finance ministers of all countries have been looking for from the earliest times. We should advise Congress not to act blindly upon this theory or push it to extremes. We can recall a great slaughter of politicians grounded upon so small a consideration as the "back-pay grab," which involved only a mere fraction of the sum which the Nicaragua canal calls for. We observe every now and then stirrings of public opinion whenever the suspicion gets abroad—an unfounded suspicion, indeed—that the Pacific Railroads are to be let off with the payment of something less than what they owe to the Government. We cannot be blind to the fact that every river-and-harbor bill that passes Congress excites passionate opposition and that every steamship-subsidy bill that has been brought forward during the past ten years, although backed by powerful lobby influence, has been defeated with all the marks of popular reprobation. The only appropriation of public money which the people contemplate with unmixed satisfaction, is that which goes to the extinguishment of the public debt.

The cable reports that the Spanish Minister at Washington has been authorized to make modifications in the commercial treaty, to meet certain objections which have been raised against it, and which are pretty certain to insure its defeat in the Senate. In other words, a new treaty is to be made if the present one does not suit. It is to be made and ratified and put in force between the 1st of January and the 4th of March, in order that an Administration and a Congress which have two months of life left in them may bequeath a policy, unchangeable for years, upon their successors in office. That the treaty was a failure commercially—that it gave too much for too little—is shown by the readiness of the other side to offer more liberal terms as soon as it is learned that it cannot be ratified. That it was an indecorum politically is not open to doubt. If Mr. Blaine had been elected President, it would have been so considered by him and his friends. Much more so is it under present circumstances, when another political party has been appointed to take charge of both foreign and domestic policy sixty days hence. The truth is that Cuba is bankrupt. She has ceased to be a source of net revenue to Spain. She is no longer taxable. She has been squeezed dry. Anything which she gets from us in the way of bounties to her sugar planters will be clear gain. If she cannot get two cents a pound, she will take one cent, or half a cent, or any fraction of a cent. The present treaty will be modified as much as you please and as many times as the remaining days of Mr. Arthur's Administration will permit, provided, always, that Cuban sugar is to have an advantage over other sugar at our custom-houses.

We call the attention of our esteemed Blaine contemporaries who are so agitated about solid Southern designs upon President Cleveland, to the action which the Legislature of South Carolina has just taken on civil-service reform. In 1880 both branches of the Legislature concurred in a resolution requesting the State's Senators and Representatives at Washington to "take such measures as may be expedient for the reformation of the civil service, so that the tenure of office under the General Government may no longer be dependent upon party success, nor subject to levy by means of forced pecuniary contributions to any political party, and so that capacity and character shall be the test of fitness for office, and the sole but certain guarantee of its tenure." Week before last a new resolution was introduced in both houses, reciting the declarations made four years ago, reaffirming and reiterating them, and adding the assurance that South Carolina "tenders to the administration of the President-elect the approval and support of the people of this State in carrying out the provisions of the law in regard to civil-service reform." This new resolution was passed unanimously by the Senate, and by an overwhelming majority in the Assembly.

A correspondent of the *Tribune* inquires in a breezy way whether a certain showman residing in Bridgeport, Conn., is still willing to sell all his property in the reckless manner that he proposed to do in case Cleveland were elected. The *Tribune* answers that before going to Bridgeport to find out, the writer would do well to inquire whether business has been better or worse since the election; whether manufacturers are opening new works or closing old ones; whether operatives are finding plenty of work at good wages; whether real estate is advancing or declining, and whether capitalists feel safe in making investments at the present time. The answer to these engaging conundrums is that things are now very much as they were before the election, although the trade journals think they can discern a slight improvement. The only marked economical change that we perceive is a great increase in the travel toward Albany, which must, one would think, have a bearing on the dividends of the Central Railroad. If Mr. Blaine had been elected, the travel would of course have been toward Augusta, and would have helped the railways of Maine. A social phenomenon has presented itself, however, which ought to have attracted more attention than has been bestowed upon it. A male child born in the city of Detroit since the election was named by its parents Cleveland, and was presented for christening to a Catholic priest of the Blaine persuasion, who refused to baptize the infant under that name, and rebuked the besotted father at the altar and afterward in the newspapers. The negro Cisco, who murdered Abraham Gurnee last week, also maintains in his confession that he did it in support of the thesis that Cleveland's election was causing hard times, which the murdered man disputed in an unseemly manner. These are the only striking occurrences of recent date which seem to have any connection with the election, although if pressed we should have to admit that there has been a considerable run of influenza, and perhaps a slight increase in the number of divorces. Whether the consumption of tobacco has fallen off we cannot say. The marked increase in the use of cider is due rather to the large apple crop than to the election of Cleveland.

The sale of his newspaper, the *Star*, probably marks the final disappearance of John Kelly as a boss in local politics. He staked everything on the November election and lost. A fortnight before election he was confident of his ability to achieve two momentous ends—

the defeat of Cleveland for the Presidency, and the practically complete possession of the government of this city for himself by the election of his straight Tammany ticket. His plans were so well laid, and the "deal" with the Blaine Republicans was so perfect in all its details, that both they and he had not a fear of defeat. So confident were the Blaine managers that they abandoned all work in the State outside the city, and depended absolutely and undoubtingly upon Tammany's treachery for victory. And they would have won but for the nomination of Mr. Grace for Mayor. His candidacy weakened the "deal" most disastrously in two ways. In the first place it undermined the solidity of Kelly's column by presenting an honored Catholic for the office. In the second place, it drew thousands of Republican votes, because of Mr. Grace's admirable record as a faithful and honest Mayor. The nomination of no other man could have done this, and from the moment the County Democracy yielded to the Citizens' Committee's demands and accepted Mr. Grace's candidacy, the doom of Kelly and also of Blaine was sealed. So complete was the overthrow of Kelly that even his stolid temperament was affected by it, and the man whose face, figure, and conduct have for so long a time constituted the very personification of obstinacy in this city, was confined to his house for several weeks by an attack of nervous depression.

We doubt if the city will ever again be afflicted with a boss who will be Kelly's equal in ability and power. There will, of course, be other bosses, but they will be of a different kind. They must possess qualities which will enable them to rule under the new conditions which will prevail after the 1st of January next. Kelly succeeded Tweed, and for a time was almost his equal in power, but he was a different boss from Tweed. He was never personally corrupt. He arranged "fat things for the boys," and put into our local offices and into the Legislature about the worst succession of political speculators and strikers that the city has ever been called upon to endure. He stole nothing himself, but he enabled others to steal with great freedom. His power rested mainly upon his standing as a good Catholic. Connected by marriage with the very head of the Church in this country, he was able to command that blind obedience of his followers which exists only within the pale of the Church. He cultivated this power with great assiduity. He had a lecture upon some topic of Church interest which he delivered in aid of all kinds of the Church's charities, and he posed everywhere as a devout Catholic. This, together with his undoubted ability as an organizer, constituted his claims to leadership. His loss will be a serious one to the Republican "boys" who were his faithful allies during his entire career, and to those Republican newspapers which always secretly aided his "deals" in return for the corporation advertising which his influence secured for them. He succeeded almost always by betraying his own party, and his Republican sympathizers enabled him to win by secretly betraying their party in turn. He sold out his party's State or national ticket, and his Republican friends returned the service by delivering the city over to him and his plunderers. It was a shameless conspiracy against good government, and it has ended fitly in the joint overthrow of Kelly and Blaine.

The efforts of Mr. Cyrus W. Field and General Sherman to relieve General Grant of his financial embarrassment are very creditable, and we hope that they will be successful. We observe with much interest that the members of the Grant family are speaking with increasing bitterness of Ward, as their deceiver and the cause of all their woes. Ward, in the meantime, is still shut up in Ludlow Street Jail, and has as yet made no full statement of the firm's business and the extraordinary methods by which it was able to induce people to invest in its "contracts." He is the only man who can explain his own system of accounts, and until he does explain it the truth will not be known. It is in the interest of the public and of honest business everywhere to have the whole story told, and the real culprits exposed without mercy. That Ward was the only scoundrel in the swindling, few people have ever believed. That he was able to deceive General Grant and his sons is possible; but that the experienced financial operators who "invested" with the firm and drew out their fabulous profits, were so innocent as they would have us believe, is altogether incredible. If Ward can be goaded into telling the exact facts about these people, it will be an interesting and valuable revelation.

Senator Logan's prospects of reëlection appear to be very poor. The Republicans have only a majority of one on joint ballot in the Illinois Legislature, and there is one Republican member who was elected as an avowed anti-Logan man, and who declares that he will not vote for Logan even if he receives the caucus nomination, as he probably will. The rebellious member's grievance is that he was a promising candidate for a Federal office a few years ago, and would have received it but for Logan's opposition. He says his turn has come now, and that nothing will induce him to forego the delights of revenge. The contest is likely to be a prolonged one, with the final outcome much in doubt. Logan himself is said to have abandoned hope of success, and to be preparing to return to the practice of law. The friends of Congressman Morrison profess to have great hope of electing him to Logan's seat, and base it on the expectation that the anti-Logan Republican member will absent himself, thus giving the Democrats a majority. The prospects for a deadlock are very promising.

A morning journal publishes opinions of some of the Knights of Labor on the present depression in trade, with their suggestions for a remedy, some of which are striking. One labor advocate is reported as saying in relation to the present state of trade, that "it is a shame that such a state of things should exist with abundant harvests, low prices for commodities, and the *vast sums of money locked up in the Government Treasury.*" But the Knights of Labor have taken steps to dispose of the difficulty about the Treasury, and to improve things generally, if Congress will help them. The following is given as a brief statement of the proposed plan:

> "The remedy lies in the new organization. It is to embrace all classes and grades of society. Memorials are to be drawn up and sent to Congress, and resolutions passed in every State throughout the Union, demanding that Congress make liberal appropriations for the improvement of our coast cities and rivers, erection of post-offices, and do such other work, which will not only enrich the nation, but give employment to idle iron and steel mills and other manufactures, and through them to the coal interests, employing thousands of miners now idle."

In other words, the labor advocates consider the money in the Treasury as a ripe melon to be cut into for their benefit and distributed around over the country. What labor and trade want from Congress is good laws, to assure freedom and security. To turn the Treasury over to Congress for use in revivifying industry is a design the folly and inutility of which ought to be apparent even to a professional labor advocate.

A sense of their ignorance concerning industrial arts and sciences, developed in great measure by the recent agitation of the question whether technical schools should be established in North Carolina, has led the young business men of Raleigh to organize a club whose purpose will be to consider economic questions of practical concern, whether pertaining to the state or nation, and to disseminate such information among the people. In their prospectus they say: "Our methods of work will be mutual conference and deliberation, the study and dissemination of the best literature within the scope of our purpose, communication with other clubs organized for the same or a similar purpose, the sending of delegates to such conventions as may be held within the Union to forward our general object, and the inviting of eminent economists to address us upon such subjects as we may select." This is one of the most significant steps taken by the new South in the path of material advancement. Accurate practical information is necessarily rare in all Southern communities, because under the old system of education it was neglected or despised; and though there has been a change of late years, no organized effort has been made to enlighten the masses concerning such economic questions as are continually agitating the public mind elsewhere. It is very probable, indeed, that industrial schools would exist at present in both North Carolina and Georgia if organizations extended throughout those States similar to the one just established in Raleigh, containing men able to give definite information concerning, not the utility of such schools, for that is generally admitted, but how they should be conducted, and how much they cost.

The Charleston, S. C., *News and Courier*, commenting upon the *Herald's* published list of 700 divorce cases pending in the courts of Chicago, and of more than that number on the dockets of the Philadelphia courts, calls attention again to the fact that South Carolina is the only State in the Union in which it is impossible to obtain a judicial divorce for any cause. This is very true. "South Carolina, to her undying honor be it spoken," to use the language of a Georgia judge, "has never granted a divorce since the Revolution." South Carolinians are as proud of this record as the Georgia judge could have desired them

to be. An attempt was made in the State Legislature, we believe, last winter to pass a bill permitting a judicial divorce for the cause of adultery, but it was overwhelmingly defeated. But it must not be inferred that South Carolinians consider marriage an irrevocable step. "Separation," says the *News and Courier*, "is allowable when one has so sinned against the other that forgiveness is absolutely impossible; but neither should be permitted to marry again." It would be interesting to know how many husbands and wives are "separated" in South Carolina every year. Such "separated" persons, not being permitted to marry again, constitute, Mr. Bishop, in his work on 'Marriage and Divorce' maintains, a most injurious class. We are informed that many divorces are obtained by South Carolinians in the courts of Georgia and other States. Indeed, it is safe to infer that all who wish both to be "separated" from their present consorts and to be permitted to marry again, have very little trouble in obtaining judicial divorces in other States. Others who have not the means to procure such a decree, or who fear the loss of social standing which such a proceeding involves in South Carolina, have "articles" quickly drawn up, or continue to bear their burdens, which in some cases it must be admitted are too grievous to be borne.

Colonel "Bob" Ingersoll's reputation as a public man has received some heavy blows during the last few years, but he has thus far retained the glory of having first dubbed Blaine a "plumed knight." While this cannot be taken from him, it now appears that he was not the first to apply the term to a Presidential candidate. In vol. iv., p. 682, of William H. Seward's Works, there is a quotation from John A. Andrew's speech at the Chicago Convention in 1860, in nominating Lincoln, in which he said of Seward, "that in the thickest and the hottest of every battle there would be the white plume of the gallant leader of New York." Here the application was most suitable. Seward really was "a plumed knight," who fought for great ideas and led men in defence of great causes, and who, in seeking "channels in which he could be useful," had no more thought of making money than Henry of Navarre when he charged at Ivry.

Episcopal circles in this city are somewhat agitated by Assistant Bishop Potter's having formally received the three monastic vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience the other day from two young ministers who wish to devote themselves to what is technically called a "religious life." The Low Churchmen are apparently somewhat scandalized, as they look on it as a sort of recognition by Bishop Potter of the fitness or value of monastic vows, while the Churchmen with "legal minds" are troubled by the absence of canonical authority for the proceeding. There are, however, already several Protestant sisterhoods maintained by vows of some kind, which have done a world of good, and have given spheres of usefulness to many able women who could have accomplished nothing if they stood alone, or were not clothed with some sort of official garb. Most Protestants, nevertheless, are disposed to look askance at a man who cannot lead a religious life without making a public declaration of his intention to do so, or who cannot keep vows or promises made to himself alone, or at all events made only in his own presence. But, after all, there cannot be much danger to Church or State in witnessing the pledges of a man who thinks public promises more binding than private ones, and needs the help of public censorship to enable him to be self-denying. A man who secretly determines to be poor and chaste and obedient as a means of self-discipline, is not a dangerous person, and he does not become dangerous by calling everybody's attention to the fact.

The celebration of Mr. Gladstone's seventy-fifth birthday on Monday in England was probably the greatest honor any statesman has ever received. There has, perhaps, been more enthusiasm over some soldiers, but Gladstone's triumphs have all been the triumphs of peace. If statesmen are to be judged by their legislation, he is by far the greatest England has ever had. The only predecessors who can approach him are Pitt and Peel. But Pitt's period of beneficence lasted only nine years. The rest of his official life was spent in carrying on a bloody war and piling up a monstrous debt. Peel's one exploit was the repeal of the Corn laws, to which he came slowly and somewhat reluctantly. But Gladstone in his fifty years of public life has either initiated or participated in a series of measures which have transformed England, and his last and crowning work, by admitting every man to the franchise who has an established home, hands the country over, for weal or woe, to a triumphant democracy. What is most marvellous in the "grand old man's" make-up is that in him there is an unprecedented combination of skill in construction with skill in persuasion. No hand so cunning as his has in England ever drafted a bill to solve an intricate problem, and nobody has ever displayed in the House of Commons the same power in exposition and advocacy. In fact, of late years his sole authority has been sufficient to pass any measure, however novel or startling. He is a wonderful product of the old college-bred school of English statesmen, the greatest and perhaps the last; a remarkable illustration, too, of the efficiency of the sifting process by which the House of Commons evolves both legislators and administrators.

The Suez Canal question, which made so much commotion in England last year, and which at one time threatened to upset the Gladstone Government, has been settled, apparently, by the decision of the company to enlarge the existing canal to twice its present capacity instead of digging a new one. In this way they will avoid the necessity of asking a new grant of land from the Egyptian Government, whatever that may now be. The Paris correspondent of the *Economist* says, that "one great advantage of the plan is that the work can be executed gradually, and each partial enlargement can be immediately available for navigation, while a second canal could only be utilized when entirely completed. The outlay may also be spread over a longer period, and will be accompanied by increased receipts as the works advance." It is a much greater advantage that a work so necessary to the world's progress can be undertaken without endangering the friendly relations of two great countries, and without the need of bribing the Khedival Government, if there be any such government to bribe.

Lord Wolseley has now arrived at the critical point in his advance—that is, he has reached the first great bend in the Nile at Ambukol, where the river, after flowing nearly south for a considerable distance, turns again northward. From Ambukol, or Korti, the bend may be cut off by taking a direct caravan route across to Shendy, which is about one hundred miles below Khartum, on the river. This march across the desert from Korti, where the troops are concentrating after their arrival in boats, is the serious part of the enterprise. It is about one hundred and twenty miles long, and has to be made in such force and such order that a battle may be successfully fought on again approaching Shendy, where a number of Gordon's steamers are waiting. It is hardly likely that the Mahdi will permit a second concentration at that place without opposition. That a brigade is to be sent up to the most northerly point of the bend at Abu Hamed, punishing the murderers of Colonel Stewart on the way, is not unlikely, but that it is then going to "open the desert route to Korosko," a little way above the first cataract—the route being 200 miles long through a difficult country—and make Korosko a base of supplies, is very unlikely.

The London military critics, who are generally hostile to Wolseley, in the meantime are pegging away at him and prophesying his destruction freely. They have been all agreed of late that he ought to have started from Suakim and gone across the desert 250 miles through a mountainous country to Berber. When it was pointed out to them that there was only water enough on this route for an advance in very small parties, they said there might be a railroad built over it in three months. It was, however, discovered by careful examination that no railroad of any kind could be built in less than eleven months, and that in fact the expedition was clearly shut up to the Nile route. In no other way can the army get near Khartum in good condition. Moreover, while very little is known of the country between Suakim and Berber, there exist careful and minute surveys of the route between Shendy and Korti. The main difficulty is, as in all African warfare, the water difficulty, and the seizure of the wells which lie half way across is, of course, the first work to be done. Wolseley has now been employed on three expeditions—the Red River, the Ashantee, and the Egyptian—in which the fighting was comparatively a small matter, and the means of reaching the enemy the real problem. In all three he has, by an extraordinary capacity for details and by taking his time, attained complete success. But the very delay incident to such undertakings gives the prophets and critics a grand chance for spreading "disquieting rumors." This, it must be admitted, however, is, "the greatest effort of his life," because failure in the Sudan would mean the destruction of the entire force and the fall of Khartum.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 24, to TUESDAY, Dec. 30, 1884, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

GOVERNOR CLEVELAND recently received a letter from the National Civil-Service Reform League, of which George William Curtis is President, commending the cause to his patriotic care in the exercise of the great power with which the American people have intrusted him. A reply from Governor Cleveland was published on Monday, which has attracted wide attention and much favorable comment. The following are some of the most significant sentences of this admirable document: "I regard myself pledged to this [Civil-Service Law] because my conception of true Democratic faith and public duty requires that this and all other statutes should be in good faith and without evasion enforced, and because in many utterances made prior to my election as President, approved by the party to which I belong, and which I have no disposition to disclaim, I have in effect promised the people that this should be done. . . . There is a class of Government positions which are not within the letter of the civil-service statute, but which are so disconnected with the policy of an administration that the removal therefrom of present incumbents, in my opinion, should not be made during the terms for which they were appointed, solely on partisan grounds, and for the purpose of putting in their places those who are in political accord with the appointing power." The Governor then calls attention to the fact that many now holding such positions have "proved themselves offensive partisans," and adds: "Such officials, as well as their successors, should be taught that efficiency, fitness, and devotion to public duty are the conditions of their continuance in public place." He concludes by reminding his party friends that "a due regard for the people's interest does not permit faithful party work to be always rewarded by appointment to office," and that "selections for office not embraced within the civil-service rules will be based upon sufficient inquiry as to fitness, instituted by those charged with that duty, rather than upon persistent importunity or self-solicited recommendations on behalf of candidates for appointment."

Secretary Frelinghuysen has written a letter in defence of the commercial treaties to Senator Miller, Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations. In answer to some of the objections raised he says: "It is said that we thereby give up a revenue on sugar, from $25,000,000 to $35,000,000, in return for a reduction of duties upon our products exported into Cuba and Porto Rico, estimated on the basis of the existing traffic at from $3,000,000 to $5,000,000. The relinquishment of revenue, when for the public good, is in the line of the national policy hitherto. It was done in the case of tea and coffee, which, by the act of May 1, 1872, were placed upon the free list without attempt to obtain therefor any equivalent whatever, and solely in obedience to the popular demand for a 'free breakfast table.' By this measure the Treasury of the United States has lost during the last twelve years a revenue of some $144,000,000 on coffee alone. Again, the privileged introduction of tobacco at reduced duties has been objected to as reducing the revenue and removing protection from the American product and manufactures. As to this, it seems enough to say that the convention leaves a discrimination against the imported article of from four to five times the internal-revenue duties on the American product, and secures a market hitherto denied for the special manufactures of tobacco in which we excel, and which command a profitable market wherever their importation is permitted. Again, it is urged that the increased exportation which these treaties may secure will not equal the loss of revenue on the imported articles. But these articles of import are produced within our territory sparingly, or not at all, or of different grades, not satisfying the public demand, and it is of the essence of wise protection to forego duties upon these, and to impose them upon those manufactures which may be profitably fostered by impeding foreign competition."

In the House of Representatives the strongest opposition to the Nicaraguan treaty comes from members of the Appropriations and the Foreign Affairs Committees, before which Secretary Frelinghuysen last session made his arguments in behalf of the $250,000 appropriation then asked for as necessary to negotiate the treaty. One of these members has made this extraordinary statement: "In the presence of Mr. Randall—I mention him as one of the prominent men present—Secretary Frelinghuysen stated, in language plain though diplomatic, that the $250,000 was wanted to corrupt the Nicaraguan Government."

Señor Valera, the Spanish Minister in Washington, says that the despatch from Madrid announcing that the Spanish Government had authorized him to assent to modifications of the Spanish treaty, and particularly with regard to the provision relating to sugar, is true. He had been instructed, he said, to assent to a change which will admit free into America only sugars up to class 13, Dutch standard, instead of class 16, as the original text of the treaty provides. The Minister said he had not yet received any explicit instructions to assent to a modification of the tobacco provisions of the treaty, but, from the nature of advices already received, he felt quite sure these would follow. Secretary McCulloch regards changes as inexpedient, though perhaps necessary to secure confirmation of the treaty.

The President's private secretary stated on Saturday with the greatest positiveness that the nomination of Mr. Wm. E. Curtis as Secretary of the South American Commission will not be withdrawn unless Mr. Curtis so desires, and there is no reason to believe that he will make such a request.

The House of Representatives met on Wednesday, and, without transacting any business, adjourned until January 5, 1885, and the Senate did the same.

Congressman Samuel J. Randall arrived at Louisville, Ky., on Monday, on his protection crusade through the South. Mr. Watterson has been making violent attacks upon him in the Louisville *Courier-Journal*.

Friends of ex-President Grant are preparing a subscription list for a fund to defray his debt to William H. Vanderbilt. Executions have been taken out, it is announced, under the judgment against General Grant which was recently filed by consent. The amount called for is nearly $160,000, the principal and interest of the $150,000 advanced by Mr. Vanderbilt last May to help General Grant endeavor to prevent the collapse of Grant & Ward. The movement for his relief was started at the suggestion of General Sherman. It is reported that Mr. Vanderbilt has said that he would waive his claim to $60,000 of the $160,000 debt.

It is asserted that four regular companies of Socialists have been organized in Chicago, and at least two of them are equipped with breech-loading rifles.

The car-drivers at New Orleans struck on Saturday afternoon, leaving the visitors at the Exhibition in a rain storm, six miles from the centre of the city. Almost every vehicle in the city was turned to use as a cab, and so the people got home.

After a meeting of the General Committee on the Bartholdi Statue, held on Saturday evening, it was announced that the Committee had pledged itself for $25,000 to continue the work of the quarrymen during the winter.

In the celebrated Hill-Sharon suit at San Francisco, Judge Sullivan has decided that under the laws of California the plaintiff is the legal wife of ex-Senator Sharon, and as such, on the ground of wilful desertion, is entitled to a divorce and a division of the common property. Sharon is estimated to be worth $10,000,000. He will appeal.

In the Supreme Court at Cambridge, Mass., on Saturday, the jury in the noted Stone will case returned a verdict to the effect that the will was drawn in proper shape, and that Mrs. Stone was of sound mind. On the question of undue influence over Mrs. Stone on the part of the Rev. Dr. Willcox, one of the executors, the jury disagreed, standing six to six. Mrs. Valeria Stone was the widow of Daniel P. Stone, a money broker, who left an estate of nearly $2,000,000. She gave much to educational institutions during her life, and in her will left all her property to Dr. Willcox to be given by him to educational purposes.

Henry A. Burr died on Thursday at his home in this city, aged seventy-four years. He was a grandnephew of Jonathan Edwards, and a cousin, once removed, of Aaron Burr. Coming to this city in 1831, he engaged in the hat trade, and, in connection with Henry A. Welles, invented a hat-making machine which greatly reduced the cost of manufacture. He made a fortune of several million dollars, and retired from business in 1872. Afterward he became interested in some patents for type-setting and distributing machines.

Dr. William Darling, Professor of Anatomy in the University Medical College in this city, died at his rooms in the College on Thursday, aged eighty-two years. He was a native of Scotland. Coming to this city in 1822, he became associated with Dr. Valentine Mott, and was graduated from the University Medical College in 1842. He spent ten years in travel and study in Europe and became a fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons in England. On returning to this city he renewed his connection with the University Medical College. His reputation as an anatomist was very high.

FOREIGN.

In the Spanish Cortes, which opened on Saturday, the Government was asked whether it was aware that the text of the pending Hispano-American treaty had been cabled to a New York newspaper; whether it ought not to have kept the treaty secret until it had been approved by the American Senate, and whether it knew who the person was that sold the copy for $2,000. To all these queries the Government made evasive replies.

Several earthquake shocks were felt in Spain on Thursday. The consequent loss of life is much greater than at first reported, some estimates placing it at 2,000. Official returns show that 526 persons were killed in the province of Granada, and 100 in Malaga. At Alhama over 350 bodies have already been recovered. At Periana, a village in Andalusia, about thirty miles from Malaga, great damage was done, and many lives were lost. Sixty bodies have so far been recovered. Many persons died of fright. A fatal landslip occurred in the mountain near Periana. This destroyed many houses which stood in its path, and buried forty-eight persons. Of these, eighteen were rescued alive. It is reported that 900 persons were buried beneath the ruins of the buildings of Albuñuelas. A severe earthquake shock was experienced in Carinthia, Austria-Hungary, on Monday. Many buildings were considerably damaged. A similar shock was also felt in Wales, where many houses were injured.

The London *Times*, in an article on the Nicaragua treaty, admits that the treaty should be judged in America without reference to English interests, but England, it says, holds a position of almost impregnable strength, and will protest against a policy which violates rights covered by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. It believes that the better class of Americans will not favor the scheme, but thinks it rash to predict the result in Congress.

The London *Daily Telegraph* on Tuesday, in an article on the proposed Nicaraguan Canal, says: "The canal will be of untold advantage to mankind. There cannot be two opinions as to the advisability of England seeking peace and harmony with America in preference to

any other Power. It can hardly be Earl Granville's desire to quarrel with America over the long-forgotten Clayton-Bulwer treaty, to which few Englishmen attach very great importance. England has no interest in forcibly opposing a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, by whomsoever constructed, with proper provisions. A wise English Government will perceive that its interests lie in just the opposite direction."

Mr. Gladstone celebrated his seventy-fifth birthday at Hawarden on Monday. Birthday greetings reached the great leader from all parts of the empire. The Prince of Wales sent cordial congratulations.

The *St. James's Gazette* on Wednesday printed an interview had in Paris with a dynamiter. He said that the headquarters of the conspirators was in Paris, but that the funds came from America. The explosion at London Bridge was arranged in Paris three months ago by a man who is now in America. Two men were sent to London to execute the plot in September, but a delay occurred. They returned to Paris after the explosion, and are now there.

The British annexation of St. Lucia Bay, on the coast of Zululand, will probably increase the friction already existing between Germany and England in regard to colonial matters.

The Governments of Tasmania and Queensland have joined with that of Victoria in the protest against the annexation by Germany of a part of New Guinea and neighboring islands, but the authorities of New South Wales and South Australia have refused to join in the protest. The Australian press generally express indignation at the action of Germany.

The Berlin correspondent of the London *Morning Post* says that there is a secret convention between France and Germany, in accordance with which France is allowed unlimited colonization in Morocco and Tonquin, and Germany, while respecting the French possessions in Africa, is at liberty to annex territory anywhere not affecting French interests.

The German convention with the African International Association has been signed at Berlin, and Russia is also arranging a convention with the Association.

An *entente cordiale* has been arranged between France and Germany for the neutralization of the territory of the African International Association. Prince Bismarck has undertaken to present a declaration to the Conference favoring an international protectorate over the Association's territory.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ), replying to the recent article in the London *Daily News* on the decision of the Powers to ignore the proposals of England relative to Egyptian finances, and attributing this decision to the attitude of Prince Bismarck, says: "European peace is more important than the settlement of the Egyptian question. Each Power is obliged to consider whether the acceptance of the English proposals would jeopardize its relations with the other Powers. Germany is too much interested in retaining th[illegible] will of France to snatch the Anglo-Egyptian chestnuts from the French fire, and attaches too great a value to England's good will wantonly to disoblige her through ill-feeling. But she will not allow this to interfere with the policy of peace with France observed since the war."

M. Waddington, the French Ambassador, returned to London on Friday from France. He was instructed to advise Earl Granville to accede to the demand of Germany and Russia for membership in the Egyptian Debt Commission, and also to withdraw the proposal to reduce the interest on the debt. Failing an agreement between France and England, all the Powers except Italy will reject the English proposals. It is reported that the British Government has invited the military coöperation of Italy in the Sudan, offering as an inducement the cession of territory near the Italian colony of Assab.

Advices from Korti on Monday gave the following particulars of the plan of the British advance. General Earle, it is stated, will collect an infantry brigade at Hamdab, above the fourth cataract, and punish the Monaseers, and will afterward push forward to Abu-Hamed and open the desert route to Korosko, whence stores will be forwarded to General Stewart. Gen. Herbert Stewart, on Tuesday, started from Korti to Gakdul (ninety miles distant) with 1,100 men and 1,800 camels, with a large convoy of stores. The following was the order of march: A detachment of Hussars formed the van, followed by the Engineer Corps; the field hospital and water convoy and baggage train came next; after them the light and heavy camel corps, and then the artillery and transport train. Mounted infantry and Hussars brought up the rear. A strong garrison remained at Korti.

The rebels are now making daily and nightly attacks on the outposts at Suakim. The garrison of Kassala made a sortie on Friday, and succeeded in killing many of the rebels.

Marquis Tseng, Chinese Minister to England, has warned Earl Granville that the sale to France of seven vessels of the Castle and Monarch Lines, now trading between England and the Cape of Good Hope, for the purpose of transporting French troops to China, is a breach of neutrality. The English Government has advised the owners of the vessels that no evasion of the Foreign Enlistment Act will be permitted. The semi-official denial of the purchase by the French Government is not believed in London.

Advices from Tonquin report that daily encounters occur between the French and Chinese outposts. China continues to pour troops into Tonquin and Formosa.

The Catholic missionaries in Tonquin complain that the court at Hué, capital of Anam, has not fulfilled its promise to make reparation for the massacre of Christians, which occurred some months ago. The correspondent of the Paris *Temps* at Hanoi says the court is strongly hostile to France, and he advocates a clean sweep of officials at Hué.

King Norodom, of Cambodia, has again signed the treaty of peace with France, placing his kingdom under French protection.

The French Senate adopted on Saturday the entire budget by a vote of 174 to 34. It includes a clause establishing the principle of the taxation of religious bodies.

The French Senate on Monday, by 192 to 3, rejected a motion by M. Buffet to vote a credit for the first quarter of 1885 without detaching the revenue estimates from the general budget, the Government desiring to have the revenue estimates discussed first and separately. The Government then asked a credit of 1,000,000,000 francs for the first half of 1885. The Senate has adopted the clause of the budget establishing the principle of the taxation of religious bodies. In the French Chamber of Deputies on Friday the Minister of Agriculture promised to ask priority for the Corn and Cattle Duties Bill next session. This caused a sensation.

The Senate's session then closed. In the Chamber of Deputies the sum of 1,000,000,000 francs on account of expenses for 1885 was granted by a vote of 351 to 127, and the budget receipts were unanimously adopted.

It is said that the French Government has found evidence that Anarchism is spreading among the soldiers.

Three thousand Socialists held a meeting at the Salle Levis, Paris, on Sunday. A number of Anarchists tried to control the election of a chairman, and a hand-to-hand fight ensued.

It has been found that the emeralds in the diadem of the Empress Eugénie, recently sold, were bogus. An English nobleman bought them for $200,000. The money has been refunded. Paris *Figaro* asserts that the Empress knew that part of the stones in the diadem were false.

Sardou's new drama, "Théodora," was produced in Paris on Friday night before a distinguished audience. Bernhardt's acting and the intense dramatic nature of the situations are warmly praised.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) on Thursday printed an official note advising the abandonment of the scheme to raise a public fund to pay for an assistant for Prince Bismarck. It says the factions in the Reichstag that are united by a common hatred of the Chancellor, dare not again refuse the credit solicited by the Government.

The fourth volume of Prince Bismark's letters, which is about to be published in Berlin, contains the private diplomatic despatches written to General von Manteuffel during the years from 1851 to 1858, while Bismarck was the Prussian representative at Frankfort. The letters discuss matters with remarkable frankness. In one place the future Chancellor says: "I do not see why we should link our seaworthy ship with the worm-eaten bark Austria. Everybody courts our alliance. Great storms suit us best. We can use troubled times fearlessly, without consideration of others. If we desire to become greater with 400,000 men, we must not be afraid of standing alone and leaving others to fight. We had better isolate ourselves. The greater the difficulties of Europe the more valuable our alliance, and the greater price we shall get for it."

The Constitution of Portugal is to be so modified that the Chamber of Peers shall consist of 100 life peers, to be appointed by the King, and 50 peers to be elected by an indirect process.

Important frauds have been discovered in the Russian Treasury Department, and several of the officers have committed suicide to escape disgrace.

The well-known Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, in a recent despatch, said, in a long review of the present condition of Russia: "Count Tolstoi, the Russian Minister of the Interior, is chiefly engaged in the discovery and prosecution of Nihilists. No sooner has one society of Nihilists been suppressed than another springs up. While Nihilism is more dangerous than ever, the persecution of the Jews is as fierce as it was a few years ago, when the European press boiled with indignation at the anti-Semitic outrages which disgraced Russia. The great bankers, especially those of German nationality, who were previously interested in giving wide publicity to the outrages with a view to preventing the investment of capital in Russia, are now inclined to subsidize the press to preserve silence. They take this course for the purpose of preventing the impairment of European confidence in Russian finance, the condition of which at present is not brilliant. It is suffering from the difficulty experienced at present in collecting the revenue, from the persistent American competition in the grain trade, and from the ruinous expense of the Russian advance to Merv. Despotism is increasing and the press is coerced into silence. Russia is more and more ignoring liberal ideas, and is paving the way to a tremendous explosion."

The uneasy feeling in Viennese financial circles continues unabated.

Recent developments have proved that Jauner, the late Director of the Lower Austrian Discount Bank, of Vienna, was completely under the power of the rich and unscrupulous adventurer, Heinrich Kuffler, now under arrest for complicity in the robbery of the bank's securities. Kuffler is a Hungarian, who had been for years so successful in bold speculations, and had so frequently placed powerful men under financial obligations to himself, that he had secured a most desirable social distinction in Vienna. This he used for all it was worth commercially, and by its exercise obtained mastery over Jauner.

The revolution in Ecuador continues, and the panic in Government circles is increasing.

GOVERNOR CLEVELAND'S LETTER.

DURING the recent campaign the *Nation* held the opinion that civil-service reform could never be well rooted, either in national policy or in the public opinion which constitutes and enforces national policy, until it should have stood the test of a party change in the national administration. We believed that the time and the man had come to subject the reform to this crucial and necessary test. Grover Cleveland had proved to most of those who had concerned themselves in endeavors to uproot the spoils system in this State, that he was thoroughly in accord with them, that he believed what they believed, and that he had all the firmness which so great and beneficent a change required in a chief Executive in order to carry it into execution. In supporting Governor Cleveland, therefore, we had entire confidence that we were not merely promoting the cause of civil-service reform, but promoting it in the only way that could give it the binding force of a precedent which must needs be followed by succeeding administrations, irrespective of future political changes. If a Democratic Administration should come into power and should refraim from making "a clean sweep"; should solemnly abjure and renounce the doctrine that "to the victors belong the spoils of the vanquished"; and should establish the opposing doctrine—namely, that public office is a public trust, and that the routine business of government is, like any other business, to be administered by those whose fitness has been proved either by experience or other convincing tests—then the reform might be deemed effectively established. It could not be considered either effective or permanent so long as it was not subjected to such a strain. A change from one Republican administration to another would prove nothing. A change from Republican to Democratic administration would prove everything, provided the principles of the reform were faithfully adhered to.

To become the leader and chief instrument in establishing such a reform is a greater distinction than to be President of the United States. Without ostentation and without offensive comment upon persons or parties, Governor Cleveland has announced his purpose to execute the Civil-Service Act in the spirit as well as in the letter, and to apply its principles to the public service generally, having regard to the character and conduct of those who now hold non-political offices under Republican appointment. He says distinctly that he shall not remove any man from any non-political office, during the time for which he was appointed, who has not made himself notorious as a partisan and used his office for partisan purposes. His language implies that he will remove those, whether of his own party or any other party, who have employed or shall employ the time belonging to the Government, and paid for by the Government, in "running the Machine," or in promoting partisan interests. As to the great body of underlings who are embraced in the Civil-Service Act, they have nothing to fear so long as they behave themselves. They will be shielded from assessments from terrorism, and every sort of persecution, on the single condition that they faithfully and diligently perform their duties, and restrict their political action to the modest exercise of the political rights which appertain to American citizens. Such a declaration has a profound significance. It implies little less than a revolution in our political methods. It commits the Democratic party to civil-service reform *nolens volens*.

But we are bound to say that the Democratic party has shown no unwillingness to be thus committed. The speeches of its leaders and the outgivings of its press since the election have been remarkably free from the taint of spoils-hunting. The only outward sign of its prevalence is to be found in the columns of Republican papers, which will evidently be much disappointed if we do not have a herd of old-fashioned Jacksonian hogs around the public trough as soon as Mr. Cleveland is inaugurated. As we write this article the Chicago *Tribune* comes upon our table, filled with loud lamentations over the untimely fate of the "one hundred thousand trained and experienced employees who constitute the rank and file of the civil service," who are to be thrust out of their places on the 4th of March, to make room for "partisan workers and ward strikers who have done the caucus and campaign work for the Democratic leaders." The business community, it says, will feel the blow grievously, because the "strikers and heelers" who are to come in will be ignorant of their duties, and will of course plunge all departments of the service into confusion. Especially will they disorganize the magnificent system of railway mail service, which has been so long perfecting, and which has at last reached almost the stage of an exact science. "These specially skilled men," it says, "are to be turned out at once, and their places must be filled with raw hands, ignorant of their duties, and drawn from a class of partisan vagabonds." All this cruelty to individuals and all this disorganization of public business it ascribes to the perfidious action of the temperance fanatics, and the hypocritical behavior of the Mugwumps, "who gratified their spite by voting for Cleveland."

If none of the misery which it foreshadows should come to pass, there will be two kinds of "soreheads" in the country, one consisting of Democratic office-seekers who want to ravage the civil service, and the other of Republican newspapers, disappointed because the ravaging does not take place. The latter are not slow to perceive, that a conscientious adherence to the principles of civil-service reform by the incoming Administration will strengthen the Democratic party as nothing else could strengthen it, and that the party will thus enter the next campaign with much brighter prospects than it entered the last one.

MR. JONES'S DIFFICULTIES.

THE friends of Mr. B. F. Jones, the Chairman of the Republican National Committee, have been so wounded by the attacks made on his management by Mr. William E. Chandler, that they have replied to them in a long letter in the New York *Tribune*. The letter contains a glowing account of Mr. Jones's business career, and then describes the difficulties he had to contend with during the late canvass, as follows:

"In spite of the alarming Independent defection, with newspapers, hitherto Republican, furnishing, by their daily attacks on the head of the ticket, ammunition for their adversaries; in spite of lukewarmness if not treachery in quarters where they should have found hearty coöperation; in spite of the strength drawn from the Republican party by the Prohibitionists; and last but not least, in spite of the ill-concealed indifference of the Administration at Washington, Mr. Blaine was at last defeated by an accident which could not have been foreseen."

That the canvass was not judiciously conducted by Mr. Jones, some of the most ardent Republican papers, the *Tribune* among the number, have already affirmed, in saying that there was too much noise and torchlight and not enough "education of the people" through documents. One stanch Republican paper, the Troy *Times*, touching on this point a few days after the election, said:

"The Committee, too, appeared indifferent to success in the State of New York. It seemed to have adopted the idea that Mr. Blaine could be elected without the vote of this great State; and half the effort expended in West Virginia and some other States, with half the money wasted in circulating what was little better than obscene literature, would have given us New York and elected Mr. Blaine. There was enough incompetency in the National Committee to have defeated half a dozen candidates. And here we stop—at least for the present."

This diffusion of "obscene literature" was, in fact, one "new feature," as the publishers say, which Mr. Jones's Committee introduced into the business of electioneering. Nothing like it was ever seen in American politics or the politics of any civilized country before. The glory of this, whatever it amounts to, is theirs beyond dispute. Mr. Jones's proclamation, too, some time in September, that any new stories about Blaine which might appear on the following Saturday, would certainly be lies, showed that the chairman had in him some of the qualities of a good farce-writer, and greatly amused the town.

But the truth is, nevertheless, that Mr. Jones is being badly treated by the Republicans, as unsuccessful men so often are. His "obscene-literature" idea, it is true, did not win the day, but it unquestionably cut down the Cleveland vote in this State as well as in several others. Moreover, his Committee hit on another thing which unquestionably gave the Republican managers a confidence they have never before had in any campaign, and came very near giving them the victory, and caused large numbers of Republicans, who had inside views, to bet on Blaine as they have never betted on any candidate before—in that they secured the Irish Catholic vote in this State. This vote has for forty years been the one constant element in Democratic strength in New York, the one which no appeals, discussions, or documents on the part of their opponents could take away from the party. Now the Republican managers did finally take it away, and it was a great feat, and an unprecedented one, and it is no wonder that it made Jones and his Committee cock-sure, and set them to boasting and vaporing during the count. They could not bring themselves to believe that the Independent and Stalwart defection was great enough to overcome it. That it was overcome by even 1,100 majority was in fact a very remarkable proof of the extent to which this defection had gone. The Catho-

lic clergy almost universally worked against Cleveland in their quiet way, owing to their belief that, in spite of his explanations, his veto of the Catholic Protectory Bill did indicate hostility or indifference to the interests of the Catholic Church. A large body of the Irish were induced to desert the Democratic party in this way, and the remainder deserted it in the belief that Blaine was more likely than his rival to get up some sort of trouble with England if he secured the Presidency. It is hardly a secret, too, that the blatant dynamitic Irish press was freely subsidized with Republican funds during the canvass. The result appeared in the furious Blaine boom they kept agoing in their columns from the first day to the last.

One of poor Mr. Jones's misfortunes is that he cannot boast of this great feat, because, though the Republicans were very willing to win through it, they did not generally care to have it known that they owed anything to it. The party had for twenty years been proud of not having the Irish Catholic vote, and Republican newspapers had all gloried in it. When they denounced the "vice and ignorance" of the Democratic party it was the Irish Catholic vote they had in mind, and when they boasted that the Republican party contained "the virtue and intelligence" of the North, what they really meant was that the Irish did not vote its tickets. They have, since 1857, it is true, made several attempts to win them over, but they were made by the same appeals to the reason by which the Republican party was built up, and were wholly unsuccessful. In fact, it was, until the unfortunate Jones took charge of the affairs of the party, almost an axiom of Republican management that there was no use in spending either documents or speakers on the Irish. The Jones Committee broke up this tradition, and bagged the Irish vote in this State; and now, simply because they fell 551 votes short in New York, the Chairman feels the serpent's fang of ingratitude in his very vitals.

Calm observers must admit, however, that, like the Roman Emperors who prepared the fall of the Empire by the admission of barbarians to the Imperial armies, Jones in enlisting the Irish has given the Republican party the deadliest blow it ever received, and has perhaps unfitted it ever again to take the field in a Presidential campaign. For if it is now to exist as an organization in the national arena, it must keep the Irish as a substitute for the tens of thousands of Mugwumps whom it temporarily alienated by its devotion to the fortunes of a corrupt adventurer, and whom, with the fatuity which is a sure sign of decay, it is now actually trying to exclude permanently from its ranks. But it cannot keep the Irish without making platforms and advocating policies which the kind of people at the North who built up the party and constitute still its main strength can in no wise accept. Dr. Burchard's talk about "rum, Romanism, and rebellion" was ill-advised simply for its effect on the Irish ally. But he probably blurted out the feelings of a body of Blaine's supporters far more numerous than the Irish, whose loyalty to the party is absolutely necessary to prevent its dying at an early day the death of a degraded old Rump. That they can be held by candidates or platforms satisfactory both to Cardinal McClosky's clergy and the terrible British rebels of the Irish *World* and the *United Irishman*, no man of intelligence will believe. If the Democrats are wise, and wish to be the party of the future, they will take no pains to win back what they have lost. They have long been ruinously weighted by their dependence here on a body of voters dominated by foreign ideas and foreign aims, and who are sure to ruin any party which makes a point of conciliating them, and who cannot be reached in critical times by the art by which all permanent party success must be achieved in a country like this—the art of open persuasion.

THE CLERGY IN POLITICS.

MR. BEECHER'S address to his congregation on Sunday, touching the hostility to him, on the part of some members of the church, arising out of his support of Cleveland in the late canvass, is an interesting illustration of the nature of the political crisis through which the country is now passing. His case has one peculiar feature in that he has had to defend himself not only for advocating Cleveland's election, but also for the manner in which he advocated it. Mr. Beecher's oratory has the defects of its qualities. It is very impetuous, as well as humorous and witty, and no orator can be impetuous without committing indiscretions of greater or less gravity—that is, without often saying more than he meant to say, or something different from what he meant to say. Mr. Beecher did this on one occasion during the canvass, in New Jersey—that is, he used a humorous illustration which had undoubtedly the effect of seeming to make light of offences against purity. This fell on Republican ears when the party, as Bishop Huntington has pointed out in his amusing article in the *North American Review*, had committed itself with such fury to the cause of chastity that even its most licentious members became ardent and noisy defenders of the home and family. For this, Mr. Beecher had on Sunday to apologize, and perhaps it is well that he should have had an opportunity of doing so.

Of course, however, this is only a small part of his offence in the eyes of his critics. Deacon H. L. Pratt confessed to the *Tribune* reporter after the service, that the explanation was not sufficient—that "the feeling against Mr. Beecher was largely because he opposed Mr. Blaine, and he didn't say one word about that." Deacon Ropes was also of opinion that Mr. Beecher had not touched the real issue, while a prominent member predicted that the "rentals of the pews would now decline greatly," and Mr. Beecher "was only preparing for the inevitable." In fact, his punishment for supporting Cleveland is evidently to come through a "decline in rentals," which, to a true disciple of Blaine, is the worst thing that can happen to any human being. Loss of honor or reputation, sacrifice of conscience or of self-respect, are things he can make up his mind to; but to have his income reduced, or the bonds he sold returned on him, is a "personal hardship, bitter and burning and humiliating to the last degree." We believe the number of churches in which persecution of the pastor for "opposing Blaine" has developed itself, since the election, in a greater or less degree, is considerable, even where the opposition to Blaine went no further than casting a silent vote for Cleveland. This is in part the result of what we have heretofore called the "malignant superstition" which has gradually taken hold of the Republican party, that it alone is entitled or fit to administer the Government, and that people who do not vote its ticket are not real Americans, but a sort of second-class citizens, who may be safely allowed to vote as long as they are in a minority, but who ought not to be allowed to become a majority, and who cannot be intrusted with the management of public affairs without putting all social and political interests in peril.

This state of mind, on the part of a party in power, with regard to a large body of their countrymen, constitutes a real danger to the State. It prepares a considerable number of men, otherwise intelligent and conscientious, to wink at or participate in any political methods, however foul or illegal, which will prevent their adversaries getting into power. One meets every day estimable men whom it has unfitted for any political trust, and, indeed, from whose heads it has driven the fundamental principles of American government. When such men are gainsaid in politics by their pastor, whom they pay, and to whom they look for an example of morality as they understand it, they are naturally very fierce and bitter. To them, voting against a Republican candidate is an offence in any man, and an aggravated offence in a clergyman. We have heard of a case where it was taken so much to heart by a prominent member of a church that he insulted his pastor—one of the purest and most devoted men in the profession—in the grossest manner, simply because he had, in obedience to one of the tenderest consciences in America, silently voted for Cleveland.

These attacks on the liberty of the clergy are perhaps not wholly due to the superstitious worship of the party which the Claytons, Dorseys, Bradys, Chandlers, Elkinses, and Blaines have now for years directed. They are also in some degree the result of the decline in the influence of the ministers which has, during the past forty years been, so marked a feature of American life. Among the sharp, bustling business men, whose multiplication during that period has been so great, respect for the opinions of the scholarly class to which the clergy belong on the affairs of the world has long been diminishing. It has reached such a point that in many churches it is now considered a gross piece of presumption, if not an indirect breach of contract, for a clergyman to vote at political elections in opposition to the bulk of the members. They think he ought to get his ticket from the deacons, who know what will be best for pew rents, and deposit it under their eyes. Bigotry of this kind cannot be and never has been cured by argument. It has to be cured by experiment. When missionaries kick the idols over, or split them up for firewood, without falling down dead, or being struck with blindness, it does more to shake the confidence of the heathen in their ancient gods than a thousand sermons. In like manner, the confidence of those Republicans who cannot yet reconcile themselves to their late defeat, in the

normal working of party government, and in the fitness of the majority to rule the country, and in liberty of conscience in political matters, will only be restored by actually seeing the Government carried on for four years by Democrats without injury to any great national interest or institution.

ENGLISH AND GERMAN COLONIES.

THE disquieting telegrams which come from the Old World, implying that Prince Bismarck is watching and improving opportunities to irritate England, and especially to bring discredit upon Mr. Gladstone, must be taken with a great deal of reserve. If Bismarck were a new and untried statesman, or if he were in the habit of inviting fresh difficulties, seeking new adventures, tilting with windmills, and making himself generally odious, it might be conceived that the annexation of Angra Pequena and the northern part of New Guinea, and the obstacles interposed in the way of the English plan of finance in Egypt, were intended to add Great Britain to the list of enemies of Germany in the next great European war, whenever that may chance to come. If he were solicitous to add to Mr. Gladstone's power and prestige, and to insure his ascendancy among the English constituencies, he could do nothing so certain to accomplish those ends as to single him out for public discourtesy. Gladstone and Bismarck represent opposing systems of government, and their feelings toward each other are probably chilled by this antagonism. Mr. Gladstone stands for representative government, Prince Bismarck for personal government. The British Empire rests upon institutions, the German Empire upon individuals. The former does not depend upon Mr. Gladstone, the latter does depend upon Prince Bismarck, for unless another Bismarck is found when the present one dies, the governing power will pass inevitably into the hands of the Reichstag, and the German system will be assimilated to that of England. This change would have taken place in spite of Bismarck if the Austrian armies had conquered at Sadowa. It might take place at any time but for the reasons that Germany is surrounded by powerful nations which have unsatisfied grudges against her, and that Bismarck is believed to be, and probably is, the one man who can prevent them from satisfying those grudges by arms. It is inconceivable that a man whose whole aim, since the close of the wars which created and consolidated the Empire, has been to soften the asperities which the wars left behind them, should now seek trouble with the only country in Europe which is able to strike blows that he could not possibly return.

What mostly gives color to the belief that Germany and England are coming into antagonism is the fact that Bismarck is hoisting the German flag over certain tracts of unoccupied territory in Africa and Polynesia adjacent to English territory. The British colonies are so numerous and extensive in all parts of the uncivilized world that any occupation by Germany must necessarily be more or less contiguous to some of them. The new-born zeal of Germany for colonial possessions finds England dominated by a feeling (in official circles at least) strenuously opposed to the policy of making new acquisitions. Mr. Gladstone came into power expressly on the "platform" of opposition to new responsibilities. The war in Afghanistan, and the war in Zululand, and the annexation of Cyprus, furnished him the text for his most powerful attacks on the Beaconsfield Government. The British Empire, he said, already embraced more territory than could be wisely administered and more people than could be well governed. The attention of Parliament was so engrossed by foreign affairs and foreign embroilments that the most crying evils of home politics could not get remedied. He drew so powerful a picture of the misdirected energy of the nation and the waste of the public resources, that he overthrew the Jingo party at the moment when they fancied they had earned immortal glory by the display of their prowess on three continents.

But Mr. Gladstone's intentions have not been fulfilled. Circumstances have been too strong for him. The wheels of the Empire set rolling centuries ago would not stop at any man's bidding. Since he came into power, territory has been added to the responsibilities if not to the actual domain of Great Britain as large as France and Germany taken together, and this without counting Egypt as a permanent responsibility. An area six hundred miles square adjacent to the mouth of the Niger has been put under her protectorate. The southern half of New Guinea has been annexed in obedience to the wishes of the Australian colonies, after an obstinate but futile resistance on the part of the home Government. It would seem that the end of British annexation would come, not when the Government should cry, Enough, but only when there is no more territory to annex.

The recent German acquisitions are trivial as compared with recent English ones if the Niger country is to be counted as an acquisition. The *Economist* fears that it must be regarded as such, and finds no satisfaction in the prospect of increased army and navy expenditures to guard and police so extensive a territory—expenditures estimated at no less than a million sterling per annum, and without any possible returns except what may be shared equally by all nations through the medium of free trade. If the importance of a country is to be measured by its outlying dependencies, Great Britain is more important than all other European countries together, since India alone is greater than all non-British colonies. If England should deliver to Germany a quitclaim to all parts of the globe which may be fairly considered open to European colonization, and if Germany should reduce them to possession, she would still be as far inferior to her rival in this sort of distinction as New Guinea is inferior to Australia. It is difficult, therefore, to understand the shrillness of the London *Times's* comments on the German occupation of northern New Guinea. The gloomy forebodings of the *Tribune's* London correspondent must be ascribed to the deepening tinge of Toryism which has so often grieved us, for it is the rump of the Tory party, the *disjecta membra* of the Beaconsfield government, that look upon foreign domination as the sign of England's power and the seal of her importance in the world's councils.

A STRANGE PROCEEDING.

THE Congo Conference the other day settled the limits of the Basin of the Congo, which is to belong to the "International Association of the Congo." It is an enormous region, extending, roughly speaking, north and south through about fifteen degrees, and east and west through about twenty degrees. It literally includes the heart of Africa. It extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the basin of the Nile and the great Lake of Tanganyika, and has the Zambesi River for its southern boundary. Again, roughly speaking, it is about the size of all the States of the Union east of the Mississippi. It is said to be of wonderful fertility, and enjoys a considerable amount of inland navigation besides what is afforded by the Congo, one of the great rivers of the world. As soon as the Conference had settled the boundaries of the Basin, it united in a dedication of this vast region — the American representatives, of course, joining—to free trade! The Declaration provides that the region described shall be perfectly free to the commerce of all nations; that "all flags, without distinction of nationality, shall have free access to the seashore of the territory; to the rivers which flow through it to the sea; to the Congo and all its affluents, including the lakes; to all ports on these lakes, and to all canals which may be hereafter dug in order to connect the lakes or water courses." It provides, also, that all citizens of all countries may undertake every species of transportation within the territory, as well as maritime and river shipping and boating.

The third article of the Declaration is a strange one for the representatives of a Republican Administration to sign. It provides that "no merchandise from any quarter imported into the territory, no matter under what flag, whether by sea, river, or land, shall have to pay any duties or taxes, except such as shall be necessary to meet expenses incurred in the interest of trade," and these shall be equal for all. All discrimination in favor of ships sailing under any flag is also forbidden.

Now the Basin of the Congo is inhabited in greater part—thinly, it is true, but not more thinly than some of our States and Territories—by a population which has attained in some places considerable proficiency in many of the civilized arts. Many of them are, for instance, expert iron workers. They raise almost every kind of crops. They are good carpenters and wood-carvers. With security against the raids of the slave-dealers and against internecine wars, they will undoubtedly make rapid progress as producers. They have, in fact, already scores of "infant industries," which probably need only about fifty years of protection to be able to hold their own against foreign competition. They are, moreover, excellent boatmen, and on board the European ships which frequent the coast make no mean sailors. With proper protection against foreign boats and ships, they would probably, in half a century or so, become expert navigators, and carry on a large internal and coastwise carrying trade. Consequently, the very first thing the Conference ought to have done after fixing the boundary of the basin, was to frame a good tariff, so as to have stimulated the industry of the people, and infused diversity into it in the manner prescribed by the American eco-

nomist Henry C. Carey. Instead of which it has (Messrs. Kasson and Sanford, the American representatives, concurring) covered the whole of this vast region with the deadly upas tree of British free trade. The whole country will, under this régime, be speedily flooded with the products of the pauper labor of Europe. Such factories and workshops as now exist on the Congo will be closed, everybody will supply himself with foreign manufactures in so far as his needs go, and all the gold will leave the country. The Cobden Club, too, will distribute its poisonous literature far and wide.

A worse beginning for an infant State, a worse introduction of a barbarous people to the civilized world, we think has never been heard of, and the mere contemplation of it ought to bring a blush to the cheek or a tear to the eye of every Blaine editor in the country. Our participation in these enormous divisions of territory in the Old World is of itself a little odd, considering that we are so jealous of European interference on this continent that we will not even allow Great Britain to promise to let the Isthmus of Panama alone. But think of our helping to shut out so vast a region from the blessings of a tariff and navigation laws. Think of our agreeing that there shall be no custom-houses, no collectors, appraisers, or inspectors, or informers, or smugglers, in a region so blessed by nature. Think of throwing open such a magnificent system of inland navigation to foreign-built vessels, and agreeing that no subsidies shall ever be paid to enable a Congo man to carry on the shipping business at a loss. One does not need to expatiate on these topics. Everybody's imagination can picture the situation in which this leaves us. It is in all ways unbecoming, and we repeat that Congress ought to overhaul the Kasson-Sanford mission a little. What are Americans doing in that galley?

THE FRENCH MILITARY POWER.

PARIS, December 4, 1884.

I HAVE before me a volume entitled 'The French Power (La Puissance française), by an Old Officer,' which, in a small compass, contains much matter, and treats with boldness a vital problem for France. This "old officer" belongs to a military family of Besançon. His name (I give it, though he has not placed it on the book, for it is well known to everybody in Paris) is Jeannerod. He was educated at Saint-Cyr, and remained in the regular army till he became, a short time before the war of 1870, the military writer of the *Temps*. When the war broke out he took service again, and Gambetta used him in his last struggles and made him a general. Jeannerod returned to the *Temps* after the war, and wrote very important articles on the reorganization of the French army, which took place in consequence of our defeats. He gives us now what might be called his "military testament," and his book is well worth reading, for it is inspired by a pure patriotism and rises above the quarrels of parties.

I well remember the effect which was produced in 1871 by the publication of a work of Renan's on the moral reorganization of France. Renan represented France placed like Hercules between vice and virtue, obliged to choose between two systems: either she must lead a Spartan life, become austere, severe, establish a strong discipline, a solid hierarchy, become the slave of a reasoned duty; or else she must abandon all idea of revenge by force, and revenge herself by the contagion of frivolity and vice: she must bring all the countries of Europe to her feet by the fascination of her own corruption. Well, France did neither of the two things. She has not become entirely Spartan nor entirely Athenian, taking the word in the sense of artistic, frivolous, and corrupt. In the first hour of our humiliation the Spartan feeling was uppermost, and to this feeling must be attributed the law which at present governs the French army. It was thought in 1871 that everything must be changed in the organization of our army, since our army had been defeated; and where could we look for a better model than to Prussia, since the Prussian system had triumphed at Woerth, at Sedan, at Metz, and before Paris?

The confusion which was made in this transitory period of 1871 and 1872 in political ideas was made also in military theories. M. Thiers and his friends had, during the last years of the Empire, established a belief in the independence of the political institutions upon the form of government. The theory of this doctrine, which would have seemed absurd to Montesquieu, is found in the 'France Nouvelle' of Prévost-Paradol, a book which may be considered as the résumé made by a most brilliant writer of the evening conversations of the Place Saint-Georges. Prévost-Paradol maintains in it that if you establish parliamentary government, with all its machinery of chambers and of guarantees, it is indifferent whether you put at the head of the executive power a president or a king; you can, by the turn of a key, transform a liberal monarchy into a republic, a republic into a liberal monarchy. The Constitution made at Versailles after the war was inspired by these ideas: it was a Constitution *à deux fins*, which could serve as well for a republic as for a monarchy.

I will not dwell here on the character of this Constitution. I only allude to it in order to show why the persons who reorganized our military laws at that same time did not examine the problem of a connection between the military laws of a country and its political and social state. The definitive form of government was not yet found, when it was agreed that France must adopt the system of universal military service. It seemed to be a natural consequence of the universal right of suffrage: each man was a citizen, each man must be a soldier from twenty to forty. Each man was to remain five years in the active army, five years in the reserve, ten years in what was called the territorial army. The Prussians had their "einjährige"; we decided that we ought to have our "volunteers of one year"—young men who were to serve but one year in the active army, after having passed an examination, and who paid a certain sum of money for this exemption. The young men of twenty were too numerous every year for the service of five years in the active army; they were permitted to draw lots, and those who took good numbers only remained six months with the regiment. Every year a class of the reserve was called for twenty-eight days, and a class of the territorial army for thirteen days. This system has now been at work for a number of years, and we can judge its effects.

The results are not considered satisfactory for the "einjährige." This aristocratic institution has not found favor in the army; the officers and non-commissioned officers do not, as a rule, look with favor on young men who come to the regiment with too much money. They treat them with much severity—so much so that none of these young men remain in the army. As a rule, they all return to their families after their term of one year, and they do not conceal their abhorrence of the military service. In the active army there are, as I have said, men who serve five years and others six months. The term of six months is too short—the six-months' men cannot be considered as effective soldiers; and in time of war they would be a weakening element. The men of the reserve are excellent: they are very exact, very well disciplined, they serve their term of twenty-eight days in a very praiseworthy manner. They are men between twenty-five and thirty years of age, strong, more serious than the young men of the active army; but it may be asked if they would be so willing, if, instead of a limited term of twenty-eight days of service in time of peace, they had to leave their families and their business for a long war. However, they are looked upon by our generals as a very good element of the army, perhaps the best.

So far the nation has not murmured under this terrible load; but it is impossible to think without some alarm of a state of things which subjects all the valid part of a population to the military life. The first attack was made against the privilege of one year's service, and the Chamber contemplates the substitution of a general three years' service instead of the present system, which imposes on many men five years' service. The law has not yet received the sanction of the Senate. Three years of service from which not a single young man would be exempt, which would interrupt all the studies of those who devote themselves to law, or medicine, or science, is a terrible drag on high civilization and culture. The radical school attacks vehemently the whole system of compulsory service, and talks of having merely a defensive army, an army of volunteers in time of war, and no permanent army. It is doubtful whether a strong military law can be long imposed on a democratic community:

"When," says M. Jeannerod, "M. Thiers resigned himself to see, as he said, France crossing the Atlantic, in order to find in the United States the type of its new incarnation, why did he not foresee that France would also take thence, on the constitution of an army, ideas which are inapplicable to Europe, and full of danger for the future of a country surrounded by powerful neighbors? If he had had such foresight, he would probably not have helped so much the establishment of a republic; for his ambition, natural as it was, would never have made him sacrifice to the satisfaction of founding a new era the passion for France which filled his heart."

M. Thiers was not favorable to the Prussian system. He did not like the short service; he preferred the old-fashioned armies, small in numbers, but well-disciplined and composed of veterans, even of mercenaries, to the modern masses of young soldiers. But the current was so strong that he could not stem it. He found a powerful adversary in General Trochu, who was the eloquent advocate of the three-years' universal service:

"Trochu," says M. Jeannerod, "dreamed for his country a sort of a Republic of Plato, rising under his own device 'Ense et aratro,' and preparing the future as Prussia had done after Jena. He committed a double error; for the new generation, devoted more than ever to the agitations of politics and to the struggle for wealth and comfort, is not disposed to be contented with the sword and the plough, and France is not in the condition in which was Prussia, a comparatively recent Power in 1806, without any great capacity for expansion, and free to concentrate herself and to devote herself to her hope of revenge."

The present effort has its origin in a patriotic idea; but one of these two things will happen—either this idea will become extinguished and die out of lassitude, or else it will determine a crisis, an end, which will replace us in a normal situation. M. Jeannerod looks forward and tries to imagine what this normal condition will be, and how it will affect the recruiting and the organization of the French army. He says boldly: "We regret the composition, the manners, the spirit of the old army." He believes that the present state of things in Europe cannot last:

"Before the end of this century, perhaps before a few years, the world, democratized or not,

will become again what it always was, an assemblage of forces directed by passions more than by sentiments, by circumstances more than by affinities, and set in action by men more than by nations. Then the law of numbers will cease to predominate, and the best army will be, as in the past, the army founded on the highest military spirit."

Is the military spirit dying out in France? M. Jeannerod thinks it is. He believes that "this spirit, already wounded by the increasing triumph of materialism, abused in the name of humanitarian rhetoric, discredited by our defeats, has received a new blow from the very laws which were intended to restore it, and from the derangement in social life." He regrets the suppression of the substitutes, who were a solid nucleus in the old regiments, as the substitutes were voluntary soldiers. He regrets the reduction of the term of service. He believes that a very advanced civilization is incompatible with any other army than a solid army of men of long service, and that the whole nation must only be called to arms to defend the national soil. "The existing organization would only serve in the particular cases in which the national independence might be threatened; but if the ideal of a great country cannot remain stationary, and if we assign no other object to our ambition than our security, then we shall, perhaps, be in danger of losing our security for ever." In other words, a purely defensive army cannot be sufficient for a country like France, surrounded by powerful monarchies. There are times when the offensive is the only useful defence: there are occasions when it becomes necessary for a country to unite in action with other countries for some distant object. Alliances are impossible between countries which have no liberty of action; and the notion of a purely defensive army is a constant limitation of this liberty. With a million of men *on paper*, France is liable to witness the development of all sorts of European events, without being able to interfere with it; and when the time comes to fight for defence, this million of men, suddenly called to arms, unused to war, may prove unable to cope with smaller armies, better organized and better disciplined.

The work on 'The French Power' deserves the attention not only of all military men, but of all those who take some interest in the fate of a country which, notwithstanding its faults and its misfortunes, will always remain one of the most eminent factors of civilization.

EXCAVATIONS AT CARTHAGE.

PARIS, December 4, 1884.

THE first idea that occurs to an educated traveller on landing at Goletta, the harbor of Tunis, is to visit the neighboring site where stood the mighty rival of ancient Rome. The railway from Goletta to Tunis will take him, in about five minutes time, to the station called Carthagenna near the little Arab village of Doar Schott (the camp of the lake), so called from the Lake of Tunis, whose shallow waters extend over several square miles to his left. Once at Carthagenna, he distinctly perceives, on his right, two little lakes near the sea shore, and before him a conspicuous hill crowned by a chapel and a newly created convent. The lakes are all that remain of Carthage's harbors, the celebrated Cothon, and the hill is Byrsa, the once powerful citadel where Asdrubal and the last defenders of Punic independence defied during six days the advance of the younger Scipio, master of the harbors, and of the surrounding plain.* The traveller must now take his course due north, passing between the lakes and the hill. On his road he will perceive a few ruins of the late Roman period, which have sometimes and most absurdly been called the "House of Hannibal" and the "Temple of Baal." The last named of these ruins, half way between the path and the southern angle of Byrsa, is nothing more than a piece of a wall, about fifteen feet high, exhibiting the characteristic features of late masonry. Beyond Byrsa, you perceive on the sea-side a small eminence crowned by a Turkish fort, called Bordj Djedeed (the little fort), which Dr. Davis gratuitously asserted to be ancient Byrsa—a ridiculous mistake, which has been too often repeated by uncritical compilers. At the foot of Bordj Djedeed, quite near to the sea, where remnants of ancient quays may still be traced, rises the largest ruins of Carthage. Although used during several centuries as a stone-quarry, they still exhibit a wild complex of walls, ruined vaults, huge blocks of masonry, and cement. They are generally considered as identical with the ancient gymnasium, but this is a mere hypothesis, which could only be tested by excavations, particularly difficult on that spot where heavy materials are piled up as if by an earthquake.

Your next walk must lead you up to the summit of Byrsa, where you enjoy a magnificent prospect, extending beyond the gulf of Tunis to the mountains of Zaghouan and Bou-Korneïn. At the foot of the little chapel built on the hill of Byrsa by Louis Philippe, and supposed to mark the place where King Louis IX. expired during his second crusade, Beulé's excavations, in 1860, brought to light a number of semicircular rooms, which he accepted as having belonged to the palace of the Roman proconsul. The convent erected behind the chapel contains a museum of antiquities collected by the French monks under the superintendence of Cardinal Lavigerie, and intrusted to the able care of the Carthaginian antiquarian *par excellence*, Father Delattre. Roman and Christian lamps, with varied inscriptions and symbols, are here about a thousand in number. There are also many Roman and Punic inscriptions, together with some remarkable mosaics, the largest of which, evidently of Christian workmanship, represents a nude female figure standing beside an altar with a branch of laurel in her hand, and crushing a serpent under her feet. A nude figure in Christian art is very rare, if not an unexampled occurrence. The subject of the mosaic is Saint Perpetua, who became a martyr at Carthage in the year 203. On the eve of her martyrdom, she dreamed she was an athlete, wrestling against the evil spirit of worldly temptation. This legend accounts for her having been represented, at some later epoch, in the attitude and attire of a triumphant athlete.

As you stand on the summit of Byrsa and look toward the sea, you perceive the harbors of Carthage, now partly blocked up by sand, to your right, and to your left the abandoned fort of Bordj Djedeed. These two spots and your standing point form a triangle which was formerly occupied by the busiest and richest town of the ancient world, and where a few meaningless and shapeless ruins now stand alone, in the midst of barley-fields, to recall the splendor, the decline, and the fall of Carthage. Many a traveller, led to the very spot where Hannibal addressed his citizens, on the now deserted and silent forum, has asked ingenuously: "But where is Carthage?" The answer was given centuries ago by the Italian poet:

> "Giace l'alta Cartago; appena i segni
> Dell' alte sue ruine il lido serba."

But I should venture to propose another answer to the same inquiry: "If you wish to see where Carthage *is*, do not look around, but under your feet; and if you wish to see Carthage itself, take hold of a spade and dig until you find it."

Nearly half a century ago, in 1837, a small number of scholars and distinguished amateurs, MM. Dureau de la Malle, Raoul-Rochette, Count Pourtalès, Sir Grenville Temple, and Falbe, an officer in the Danish navy, formed a private association with the object of excavating ancient sites in northern Africa. The capital brought together amounted to about £1,000. Sir Grenville Temple and Falbe started for Constantine, the ancient Cirta, in 1838, and subsequently excavated at Carthage on a hill next to Byrsa, where the temple of the goddess Cælestis is supposed to have stood. They discovered some mosaics and a fragment of mural painting, which were immediately published by the society. It seems, however, that further contributions were requested in vain, for there is no mention made of the society after 1839. Twenty years later, a celebrated French scholar, M. Beulé, the historian of the Acropolis at Athens, cleared up at his own expense the rooms of the proconsular palace at Byrsa, mentioned above. About the same time the English chaplain at Tunis, Doctor Davis, undertook excavations on various spots of the plain between the harbors and Byrsa; he discovered some very beautiful mosaics, which are now in the British Museum and were published by M. Franks in *Archæologia* (vol. xxxviii, 1860, p. 202). Fifteen years once more went by before any new researches were undertaken at public expense. The Arabs had, in the meantime, dug up a large number of antiquities, mosaics, and Punic inscriptions, which were beginning to fetch high prices on the Tunis market. A minister of the Bey, the *Khasnadar*, had contrived, by obliging the Arabs to give him everything they discovered, to gather a large collection—including much rubbish—which was purchased in 1874 by the Museum at Vienna. That very same year an interpreter of the French Consulate at Tunis, M. de Sainte-Marie, began excavations on a spot half-way between the harbors and Bordj Djedeed. He had the good fortune to find about 2,000 Punic inscriptions, votive offerings to the great Punic goddess Tanit, generally containing a short dedicatory inscription surmounted by *graffiti* representing animals, plants, and various religious symbols. The collection thus obtained, together with some Greek dedications to Serapis and a life-size statue of the Empress Sabina, was loaded on the French man-of-war *Magenta*, and carried to Toulon. Unfortunately, while lying in the harbor, the ironclad was blown up by an explosion, and the inscriptions were only partly recovered through the exertions of divers. All that could be rescued has been deposited in the Cabinet des Médailles at the National Library in Paris.*

I have thought it necessary to enter into some detail about the former excavations on the site of Carthage in order to give the reader a general idea of the very little which has been done as yet in the way of clearing it. The site of the town, when compared to that of Rome or of Athens, will be found peculiarly suited to archæological purposes, no modern town having been built on the place occupied by the ancient one, and the buying up of barley crops being the only preliminary expense to be borne by any one undertaking to dig in the vast area of the Punic city. But digging itself is very expensive on account of the huge mass of rubbish accumulated for centuries above the primitive soil. The town was destroyed and then rebuilt by the Romans; the Roman houses and temples were in their turn superseded by new buildings at the beginning of the Christian period; still later, the Christian

* A description, however accurate it may be, can only be well understood by the help of a map. There exists now a very good plan of Carthage in Tissot's 'Géographie de la Province Romaine d'Afrique,' vol. i., Paris, Hachette, 1884.

* M. de Sainte-Marie has just published a minute report on his discoveries ('Mission à Carthage,' Paris, Leroux, 1884.)

town was levelled to the ground and Arab villages established on the same spot. Now that all these vestiges of past civilizations have disappeared, the foundations of the Punic town—the recovery of which would be of so great interest to archæology—are buried under twenty to twenty-four feet of ruins belonging to the Arab, the Byzantine, and the first Roman periods. When I was sent to Carthage, in the beginning of 1884, to resume the long-interrupted and long-expected excavations, the chief object of my study was to obtain an exact estimation of the depth at which fragments of Punic architecture appeared beneath the superstructions of Roman times. I had been directed to dig in different places until I should reach the virgin soil, and it was reasonable to expect that on my way to the *terra vergine* I should meet with some interesting specimens of Roman and Punic art.

Having visited, in company with my friend M. Babelon, three important sites in the southern part of the Regency, we commenced digging at Carthage in the first days of March, between the Acropolis of Byrsa and the harbors. Appian had taught us that this part of the town was the most thickly peopled and contained many houses six stories high, which were burnt and destroyed by the Roman invaders, B. C. 145. We accordingly discovered, at the depth of about five yards, evident marks of an extensive conflagration; in some places the layer of ashes is two feet deep, and contains many small fragments of melted metal. Under that layer of ashes we began to find the foundations of the numerous cisterns annexed to every Punic house. Roman Carthage derived its water supply from Mount Zaghouan, by means of an extensive aqueduct, the greater part of which is still to be seen; but at the previous period, as nowadays in the greater number of African towns, rain-water had to be collected in cisterns, which were built in a peculiar and very practical style. Some of them—including the very large ones close to Bordj Djedeed—seem to have been respected by the successive invaders, and might still be used if the site of Carthage were inhabited.

Before reaching the virgin soil, which lies about twenty feet beneath the level of the present ground, we encountered a complex of masonry, where, in spite of its ruined character, we could clearly trace and record on our ground-plan the direction of four parallel streets ascending in the direction of Byrsa. Near the edge of a well built with large blocks of limestone fitted together without any mortar, we discovered three interesting specimens of ancient Punic art and industry. The first one is a terracotta mask, about five inches high, very well preserved to the top of the forehead. It represents a female head with a smiling and yet coarse expression, recalling the types engraved on ancient Carthaginian and Sicilian coins, and also terracotta heads of Etruscan workmanship. The eyes, very large and placed somewhat obliquely, as in archaic Greek sculpture, were painted with slight touches of black and blue. This fragment bears witness to the influence of ancient Sicilian art on the rude artists of Carthage, an influence which had already been ascertained to some extent by the study of early Sicilian and Punic coinage.

The next object of interest we found was a small ivory basso-relievo, about six inches high, exhibiting a female figure, draped in a long robe and holding in her hands a globe. The tablet is pierced with two holes at the upper corners, and was undoubtedly affixed to some domestic utensil, such as a casket. The style of the workmanship is very rough, and seems exclusively Punic. As regards the subject represented, it is difficult to express a quite satisfactory opinion, but we venture to think that this figure is the great goddess Tanit, carrying in her arms the cosmic sphere as a symbol of her power over the universe. Our third discovery was that of a terracotta tablet bearing a neo-Punic inscription—probably some commercial contract—written with black ink after the fashion of the Egyptian *ostraka*. The decipherment of the inscriptions has been intrusted to M. Ernest Renan, and the result will shortly be published in the forthcoming volume of the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum.'

Besides these three objects, every one of which is as yet unique in Punic archæology, we dug up a very great number of Christian and Roman lamps, small terracotta heads of Roman and Punic style, a quantity of *glandes missiles* in terracotta, and about fifty little disks in ivory or in horn, pierced with a large hole in the middle, the use of which still remains a mystery to us, and has not, as far as I know, been explained by any archæologist. Similar ones are to be found in the collection of the convent of Byrsa which I mentioned at the beginning of this paper.

We next betook ourselves to the western quarter of Carthage, in the neighborhood of the circus and of the village of Doar Schott. Our excavations at that point led us to the discovery of a huge marble column, the remnant of some large Roman temple, and of a draped marble statue more than life size, which must have represented a Roman emperor. Unfortunately, the head of the statue could not be found. In that part of the city, we saw no ashes whatever, and this leads me to suppose that the great fire kindled by the Roman conquerors only extended to a small area between the harbors, Bordj Djedeed, and Byrsa. The place where the village of Doar Schott now stands was taken by Scipio before the final assault which resulted in the storming of Byrsa, after six days' hard fighting in the labyrinth of the ascending streets.

We next began digging on the very spot where M. de Sainte-Marie, ten years before, had discovered the vast number of Punic inscriptions now in the National Library in Paris. Our intention was to clear up the place completely, instead of pushing mines through the rubbish, as had been done previously for the sake of economy. We soon discovered that M. de Sainte-Marie had by no means exhausted this privileged corner, where votive offerings to the goddess Tanit, carried out of some neighboring temple, had been piled up together with other fragments at some unknown epoch, but probably during the rebuilding of the city after the Roman conquest. More than five hundred slabs, adorned with inscriptions or figures, were brought to light in the space of about a fortnight. The inscriptions, unfortunately, are very monotonous; the following translation of one of them may give an idea of the whole series to which it belongs: "To our Lady Tanit face of Baal and to our Lord Baal-Ammon, vow made by Bodmelkarth, son of Hannibal, son of Bodmelkarth, in acknowledgment of their having listened to his prayer! May they bless him!" The names vary naturally from one inscription to another, but much less than might be expected; we generally meet with the very names familiar to us by the study of ancient history, and it is truly puzzling to imagine how so many Hamilcars, Hannos, Hannibals, and Bomilcars could be distinguished from each other in such a populous city as Carthage.

The language and writing of the inscriptions are the ancient Punic—that is, a variety of Phœnician closely connected with Hebrew; indeed, a scholar acquainted with the elements of the Hebrew vocabulary is sure easily to understand the majority of Punic inscriptions, and what he does not understand remains as yet unintelligible to the most distinguished specialists. As we have not preserved a line of Phœnician literature, but only a certain number of inscriptions, we can do no better than to explain these inscriptions through the help of a cognate language which we are well acquainted with, ancient Hebrew. But the task gets somewhat difficult when we meet with new expressions different from the ordinary formulary of votive inscriptions. Suppose the Spanish language were unknown to us except by a few lapidary records inscribed on tombstones; it would be very easy, by means of Italian forms, to understand the general meaning of Spanish epitaphs; but as soon as we came across a word borrowed from the Arabic or lacking a parallel in Italian, much ink would be spent in vain before we could ascertain its meaning. This comparison, suggested by M. Renan, is a good one, and bears even a closer scrutiny than my space allows me to indulge in.

The slabs or *stelæ* are surmounted by a small pediment whereon the symbol of the Punic Trinity—a triangle crowned by a circle—and other *graffiti* (such as an open hand, a palm-tree, the moon, a lotos-flower, a dolphin, a ram, an anchor, a caduceus, and various implements and animals) are generally to be found. The style of these *graffiti* is very rough and *handwerksmässig*, as the Germans say; nevertheless, they afford a curious insight into local manners and customs, and are particularly suggestive to the historian of the as yet little known Punic religion. The lower part of the slabs is not polished, and it is highly probable that they were planted in the earth, just like tomb-stones in Oriental cemeteries, and placed close to each other in the courtyard or the outer precincts of a temple.

The smaller objects we found on that very spot cannot be described accurately without the help of engravings; one of them is of peculiar interest, and may be mentioned here as being the largest statuette in terracotta yet discovered at Carthage. It represents a man—probably the author of some offering—holding a purse in one hand and a lambkin in the other. The type exhibits great affinity with that of the Greek Hermes Criophorus. Our statuette is made of very heavy and thick clay, and bears, like the terracottas of Tanagra, a vivid coloring. It is certainly not a work of pure Punic art, but a local copy from some Greek or Sicilian model.

The excavations brought to light a number of cisterns and well-preserved walls, exhibiting a very original style of masonry. Large square stones are put up vertically at certain distances, and the intermediate space is filled up with a mixture of smaller stones and of mortar. We as yet possess but a very scanty knowledge of Punic architecture, and, judging from the few specimens discovered, may confidently assert that it was of a very inferior style. The practical-minded Carthaginians only cared for solidity, and beauty must have been beyond the scope of their intellect, exclusively devoted, as it would seem, to commercial purposes. Hannibal himself, however admirable he may appear to us, was only the instrument and the victim of a commercial policy.

Quite near to the place where we discovered the Punic inscriptions we found, at a depth of twenty-five feet under the actual surface, a magnificent tomb or shrine built with huge blocks of limestone. The entrance is to the east, and consists of two oblique stones supporting each other, the length of these posts exceeding two yards. The interior of this monument is covered with a well-preserved layer of clay; unfortunately, it had been plundered by the Roman conquerors, and we discovered nothing worth notice in clearing it out. Similar tombs were discovered some years ago in Byrsa and the neighboring hills; they probably belong to a period of Carthaginian history long preceding the Punic wars, for at that epoch the necropolis of Carthage was on

Mount Gamart, a hill forming the northern boundary of the town, where many subterranean tombs, all visited and pillaged by the Romans and the Arabs, are still to be seen.

The fruits of our excavations were divided between three public collections, the Convent of Byrsa, the National Library, and the Louvre in Paris. They will be made known to the public by means of photographs which are to appear next year in the *Archives des Missions*. I must add that the expense of our work, which lasted about two months, did not exceed 9,000 francs, and was contributed by the French Department of Public Instruction and Fine Arts.

Before ending this article, I must apologize for having devoted so much of your precious space to an account of personal discoveries and exertions. These are but the starting-point of a series of excavations to be conducted on a larger scale, and which are expected to throw a new light on the topography and antiquities of the great Punic metropolis. The chief result of what has been done is the certainty that the ruins of Punic Carthage have not entirely perished, and may be again brought to light by systematic and protracted work, for the benefit of coming generations. SALOMON REINACH.

Correspondence.

PREMATURE CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some years ago a well-known French painter *intended* to exhibit a picture at the Salon, but was prevented, by some cause, from sending his work in time, so that it did not appear. This did not prevent a learned critic of the fine arts from descanting on the faults of the performance just as if he had seen it. A parallel case has recently occurred in American journalism. A writer in the *Union* of Brooklyn, describing my new work on Landscape, says:

"Mr. Hamerton himself tries his hand again at the needle, with as little success, it must be confessed, as usual. Though Mr. Hamerton knows so much and writes so delightfully upon art matters, and particularly on etching, he is one of the worst etchers we have ever known."

You see, the critic pretends that he has seen the book and disapproves of my plate. Will you allow me to remark that he cannot have seen the book, as a copy of it is not yet in existence, and that there is not a plate by me among the illustrations? I had some thoughts of contributing one that was mentioned by the publishers in an advertisement from which the critic got the little he knows about the book, but instead of one etching it so happens that I have contributed twelve illustrations of another kind. As these were not mentioned in the advertisement, they have, of course, escaped the censure of my critic.—Sincerely yours,

P. G. HAMERTON.

AUTUN, December 13, 1884.

THE SPANISH TREATY ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have to express my thanks for your clear explanation of your view that the ratification of the reciprocity treaty with Spain would not affect the price of sugar in this country so long as we continued to import any sugar at all from non-Spanish ports. Cuba, you say, would send us more, but the non-Spanish ports would send just as much less, that trade being diverted to England, etc., to replace the falling off in Cuban sugar there.

But I now object that a great volume of trade will not spontaneously divert itself from one market to another, without any motive. Such an event can only be due either to a fall of price in the first market or to a rise in the second. The sugar which is now sent here is sent because, in the existing state of prices, the owner has found it more advantageous to send here than elsewhere; and here it will continue to come, unless prices change sufficiently to overcome the excess of advantage. If, therefore, the price of sugar were not to fall here on the ratification of the treaty, in England it would have to go up. But an advance in price implies diminished sales—diminished production—somebody forced out of the sugar-growing business. Yet nobody could be forced out of that business if the price had nowhere fallen. How can you escape this dilemma?

You say that the price here would be kept up by the duties that would have to be paid on some of the imported sugar (*i. e.*, by the cost of getting it to market), and that when this sugar, thus sent at a disadvantage, ceased to come, then and only then would the price fall. The principle of this seems to me quite sound—only too sound for your conclusion. For the non-Spanish sugar which we now import comes from various countries very differently situated. Upon some of it there is a considerable profit, while some barely pays the cost of production; upon a part of it there is considerably more profit than if it were sent to England, while for a part it is almost a matter of indifference to which market it is sent. If now the treaty should cause less of this non-Spanish sugar to be sent to this country, that which would be diverted would clearly be that which there is now scarce any inducement to send here. It would follow, I think, according to your own principle, that the price here, being no longer kept up by that very unadvantageously sent sugar, must fall when that should cease to come. C. S. PEIRCE.

WASHINGTON, December 22, 1884.

[We "escape this dilemma" by the use of infinitesimals. One-thirty-second of a cent per pound or even less would be a sufficient reduction in price to secure the American market to the Cuban planter for all the sugar he could produce. It would give him all the advantage he needs. One-thirty-second of a cent per pound would, therefore, be the maximum gain to the American consumer from the treaty, until (if ever) the Cuban supply could overtake and exceed the American demand. Mr. Peirce's second paragraph, he will permit us to say, carries us into the region of the differential calculus beyond our depth.—ED. NATION.]

A BAD ADVISER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of last week you say that, in the work of constructing a Cabinet for President Cleveland, "the greatest activity is displayed . . . by the few Democratic journals which did all they could to defeat Cleveland during the campaign"; that in these journals "we find the liveliest activity about the new President's attitude upon civil-service reform"; that "they are sure that if he enforces the present law, and especially if he attempts to enlarge its scope, there will be trouble in the party."

One of these so-called Democratic journals is certainly the Cincinnati *Enquirer*. Any one who will take the trouble to examine its files can see for himself—

1. That it was most prompt to publish in great detail all the vile stories against Cleveland.

2. That where it said one good word for Cleveland, it said ten for Blaine.

3. That its praise for Cleveland was of the kind that damns.

4. That it has always ridiculed civil-service reform, and has always been an ardent advocate of the spoils system.

5. That the whole tone of the paper was such as to make more votes for Blaine than Cleveland.

The editor and proprietor of this "Democratic paper" has knifed Thurman, Pendleton, Ward, and other honest and able Democrats; he has no use for such men. But he is "solid" with the vicious and corruptible element of the party here; hence his influence in local politics, which is not small, but is thoroughly demoralizing and baneful to this community.

At Chicago this pretended Democrat supported Cleveland, not because of any devotion to him, but because he was thus most likely to accomplish Thurman's defeat, and perhaps secure for his tool the nomination for the Vice-Presidency. It is now going the rounds of the papers out here that this spoilsman and treacherous "editor" has actually been so far recognized by Cleveland as to receive an invitation to assist him (by advice) in his preparations for assumption of his high duties. If this be true, does it not even now show that all friends of good government, who all along have been so hopeful that Cleveland would prove a great blessing to our country, are doomed to bitter disappointment?

The writer has no acquaintance with any of the persons above alluded to, has no *personal* feeling for or against any of them, and is no politician, but is one among the thousands of Cincinnati Democrats who do *not* want the wicked to flourish at the expense—moral and pecuniary—of the people. CITIZEN.

CINCINNATI, December 23, 1884.

Notes.

A. C. ARMSTRONG & SON will publish shortly, by arrangement with Macmillan & Co., Professor Gosse's forthcoming edition of the works of Thomas Gray.

A definitive edition of the poetical works of Lord Byron has been undertaken by Mr. Buxton Forman, with Mr. Murray for publisher.

Ernest Hartley Coleridge is preparing for publication, through Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., a biographical memoir of his grandfather, S. T. Coleridge.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have ready for immediate issue 'Sermons for the Church Year,' by the Rev. W. Benham, in two volumes; 'The Preacher's Promptuary of Anecdote,' by the Rev. W. Frank Shaw; and Benham's 'History of the Episcopal Church in America.'

A list of Government publications on the subject of interoceanic communication by way of the American isthmus has been issued by James Anglim & Co., Washington.

Hudson's Army and Navy List, begun in December, 1884, and published at 1420 Pennsylvania Avenue, Washington, is to appear monthly, containing an alphabetical list of officers with their addresses. Its utility speaks for itself.

The *United Service*, recently transferred to this city (T. H. S. Hamersly), and hitherto devoted to the interests of the Military and Naval Service, now embraces those of the Civil Service as well—a perfectly just association, and a blow, in its way, to the popular notion of the applicability of the spoils system to one branch rather than to another of the public service. Moreover, a preference in appointments in the civil service is given to those who have been in the army or navy between 1861 and 1865. In the January number Lieutenant Shufeldt, U. S. N.,

begins an interesting narrative of his journey to and across Madagascar.

A *Journal of Mycology*, which will be practically a manual of North American fungi, is to be published monthly at Manhattan, Kansas, by Prof. W. A. Kellerman, of the State Agricultural College. His colleague in editing this periodical will be Prof. J. B. Ellis, of Newark, N. J.

With its January issue *Scandinavia*, that excellent organ of the cultivated portion of our Scandinavian fellow-citizens, enters upon its second volume. It is well edited and well printed. Its place of publication is Chicago.

Much the most curious article in the *Magazine of American History* for January is that relating to the first balloon trip across the Channel from England to France. Dr. John Jeffries, jr., an American Loyalist living in London, and a Frenchman named Blanchard, achieved this exploit at no little risk on January 7, 1785. The details of the voyage are soon given, but much greater interest attaches to the extracts from Dr. Jeffries's Diary, showing the extraordinary attentions and compliments bestowed upon him by the nobility and royal family—such as the discoverer of a remedy for the phylloxera could not nowadays receive. His social observations at this short distance from the great political upheaval of '89 are very striking. The Duchesse de Polignac received him at her toilet, "like a Venus in white muslin, and surrounded by five ladies all in white, who were attiring her—a most engaging, lovely, affable woman." He saw the Princesse de Lamballe presented—"most lovely, and the most brilliant and rich dress I had ever seen." He dined at Passy with Franklin, and went with him to the Comédie Française, where *all* the parts were well played, and not otherwise as in England. At the Hôtel de Dieu he was "conducted through all the female wards—some very low and dark; three, four, and five sick adults in the same bed, lying heads and points."

By a happy thought, *Science* for December 26, 1884, has been turned into an almanac for the new year, with a scientific collaboration which may be still further extended another year. The frontispiece is very properly the sun, depicted with its fiery coruscations by the Harvard College Observatory. Professor Young discourses of sun spots and the earth; Prof. Winslow Upton on weather forecasts; W. M. Davis on temperature in the United States and its changes, and on earthquakes; Prof. C. G. Rockwood, jr., on tornadoes and how to escape them; Dr. C. V. Riley on the insects of the year; Dr. C. Hart Merriam on the coming of the robin and other early birds; Prof. William Trelease on blooming times for flowers, with a floral calendar; while Prof. I. P. Roberts furnishes "a few pertinent hints to farmers." Besides solar, meteorological, and celestial maps in great variety, there is a chart of standard time. The almanac proper will be found extremely rich in information.

Nature for December 4, 1884, contains a striking woodcut after a photograph of a Dakota tornado (August 28, 1884). Prof. E. S. Holden, of the Washburn Observatory, Madison, Wis., furnished this unique meteorological portrait, which was taken by Mr. F. N. Robinson, of Howard, D. T.

To the December number of *Longman's*, Mr. R. L. Stevenson contributes "A Humble Remonstrance" against certain of the statements made in Mr. Walter Besant's lecture on the "Art of Fiction," and in Mr. Henry James's criticism thereof. Especially interesting is his characterization of three classes of novels—the novel of adventure, the novel of character, and the dramatic novel. In the same number is contained the first half of "Sir Jocelyn's Cap," a latter-day fairy tale, setting forth the deeds and misdeeds of a veritable wishing-cap, which has been in the family of the owner for five hundred years. It is full of absurd fantasy and delightful humor. Although it appears anonymously, we incline to the belief that this is the tale in which Mr. Walter Besant, Mr. Walter Herries Pollock, and Mr. Charles Brookfield have collaborated.

The one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the town of Leicester, Mass., was celebrated a baker's dozen of years ago, and last September, the Academy having fulfilled its century of usefulness, another celebration became necessary; another pamphlet of proceedings also—'The Centenary of Leicester Academy'—with all the speeches, letters, and versifying of the occasion; with lists of teachers, views of the several Academy buildings (the first the storehouse of a Portuguese Jew driven from Newport by the British occupation). This institution has had its share of distinguished men as pupils and instructors, and has been liberally endowed by townsfolk and alumni. It has had alumnæ, by the way, from the start—a special distinction; but no female teacher before 1835. The pride and interest felt in it, and its vigorous continuance, are among the hopeful signs of the times in Massachusetts, like the revival of the yet more venerable Dummer Academy a few years ago. Such events, and the constant founding of rural public libraries, show that the old saving Puritan leaven is still at work in the Bay State.

Edward P. Call, Boston, publishes an 'A-B-C Spanish Phrase Book, for American Travellers in Mexico, etc.' The frank notice on the title page, "Published under contract with the Mexican Central, the Mexican National, and the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé Railroad Companies," gives a fair intimation of the *motif* of the little pamphlet. Everything is reduced to the actual needs of the light-armed tourist. The arrangement is novel and convenient—alphabetical, with the key-word in full-faced type. Aside from several misprints, the matter is accurate if not elegant. Those who wish to learn Spanish in this way could no doubt acquire enough to pick their way along the American railways in Mexico, with only a little more difficulty and misunderstanding than they would encounter if they were to rely upon their English.

Just so far as Kingsley's 'Water Babies' was written with an eye to the amusement of parents it was, in theory and in fact, unsuitable for children, who should be dealt with frankly, and be, as well as seem, the audience addressed. It has just been admitted to Ginn & Heath's "Classics for Children," by simple abridgment made on the above principle by J. H. Stickney. "Not a word has been needed with which to close the seams, and nothing of Tom's history is lost to the reader."

James Johonnot and Eugene Bouton have prepared, in 'How We Live' (D. Appleton & Co.), an elementary treatise on physiology and the kindred sciences which is very good of its kind, and well suited for primary scholars.

'Maxims of Public Health' is an attempt "to make gravely important sanitary matters interesting as literature." The dogmata are sound, but their expression is not always felicitous. The nuisance of a cesspool near another's dwelling can be better set forth than by the illustration (p. 40), "Free love, as between you and your neighbor's wife, may be very agreeable to you, but, as between your neighbor and your wife, is sure to be disagreeable to you." There is no reason for trash like that (to which a special heading, "Free-love and Cesspools," is given in the index) as a substitute for "Do as you would be done by." The author, Dr. O. W. Wight, Health Officer of Detroit, has brought to bear his official experience in preparing these brief essays, which in another edition may receive the polish better suited to their intrinsic value.

Dr. Frank H. Hamilton, in 'Conversations upon Medical Ethics' (Bermingham & Co.), puts forth in rather labored style the arguments for and against the recent medical action in New York that has opened physicians' consultations to those who are not "regular." He does not think it a public good.

William Wood & Co. publish Dr. Douglas Graham's 'Practical Treatise on Massage.' This is a valuable professional book for which, and for the subject to which it is devoted, we venture to predict distinguished success. But it will come slowly.

Francis & Loutrel send us their pocket diary for the current year. From Marcus Ward comes a more dainty "Concise Diary" in Russia-leather covers, the diary being divided into four little volumes, each of which in turn is inserted in the covers. The "Daily Memoranda" sheets published by Slote & Janes will be found very convenient. For the thirty-fourth year P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, bring out their handy 'Physician's Visiting-list.'

We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the 'Almanach de Gotha' for 1885, the one hundred and twenty-second year of this ever-welcome annual. Rich in information to date—the latest pages were printed after the middle of November—this volume brings less that is both new and important than any of its recent predecessors, comparing their contents with those of the closely preceding years. The reason is that few years in our time have been so barren of territorial or dynastic changes, and so unproductive of new censuses, as the year 1884. The death of the Duke of Brunswick is the only fairly important event in the dynastic necrology of the twelvemonth, the decease of the crown-prince of the Netherlands having wrought no practical change as yet. The substitution, by the Porte, of M. Khrestovitch for Aleko Pasha, as Governor-General of Eastern Rumelia, is mentioned only in the brief chronology of the almanac; that "autonomous," but not even semi-independent, province of the Ottoman Empire being unrepresented, not only under its own head, but even under the title "Turquie," though Samos and Bulgaria form subdivisions. Of Asiatic countries, the editors have extinguished the independence of Anam, considering it a dependency of France, and have acknowledged Corea, by giving it a separate division, as an independent state. For editorial purposes this may do, but the real status of these two countries can hardly have been affected by such an undiplomatic decision. Of the four portraits attached to the volume, that of the French premier, Jules Ferry, is the most significant.

A phototype of the fine marble bust of Ernst Curtius, lately executed by means of an international fund, accompanies a pamphlet report of the festive proceedings on his seventieth birthday, September 2, 1884 (Berlin). A list of the subscribers to the fund is followed by some grateful elegiacs from Curtius's own pen, acknowledging the quickening which the testimonial has given him:

"Fragte mich still, Wie lang' wirst du dein Feld noch bestellen,
Bis auch dir vom Pflug sinkt die ermattende Hand?
Da kam Euer Geschenk. . . . ."

A correspondent of the *Academy*, writing from Leipzig, reports a glaring instance of ignorance and arrogance in a German literary critic, and of editorial mismanagement in the control of a journal once highly esteemed. A Herr Leo, of Bonn, in the *Magazin für die Literatur des In- und Auslandes*—a weekly founded more than half a century ago by Joseph Lehmann, but in his lifetime devoted, under a shorter title, to "foreign literature" alone—reviews in a recent number Laurence Oliphant's 'Altiora Peto,' and the title of the book appers thus: "*Altiora*, von [by] Peto Laurence Pliphant." Then follow remarks on the

peculiarity of the title and on the name of the author, the reviewer reaching the conclusions that the name is a pseudonym and the author a lady, probably an American woman, with "some knowledge of English life." The correspondent adds: "I have waited for the following number before sending you this, thinking the blunders would be rectified in it. But no such thing happened." This tends to show that the reading public of the *Magazin* is, in some respects, worthy of its present editorship. The journal has been gradually sinking under its last two editors.

London, which is said to contain more of several nations than are to be found in the proper home of the nation, is now to have a colony of Japanese in an entirely Japanese village to be built at Albert Gate. We suppose, the Japanese natives are brought over to give the English a sort of object lesson in geography, in continuation of the supposed educational work of the Zoölogical Gardens. The Japanese will be visited and stared at as the Zulus were at the Jardin des Plantes two or three years ago; and as they are a pleasanter and more imitable people, a little craze will no doubt spring up in fashionable London—a Japanomania. If it furnishes Gilbert and Sullivan with the *motif* for a new "Patience," the Japanese village will have justified its existence.

Romeike & Curtice's (London) Artistic and Literary Correspondence has added an advertising branch, which serves to bring together employers and unemployed, architects and public jobs, caterers and weddings and banquets, buyers and auctions, etc., etc.

M. Salomon Reinach has presented to the Academy of Inscriptions an ingenious conjecture to explain an obscure word in a Phœnician inscription at Citium. In the accounts of a Phœnician temple a list of the persons under salary is given—servants, scribes, masons, etc., and finally dogs. Renan and Derenbourg explain this as referring to the consecrated young men attached to the temple. Halévy believes it rather means watch-dogs. But M. Reinach pointed out that in two Greek inscriptions lately found in a temple in Epidauros, mention is made of dogs who cured the sick by licking their wounds. He called attention also to other texts in which the same curative rôle is assigned to serpents. There are many indications, he declared, of the important rôle which both animals played in the worship of Æsculapius, and reason to think that the god himself was originally worshipped under the forms of those animals. Indeed, as his colleagues, MM. Ravaisson and Perrot, remarked, there is much to show that the anthropomorphism which we admire in Greek art is comparatively modern, and took the place of a complete system of zoömorphism, such as we find surviving to a greater extent in the religions of Egypt and Assyria.

M. Edmond Le Blant, in making the researches for his 'Les Sarcophages Chrétiens de la Gaule,' has satisfied himself that the monumental sculptors of France kept Pagan models in their workrooms during the Christian period of the Roman Empire, and even under the Merovingian Kings. Pagan and Christian subjects are continually seen on the same monument, and led the antiquaries of the last century into error. As they could not understand how Christians could use Pagan symbols and depict mythologic .l scenes, they referred the whole monument in such cases to ante-Christian times, and tried to explain the Christian part in accordance with Greek and Roman mythology—the resurrection of Lazarus, for instance, as a ceremony of the worship of Isis.

By an error in transcribing, of which the genesis is not far to seek, we wrote 'Friends in Council,' in the *Nation* of December 18, when announcing the separate reprint of Mrs. A. M. Gummere's 'Friends in Burlington [N. J.],' just issued by J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia. At Burlington was one of the earliest Friends' settlements in America.

—One of the greatest finds yet made in England for the elucidation of early Puritan history is that which we now owe to Mr. Henry Fitz-Gilbert Waters, whose antiquarian mission in London we have frequently commended to our readers. When Winthrop and his company arrived at the future Bay settlement, they fell in not only with Blackstone but with Samuel Maverick, the latter already settled on the island which we know as East Boston. Maverick became, under Charles II., a very active enemy of the Bay Government, and the document just discovered by Mr. Waters is "a briefe description of New England and the severall townes therein, together with the present government thereof," prepared by Maverick, perhaps for the use of Hyde, the future Earl of Clarendon. This important manuscript is printed in the January issue of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. We cannot expatiate upon it, but will say that it begins at Pemaquid, on the coast of Maine, and, in a very orderly and minute manner, follows the settlements southward to Long Island and Hudson's River; from the "Island Mahatas" up to "Fort Oranja," in one direction, and to the Swedes' colony at the mouth of the Delaware in another—"the utmost southwest bounds of New England." The crops, the natural resources, the industries, the Old Country derivation of the several towns and plantations, the patents under which they were founded, are among the particulars of this well-informed and accurate observer, who reveals for the first time the date of his own colonizing, as 1624. He does not spare the earth-greed or the intolerant spirit of the Bay Government. He records Thomas Morton's being "apprehended and keept in the Common Goale a whole winter, nothing laid to his Charge but the writeing of a Booke entituled New Canaan, which indeed was the truest discription of New England as then it was that euer I saw." "And very cruelly handled," he continues, *pace* Mr. Dexter, "by whipping and imprisonment was Mr. Clark, Obadiah Holmes, and others for teaching and praying in a private house on the Lord's day," though their persecutors "went over thither to enjoy liberty of Conscience." "And for hanging the three Quakers last yeare [1659] I think few approved of it." Rhode Island is quaintly described as "full of people, haveing been a receptacle for people of severall Sorts and Opinions." Hartford "is a galant Towne, and many rich men in it." In short, we have here the first New England gazetteer, with valuable historical excursuses.

—A document possessing such universal interest for New England ought to bring a proper reward to its discoverer, by an immediate enlargement of contributors to the fund which maintains him abroad. Meantime Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" are steadily forwarded to the *Register*. Pemberton, Cotton, Usher, Hoar, Mason (of Pequot fame), Peck, Appleton, Derby, Moody, Faulkner, Nicholson, are some of the familiar names involved in the latest batch of testaments, etc. Among the book notices of this number of the *Register*, by the way, we see mentioned a 'Genealogical Cross Index to the Four Volumes of the Genealogical Dictionary of James Savage,' containing all the surnames in the four volumes of that monumental work which are not found in their alphabetical places. The compiler and publisher is O. P. Dexter, Box 193, New York.

—The *Century* has for some time past been noticeable for the attention it has given to matters of philanthropy in a wide sense—practical questions regarding the diffusion of morals, to speak broadly, and in particular regarding the duty of the citizen to the public in other than political relations. Mr. Cable's article, in the January number, upon the real status of the freedmen, their wrongs, and the duty of all Southerners who love the South toward the negro, is a contribution of this kind. It was wisely deferred until after the campaign; now it will be easier for all to see that he has entered on the subject from social and not from political motives, and has laid bare the facts as they look in the light of civilization the world over, and has pointed out the remedy in a quickening of the conscience, justice, and enlightened self-interest of the Southern communities themselves. He writes frankly, fearlessly, and decisively as to the fact that the freedman is "not a free man" except within limits that, in the case of any but a race used to the tradition of bondage, would involve instant and bloody revolution. He scouts the idea that there is any danger in this situation, and makes his argument solely to the moral and civic sense of what Mr. Arnold would call "the remnant" (for such a body, and not an inconsiderable or uninfluential one, Mr. Cable affirms there is, though it is made ineffective by political bugbears). So far as politics is concerned, he says, "let it clear the track or get run over." The article, though it is really an open letter to the South, is especially instructive to Northerners in regard to the temper of the situation, and its author will receive the thanks of disinterested patriotic men of all parties, North and South. Another contribution that is more obviously of a philanthropic character, is Washington Gladden's discussion of the duty of citizens in affecting the public amusements in which the laboring and non-church-going classes spend their leisure. For the theory he expresses we do not particularly care, but the account of "the four-fold intellectual treat" which the Cleveland Educational Bureau provides especially for the poorer classes of that city, is of much interest as an experiment, and deserves the careful attention of social "workers," whether Christian or other. In the sketch of travel in the Kalispel country of Montana there is, too, by accident, a pathetic glimpse of the Italian Jesuit, Father Ravalli, as he lay dying in the midst of the Indians for whose civilization by the plough as well as the Gospel he had spent his long life. Articles of this sort are not secondary in use or credit to those of literary interest.

—The *Century's* military and naval articles this month cover the operations of the Western flotilla under Admiral Foote in the campaigns of Fort Henry, Fort Donelson, and Island No. 10. Admiral Walke does not find occasion to depart in any essential particular from the historical account presented in the Scribners' series, but adds details which give the reader a good idea of what life in the "gunboat" service really was. Mr. Eads states in his little article the facts relating to his own rapid work as naval contractor, by which a comparatively efficient fleet was constructed in a few weeks. The illustrations are mostly from sketches made by Admiral Walke, though the engraving of one of the gunboats after a photograph shows the immense superiority as a realistic means of information which this method has. The portraits are good, but, except the fine full-page one of Admiral Foote, are not equal in interest to those which have before been given.

—*Harper's* does not show the exhaustion usually consequent on a great effort such as was their last number, but the present issue is nevertheless one of those "all-round" ones which have nothing distinctive. John Fiske's history of the town-meeting is not fresh, but it could hardly be expected to do more than popularize a group of

facts not very likely in any case to take root in the people's knowledge; and Mr. Ward's admirable study of Wiclif is likewise almost too historic. The American article is one on the manufacture of shoes, and is a thorough account of that industry, beginning with pictures of the old shoemaker's bench, and ending with statistics of the modern trade. There is, however, an Englishy flavor in the number as a whole, very pronounced and not to be commended; a considerable portion of the contents look to the foreign market, as is naturally to be expected, perhaps, with an assistant English editor. At present all our three leading magazines occasionally issue a number that reads as if some sheets of the *Cornhill* or *Macmillan's* had got bound up by mistake with the home product. It is evident already that the two popular audiences to which our publishers appeal are by no means homogeneous.

—The illustrations of the *Century* for January present a novelty of the highest interest in reference to that kind of illustration which demands especially the exact reproduction of works in the round or relief—scientific work, etc.—in the process blocks for the Indian legends of John Vance Cheney, which in delicacy and subtlety of rendering of the modelling of the subject are unapproached by any process work we know of. In *Harper's* the facile and rather mannered drawings of Mr. Paget show that he has not yet hit the qualities of the American school of engraving: the results are weak and flat. The artist may take a lesson from the brilliant full-page engraving from Mr. Abbey's scene from "She Stoops to Conquer." The reproductions of Mr. Seymour Haden's mezzotints are most remarkable as process work, but make no case for Haden, either as artist or as engraver, beyond the possession of dexterous mediocrity. Is it not quite possible that the engraver-etcher has mistaken his position in the arts? Public taste in America is not led so far by mere reputation as in England, and it is clear that Seymour Haden has gone a long way back from the popularity he once enjoyed here. He seems to us, indeed, only a clever engraver spoiled by the want of early training and sound methods.

—It is not often that a more interested and enthusiastic audience assembles in an opera-house than that which on Monday evening listened to Auber's "Masaniello," an opera which has not been heard in New York for more than a decade. It is said that Auber's masterwork has never been a special favorite in New York. If this is true, the fault must lie entirely with the inadequate performances, as in the case of "Tannhäuser" and some other works which are this year produced for the first time in a worthy manner. No one can have witnessed the performance on Monday evening without being stirred by emotions of various kinds, and without feeling anxious to hear the opera again at the earliest possible opportunity. "Masaniello" was one of the first operas—if not the first—in which the chorus was made to take a part in the action, instead of standing around like blasé spectators and commentators of the action. This was an epoch-making innovation, for in the modern music-drama the chorus only appears on the stage to play a real part, leaving the function of the old Greek chorus—that of commentator—to the orchestra. This new, or at least, enlarged function of the orchestra was also anticipated by Auber, in those wonderfully eloquent orchestral measures which help to interpret the gestures of the mute *Fenella*. It is well known that the oddity of assigning the leading rôle in an opera to a dumb performer was not premeditated by Auber and Scribe, but the result of an accident, there being at the time no good dramatic singer at the Paris Opéra, so that a happy thought induced the authors to modify their plot in such a way as to utilize the powers of a contemporary ballet dancer, famous for her mimetic powers. To this accident the world owes one of the most interesting operatic experiments; and without it Auber would never have been able to reveal the depth of his genius, and show the world how an orchestra can be made to speak. If the mannerisms in the closing bars of many numbers in "Masaniello" show the influence of Rossini, Auber's genius in turn had not a little to do with Rossini's "Tell," which followed a year after "Masaniello" (in 1829), and Meyerbeer's "Robert," which came three years later (1831). The finest thing in Meyerbeer's operas is generally conceded to be the duo in the fourth act of the "Huguenots"; yet if any one will listen carefully to the orchestra during *Masaniello's* song at the opening of Act IV. he will discover where Meyerbeer got the motive of his duo bodily. In the attention paid in it to the action and scenic effects, "Masaniello" had a still greater influence on the development of grand opera in France and elsewhere. And it must be said that the manner in which these scenic effects are presented at the Metropolitan is unprecedented in our operatic history.

—Like all real works of genius, "Masaniello" has preserved the freshness of its youth, and is almost as enjoyable to a lover of good music today as it was half a century ago. Its influence on Meyerbeer and Rossini has been referred to; but it left its mark on a much greater master, Richard Wagner, whose enthusiam for "Masaniello" was unbounded. It may be said, indeed, that next to Weber's "Euryanthe" no opera had so great an influence in shaping Wagner's genius as this. Not that he cared to imitate the vivacious, champagne-like melody of Auber; but the direction of his aims was made clearer to him by Auber's treatment of the chorus, the orchestra, the action, and the scenery. "Masaniello" (or "La Muette de Portici") is in some of its details as Wagnerian as the "Flying Dutchman," and more so than "Rienzi." In one of his earliest essays, published in the first volume of his literary works, Wagner says: "French dramatic music culminated in Auber's 'La Muette de Portici'—a national work such as every nation can show only once at most. This tempestuous vigor, this ocean of sentiment and passion, painted in the most vivid colors, mixed with the most original melodies, a combination of grace and energy, elegance and heroism—is not all this the very embodiment of the recent history of the French nation?" That this was not the effusive enthusiasm of youth is shown by the fact that in the ninth volume of his works are contained his reminiscences of Auber, in which "Masaniello" is referred to in similar terms, and the promise is made of writing a special essay on this opera, which, however, death prevented him from fulfilling.

McCARTHY'S FOUR GEORGES.

A History of the Four Georges. By Justin McCarthy, M. P. In four volumes. Vol. I. Harpers. 1884.

MR. MCCARTHY'S first volume suggests several reflections on the art of writing history—an art which has come to be recognized as such almost within a generation. Macaulay, Buckle, Green, McMaster have all been inspired by one guiding idea: that the external form which history takes in the rise and fall of dynasties, kingdoms, empires, or republics, in the wars, treaties, and edicts of Princes and Presidents, in the legislation of Parliaments and Congresses, is but the formal record which the real living organism, the people or nation, leaves behind it as its annals; that the historian who would understand the past and make it intelligible to others must reconstruct the latter. Buckle, it is true, went much further, and thought that he had discovered the very laws which regulate the production of the organism; but if he was wrong in this, he was certainly right in believing this to be the proper aim of the historian who has once adopted the new view of history. Without this philosophical goal, the utmost the historian can do for us is to make the past alive again as we may see it at the theatre in an historical play, or in the pages of an historical novel. The new school of historical writing has accordingly produced a host of writers, able in their various ways, but often stopping short at picturesque or merely "interesting" writing. Carlyle studied chiefly picturesqueness and the biographical rehabilitation of his heroes; Mr. McCarthy, on the other hand, rather endeavors to be interesting. To say of a history that it is "as readable as a novel" is, in the present condition of the art of fiction, rather doubtful praise; but the idea that history might be made over into a series of novels is one that works like Mr. McCarthy's distinctly suggest. George the First is not very promising as a hero of romance, and Walpole hardly answers better; but many of the secondary characters of his reign, Bolingbroke, Oxford, Swift, are decidedly like men "out of a book." Then there is the King's advent from Hanover to his turbulent Jacobite kingdom, in which the old spirit of personal allegiance was just beginning to die out, his rival "over the water"; the plots and intrigues to restore the latter; the banishments and executions—all the incidents of a period of great intellectual and political excitement—a brilliant literary epoch as well. All this furnishes materials for a sketch of George I. and his times of which Mr. McCarthy has made good use. The titles of his chapters, "More, Alas, than the Queen's Life!" "The King Comes," "The White Cockade," "The Earth hath Bubbles," "After the Storm," etc., etc., suggest weekly fiction of the "to-be-continued-in-our-next" order rather than history; but it is only just to say that, as a whole, the volume gives a fair picture of the period.

Mr. McCarthy's great stumbling-block is the facility with which he writes, and the ease with which he falls into a pseudo-philosophic vein. There is absolutely no reflection of any great value to be found in the volume. It is more valuable as a collection of individual portraits than anything else; but even here it is very superficial. He devotes most attention to Walpole, and a great deal to Bolingbroke and Marlborough. But portraits of great historical characters, to be worth much, must be preceded by long and minute study, and this is the quality which Mr. McCarthy hardly gives evidence of having brought to his task. Of the profligacy and corruption of the period, we get, of course, a vivid idea, of the immense appetite for wine and women which distinguished its leading men, and of the unblushing way in which votes were bought and sold, and the most solemn oaths violated; but all this we have had often and often before, and Mr. McCarthy throws little new light on it. Contemporary European politics he occasionally brings in, but not in an instructive way. He is at points overwhelmed with his subject.

The accession of George I. marks the close of the period of divine right and personal sovereignty, and the rise of the modern Parliamentary system, which is gradually democratizing the English Constitution. Walpole was the first great minister in the modern sense of the word, as he governed the country by the aid not of the House of Lords, but of the House of Commons. It is at this point that the philosophy of history might perhaps throw more light on his career than the method of Mr. McCarthy. The history of Parliamentary corruption has been so tho

roughly written that the facts are beyond dispute. Whether Walpole said, "Each of *these* men has his price" or "Every man has his price" cannot make much difference, for we know that he regarded corruption as a necessary and legitimate weapon of government. Even in our own time, as Mr. McCarthy points out, though bribery of members of Parliament by a minister is looked upon as criminal, the wholesale bribery of constituencies for the purpose of procuring seats in Parliament has been regarded as a trifling matter; and to this day, no matter what the law may say on the subject, enlightened Christian men and women regard the person who bribes for a good object with a very different eye from that with which they regard the person bribed. We have no desire to whitewash Walpole, but we know that the greatest corruptionist of his day was not himself avaricious; he had a large fortune which he spent freely. When he died he left behind him what may fairly be called a new system of government, which, if not that in existence in England now, paved the way for it. His policy Mr. McCarthy says was "noble," yet his means were "the vilest." Surely, we need some more careful analysis of the matter than this. Surely, Walpole could not transfer the centre of authority from the House of Lords to the Commons by sheer force of corrupting the latter body. It would require too much space to consider the question of the true key to the politics of the period. But what we feel curious about is whether the causes of the general corruption of the times, social and political, would not throw more light on Walpole than Walpole does on them. Assuming that Walpole's unscrupulousness was a product as well as a cause, what is the explanation of the apparent connection between the corruption of the times and the transfer of power to the House of Commons? This is a question which Mr. McCarthy's superficial volume suggests, but does not answer.

Mr. McCarthy is at his best in his historical portraits and pictures of by-gone times and manners. He is open to the criticism of being an imitator of Macaulay—a dangerous model, because the peculiarities of the latter's style are so marked. He is at his worst when he endeavors to let a ray of romance into his story, as witness the following desperate effort, apropos of the story that George, in dying, promised the Duchess of Kendal to revisit her after death:

"When the Duchess of Kendal returned to her home near Twickenham, she was in constant expectation of a visit in some form from her lost adorer. One day, while the windows of her house were open, a large black raven, or bird of some kind—raven would seem to be the more becoming and appropriate form for such a visitor—flew into her presence from the outer air. The lamenting lady assumed at once that in this shape the soul of King George had come back to earth. She cherished and petted the bird, it is said, and lavished all fondness and tenderness upon it. What became of it in the end, history does not allow us to know. Whether it still is sitting, like the more famous raven of poetry, it is not for us to guess. Probably when the Duchess herself expired, in 1743, the ghastly, grim, and ancient raven disappeared with her. Why George the First, if he had the power of returning in any shape to see his mistress, did not come in his own proper form, it is not for us to explain. One might be disposed to imagine that in such a case it would be the first step which would involve the cost, and that there would be no greater difficulty for the departed soul to come back in the likeness of its old vestment of clay than to put on the unfamiliar and somewhat inconvenient form of a fowl. Perhaps the story is not true. Possibly there was no raven or other bird in the case at all. It may be that, if a black raven did fly in at the Duchess of Kendal's window, the bird was not the embodied spirit of King George. For ourselves, we should be sorry to lose the story," etc., etc.

If Mr. McCarthy will take our advice, he will greatly improve his remaining three volumes by devoting more time and labor to them than can have been devoted to this one. Thackeray's 'Four Georges' gave us a good while ago a picture of the Georgian epoch viewed through the moral spectacles of a later time; what we need now is sufficient amount of research and pains to make us understand how the race and its politics could have been in the condition they then were, and out of that corruption have produced later incorruption. The picturesque and interesting way of writing has been pushed to the point of filling our minds with brilliant pictures and images and extraordinary psychological puzzles. What we need now is a deeper philosophy, which will make use of the immense treasure-house of modern research not merely to make history readable—that desideratum is attained—but to make it, if possible, more intelligible.

ROBERT SCHUMANN.

Schumann. By J. A. Fuller Maitland. [Great Musicians Series.] Scribner & Welford. 1884. Pp. 150.

Robert Schumann and His School. An Essay, by Louis Ehlert. Translated by Mrs. H. D. Tretbar. C. F. Tretbar. Pp. 25.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Maitland does not profess to have written an exhaustive biography of Schumann, or brought forward any new facts of importance, his little sketch is one of the most satisfactory and entertaining of the useful series which Doctor Hueffer is editing. Some of the English critics, we observe, have censured Mr. Maitland for committing the indiscretion of devoting a chapter to the grotesque opinions on Schumann advanced thirty years ago in London journals. These criticisms were, it is declared, "perfectly honest, and they only prove that Schumann, like most composers of genius, was in advance of his age." This may be true, but Mr. Maitland's object in quoting such monstrous criticisms probably was to teach a lesson in humility and caution to contemporary critics and amateurs. Only a few weeks ago, when the music of "Parsifal" was performed in London, the editor of the *Standard* allowed his critic to remark that "it is Wagner at his worst, and a sheer denial of melody from the start to the end. . . . No more unvocal writer ever lived than Wagner, and 'Parsifal' is a thing whose principal value lies in the warning it conveys for other composers not to do likewise." As long as such things are allowed to escape the expurgatorial eye of the managing editor of a leading London newspaper, Mr. Maitland's proceeding cannot be too much commended. The sentence quoted from the *Standard*, however, has its use, for it is quite above the average joke in *Punch*, and its value as a joke will, like good wine, improve with age. As for Schumann, no one can preserve the gravity of his countenance on reading the critical extracts given by Mr. Maitland. One authority, speaking of the now famous quintet, op. 44, says that "in three of the four movements the ideas are worn and stale, not to say frivolous," and, "on the whole, unpleasing pretension hiding real poverty occurs to us as the general character of this quintet." Another critic writes, in 1853, that "an affectation, a superficial knowledge of art, an absence of true expression, and an infelicitous disdain of form have characterized every work of Robert Schumann hitherto introduced into this country." And once more, and still better, "Robert Schumann has had his innings, and has been bowled out, like Richard Wagner. 'Paradise and the Peri' has gone to the tomb of the 'Lohengrins.'"

Mr. Maitland attributes the bitterness of these attacks to the desire to sweep away all suspected rivals from before the feet of the adored Mendelssohn; and to Sterndale Bennett (who at first also failed to appreciate Schumann), to John Ella, and, above all, to Mr. Manns and Sir George Grove, he assigns the merit of having taught the English to understand and love Schumann. The quintet, for instance, "has outlived the howls of execration with which it was at first greeted by the sapient critics, and at the present time no more generally popular piece of concerted music can be found, unless it be the 'Kreutzer' Sonata of Beethoven." His symphonies, it seems, have not yet secured the same popularity in England as his chamber music, songs, and piano pieces, and Mr. Maitland attributes this, in part, to the constant doubling of the string parts by the winds, and of one-half of the wind band by the other, which produces an effect of thickness, and somewhat interferes with the clearness and brilliancy of the composition. Perhaps a weightier reason is the exuberant wealth of Schumann's ideas, the epigrammatic condensation of which makes them seem opaque to those who are accustomed to Mendelssohn's way of never offering a lump of precious metal, but only gold leaf spread out so thin as to become transparent. In New York, we are pleased to add, these symphonies are played as often (relatively to their number) and applauded as warmly as those of Beethoven.

Schumann's songs, on the other hand, are not so often heard in our concert halls as could be wished, the principal reason being that so few are able to sing them properly. This may seem to lend countenance to the complaint that his style often is "unvocal," but it does not. The late Herr Ehlert has some interesting remarks on this subject in his essay on Schumann placed at the head of this article:

"All technique has but one aim—can have but one aim—to further the reproduction of the works of creative genius. The object is not to write as conveniently as possible for the voice, but to express a poetic thought musically, restricted only in so far as this must be accomplished without violating all the considerations of singing. That art of singing which abides with the *bel canto* and is unable to sing Bach, Beethoven, and Schumann, has not attained to the height of their period. It becomes its task to adapt itself to these new circumstances, to renounce the comfortable solfeggios, and acquire the poetic expression that they exact. And that this is possible we all know. I will only recall Stockhausen. Pianoforte technique at one time suffered a similar fate. When Chopin, Schumann, and Liszt arose with their increased requirements, the Hummel school lifted up its voice. To-day one would be apt to smile at a pianist who should refer to the impossibility of playing Schumann. And just as he may be played, so may he also be sung."

From the Italian *bel canto* Schumann's songs differ in being free from inappropriate clap-trap ornaments, and in adding to a beautiful melody an expressive accompaniment of equal value, whereas Italian accompaniments are rarely worth listening to. A still greater difference lies in this, that Schumann's style allows the singer to pronounce the words distinctly, even if they do contain consonants that are not liquids. Those who understand by music nothing but a smooth succession of sweet sounds may be satisfied with the â, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ, ū, l, m, n, r, and their combinations, which constitute the Italian singer's stock in trade; but those who believe that music can and should give utterance to the various emotions which excite us, will prefer a vocal style that does not ignore the poetry, but allows the hearer to enjoy that as well as the music. This is the case in the modern *Lied* of Schumann, Franz, Liszt, and others, as well as in the music dramas of Wagner; and this is the only true vocal style: for the one great advantage vocal music has over instrumental is the power of uniting speech with song, and therefore poetry with music. The highest modern art has come back to the method of nature as shown in the song of the peasant, to whom the melody is of value only in so far as it emphasizes and intensifies the meaning of the

words. The intermediate stage of ornamental *bel canto*, as developed in Italian opera, is a morbid phenomenon in the history of music, owing its existence to the undeveloped taste and laziness of "fashionable" opera-goers. To a refined ear the meaningless trills and runs and staccati of Donizetti, Rossini, and Meyerbeer are distasteful and wearisome, even when executed with the flawless technic and brilliancy of Patti. This feeling of weariness is gradually extending, and when it becomes more general we shall more frequently hear Schumann and the German *Lied* in our concert-halls.

There were many odd things in Schumann's life and manner of working, but the oddest of all was his habit of devoting himself for a year or so almost exclusively to one style of composition. Thus, Mr. Maitland remarks that "nothing but songs were composed in the year of Schumann's marriage, and none of the greatest and most famous songs date from any other year." Schumann, as is well known, encountered the opposition of Clara Wieck's father, and had to wait four years before his wooing was rewarded with success and marriage, after a protracted lawsuit had compelled the "old man" to come to terms, whereas he had hoped for a more advantageous match for his gifted daughter. It is less generally known that Schumann had three or four transient love affairs before he met Clara, which is not surprising in one who in his songs has given expression to all the moods of love with a truthfulness and intensity not surpassed by his favorite poet Heine. Yet Schumann was not social in disposition. An amusing anecdote is told of an interview between him and Wagner, at which Wagner did all the talking and Schumann all the listening. A companion piece has just been made public in a work on Hebbel by L. A. Frankl. Hebbel relates that Schumann was, like Uhland, quite unable to express himself:

"I visited him in Leipzig. We were in the habit of exchanging letters, and among other things he asked my permission to let Reinik make use of my 'Genoveva' as an opera text. After a curt, almost dumb greeting, I sat by him a quarter of an hour. He did not speak, but only stared at me. I, too, remained silent, in order to test how long the thing would last. He didn't open his mouth. Then I jumped up in despair. Schumann, too, seized his hat and accompanied me to my hotel half an hour distant. He walked beside me dumb, and I, angrily, followed his example. Having arrived at the hotel, I took leave of him abruptly without asking him up to my room."

The Water Birds of North America. By S. F. Baird, T. M. Brewer, and R. Ridgway. Issued in continuation of the publications of the Geological Survey of California, J. D. Whitney, State Geologist. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1884. 2 vols., 4to. Vol. i, pp. ix, 537; vol. ii, pp. vi, 552. Numerous illustrations in the text.

In 1870 was published a quarto volume of nearly 600 pages on the 'Land Birds' of California, "edited by S. F. Baird, from the manuscript and notes of J. G. Cooper," forming vol. i of the intended zoölogical reports of the State Geological Survey of California. This volume gave an account of all the species of land birds inhabiting North America, north of Mexico and west of the Rocky Mountains. Besides being the first systematic treatise on the birds of the region with which it dealt, it was especially noteworthy for the number and excellence of its illustrations, which were inserted in the text, and nearly all prepared expressly for the work. Copies with the figures carefully colored from nature were placed at the disposition of the public, in which the coloring has rarely if ever been equalled in respect to truthfulness and delicacy of execution. The introduction to this volume stated that a second volume would be issued, containing the water birds of the whole continent north of Mexico. After an unavoidable delay of fourteen years the concluding portion of the work is now published, forming two volumes, however, instead of one—a consummation long and impatiently awaited by American ornithologists. By agreement between the State Geologist of California, Prof. J. D. Whitney, and Professor Baird, the illustrations of the 'Land Birds' of the California Survey were used later in the well-known work entitled 'A History of North American Birds: Land Birds,' by Messrs. Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway, published in 1874. Owing to cost of publication, both works were for a long time suspended. The 'Water Birds of North America,' now under notice, "issued in continuation of the publications of the Geological Survey of California," not only completes the work projected by the State Geologist of California, but is complementary to the 'Land Birds' of Baird, Brewer, and Ridgway's 'A History of North American Birds.' The volumes on the water birds owe their final appearance to the combined liberality of Mr. A. Agassiz and Professor Whitney, and therefore very properly form also volumes xii and xiii of the 'Memoirs' of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy. To the enterprise of the last-named gentleman, therefore, ornithologists are indebted for this great boon of an elaborate and thoroughly scientific general treatise on the long-neglected water birds of North America—aside from Doctor Coues's useful and well-known 'Key to North American Birds,' the only general treatise on even the technical aspect of the subject since 1858, and the first combining both the technical and biographical since the great work of Audubon, published forty years ago.

In execution, the 'Water Birds' is uniform as regards illustration with the 'Land Birds' of the California Survey, the figures being all inserted in the text; but as regards the text itself, it is not only uniform in plan and character with that of the 'Land Birds' of the 'History of North American Birds,' but is by the same authors. The technical portion of the work—the classification, diagnoses, analyses of groups, and the descriptive matter—although originally prepared some years since, is brought down to the date of the actual stereotyping of the plates, and being the work mainly of Mr. Ridgway, is, as might be expected, almost beyond criticism. Especially noteworthy are the detailed descriptions of the sexual and immature phases of plumage, the attention given to individual variations from the normal phase of the species, and the contrasting diagnoses among closely allied forms. In respect to nomenclature, the departures from the latest standard 'Check Lists' are grievously numerous, but in nearly all cases are such as the recent rapid progress of the science has rendered inevitable, the actual innovations being comparatively few, and of late foreseen as impending. For the designation of sub-species the trinominal system of nomenclature is systematically adopted, as is also the tenth edition of the 'Systema Naturæ' of Linnæus as the starting point of the binominal nomenclature—in conformity with the weight of authority in these matters among American ornithologists.

The biographical portion of the work is, unfortunately, less satisfactory, four years having passed since the lamented death of its author—years of unprecedented progress in our knowledge of the habits and distribution of our birds—and his manuscript having been printed in the more or less incomplete state in which he left it. While it evinces extended and careful research, the presentation of the gleanings from a wide field of literature is not always lucid and methodical, and would doubtless have been more careful had the author lived to give his work further revision and to have carried it through the press. Under the circumstances, however, no other method seemed open than to print the biographical portion of the work as left, and while it is to be regretted that it is to some extent already antiquated, it forms an invaluable addition to the literature of the subject, containing as it does a large amount of hitherto unpublished information, and a great deal more that was before practically inaccessible, even to specialists. As a whole, the work will therefore mark an era in the literature of American ornithology; to the specialist it will form for many years a *vade-mecum* of the subject, and to the general reader and the amateur a boon the value of which cannot be easily overestimated.

The illustrations, as already intimated, are nearly all drawn from nature, expressly for the work. Nearly every genus is illustrated by a full-length figure of one of its species, and each species by a figure of the head (life-size when the species is not too large to admit of it), and sometimes by two, for the purpose of showing the winter and summer phases of plumage. Frequently other figures are given to show details of structure, particularly of the bill and feet. The figures, drawn on wood by Mr. Edwin L. Sheppard, of Philadelphia, and engraved by Mr. H. H. Nichols, of Washington, are admirably executed, especially the head-pieces. These have also (in a portion of the copies) been very successfully colored, under the supervision of Mrs. F. H. Russell, of Brookline, Mass., after patterns prepared by Mr. Ridgway. In respect to typographical execution, it is sufficient to say that the work is from the Cambridge University Press.

In conclusion it may be said that the want of no work on North American birds has been for many years so sorely felt, or has been awaited with more impatience, than the present long-promised treatise on the Water Birds; nor has any appeared which reflects greater credit on its authors and promoters.

The Story of My Life. By J. Marion Sims, M.D., LL.D. D. Appleton & Co.

Marion Sims, by himself and through others, has restored to society and to happiness an ever-increasing multitude of sufferers, condemned, before he opened the way of escape, to life-long wretchedness. For himself, he achieved such renown that his name is a household word in medical circles the world over. To draw out of herself one of his sick friends he permitted such catechism and cross-examination as has given this rehearsal of personal incident from infancy to the age of fifty years. With characteristic simplicity and generosity he poured himself out into this unique "story" for her amusement and the instruction of the world. Of his life he says: "Mine has been a real romance, full of incident, anxiety, hope, and care; some disappointments, and many successes, with much sickness and sorrow; but it has also been full of joy, contentment, and real happiness." That is very true, and all may read the romance. It requires a very clear conscience and perfect guilelessness to expose one's self as he has done; but having done it the reader sees an earnest man, of complete purity, discharging his daily duty with singleness of purpose, and reaching fame by conscientious and intelligent exercise of brain and hand.

But the story is more than an autobiography: it not merely illustrates the evolution of a South Carolina country lad into one of the most useful and conspicuous of modern benefactors; it is local history interpreting rural life in that section fifty years ago. The brutal schoolmasters, with daily flogging of little boys and great; the child's bugbears of "mad dogs and runaway niggers";

the duel as an institution; the Creek war as a frolic; the restless, migratory life of all not fastened by pecuniary bonds; the medical practice that had not yet mastered the common diseases of the region—these, and many other features of the interior cotton belt of that time, stand out with distinctness under the side lights that he casts in passing. Sims's career was full of fate or Providence. He was driven into medicine without fondness for it, because he had been the unwilling recipient of a collegiate education. After five years' successful practice he was on the point of abandoning it to be a dealer in ready-made clothing. For ten years he systematically avoided the special class of cases that ultimately gave him fame, and by whose study he has eliminated the crowning misery from women's lives. These were forced upon him against his protest. He fell by accident upon the key to one of his great discoveries, but then, for four years baffled in the details, he followed up with undying and intelligent patience the indications thus presented. His first professional writing was done under moral compulsion. He was driven to New York by ill-health, by a malady that more than once seemed about to kill him prematurely. The lines of his life were laid out for him by destiny. But he did with all his might what his hand found to do.

The story-teller's style is that of one unbosoming to an appreciative friend without concealment and with little adornment. The frankness with which he exposes his personal feelings and his remarks upon men and affairs, while entertaining to strangers, may not be acceptable to all concerned; and his very serious trials while seeking to gain a foothold in New York, which he rehearses with particularity, do not give a pleasant impression of metropolitan, not to say professional, altruism. A man of the purest life, and a welcome guest in the most refined circles, Dr. Sims has so written his fascinating story that it cannot be read in mixed company. However science may correct them, all details of real life are not achromatic, and the minutiæ, as here, are sometimes colored, with natural tints it is true, so as to raise a reflected blush. It is a pity that a volume as full as this of important lessons attractively recited may not be read everywhere and at any time. The story proper is supplemented by letters of the most genuinely domestic type, and that of October 18, 1861, for example, is a charming exhibition of constant love. Sudden death caught away the story-teller with the tale of his last twenty years untold.

A Naturalist's Rambles about Home. By Charles C. Abbott. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 485. 1884.

Doctor Abbott is a very enthusiastic naturalist. Evidence of this appears on every page of his work. In the main his material has been gathered, during a number of years, on and about his farm in New Jersey. Here, within an area that has been longer under the eyes of naturalists and more closely looked over than almost any other portion of the continent, he has got together a great deal of matter that adds to our knowledge of natural history, not alone in facts concerning the known species, but even concerning new ones. His style is that of the story-teller—that which gives science its most attractive form for the general reader. The word "Rambles" in the title suggests a prominent feature in the structure of the volume. Complete or closely connected histories of the tenants of the farm are not attempted. Records of what the author saw at various times have been brought together in chapters devoted to particular mammals, birds, reptiles, or fishes, merely as stories or notes.

A critic who examines these chapters carefully will find much to commend and comparatively little to criticise. Occasionally the author is misled by his fondness for generalizations, for which, naturally enough, the facts collected in such a manner and on such an area are often insufficient. For instance, he gives in his story of the skunk a very imperfect idea of this most faithful of insect destroyers. There is no mention of the main feature in its diet. "Skunks are very partial to snakes as an article of food. In fact, these, with frogs and birds' eggs, seem to be their main support. Were they under all circumstances odorless and quite harmless, their eager search for these latter articles is sufficient to condemn them. . . . Better, surely, a nest of thrushes or song-sparrows then a litter of skunks. An animal that destroys birds' nests is always a nuisance, though I do not object to any other, however wicked." "More than once I have seen skunks rooting in newly-ploughed ground, and at the time it occurred to me that they were probably searching for turtles' or snakes' eggs." A post-mortem dissection would have left no doubt as to the articles of food. Recently the fact of a liking for insect food has been peculiarly confirmed. A leading bee-keeper was annoyed morning after morning by finding the lighting boards of certain hives smeared with mud. Keeping watch one evening, the skunk was seen in front of a hive, his forepaws on the board, tapping and scratching, and, as the bees came out, knocking them off to the ground and pawing them about till fit to be eaten. When too many came out, the marauder moved to another box. The fondness of skunks for grasshoppers is well known.

Some space is taken up by discussion of "prophetic power," ability to foretell seasons of plenty, etc., by birds. The author ignores the fact that selection or desertion of a locality depends greatly on the abundance of the preceding year, or upon the amount of food remaining available through the winter. That "batrachians as a class, although higher in the scale of life than fishes, are inferior to them in intelligence," does not accord with the conclusions of others, and needs more evidence. Unsubstantiated, too, is the statement that the tails of salamanders are of no use to them. The experiments by which possession of "a sense of direction" by fishes is said to be established are insufficient. That a fish carried a thousand feet up or down stream from its nest was able to return, is better accounted for by possession of memory and recognition of localities seen one or more times. The phenomena which led to the conclusion that fishes "are so intimately associated as to act promptly as one body," also result from experience and memory.

A few of the stories might have been omitted, such as that of the skunk which in two hours descended two and tunnelled forty feet under ground; or of the black snake which strangled a skunk; or of another black snake which sprang upon a rattlesnake, "twisted itself tightly around its neck and then its body, and glided off, and there lay the rattlesnake, dead"; or that of the fish, twelve inches long, which in four minutes ate twelve others of three inches each. "If I err in my estimate, it is on the safe side, as it may have been fifteen that were devoured in that length of time. Subsequently I captured a dozen of these exquisite minnows, and found that I could not squeeze them into a mass of the size of a rockfish a foot in length; and yet the fish did not appear to be distended," etc. What grounds there are for crediting the black snake with such power of constriction do not appear in its shape or muscles. There are valuable observations on the food of fishes. Some of these are not in line exactly with those of Forbes, but in both cases it is well to remember that observations made at a particular place and time are insufficient to enable one to say positively what a fish will not eat at some other place or time.

This book is one of the best popular works on the natural history of the United States, and is to be welcomed by all lovers of nature. Boys especially will find the Doctor to be a very instructive and entertaining companion in his rambles. Accurate identifications and a list of the species give the volume a considerable scientific value.

Census Reports. Vol. viii. Government Printing Office. 1884.

The report on Alaska, by Ivan Petroff, covers 177 pages, and is chiefly remarkable for the paucity of statistics of recent date, except in regard to population, and for the fact that the reporter, who went on a sort of voyage of discovery, made no attempt, so far as appears from the report, to visit and investigate the most populous and accessible portion of the Territory, including the vicinity of Sitka, Juneau, Wrangell, and the Alexander Archipelago in general. It is also to be noted that, as with most frontier regions, development progresses rapidly, and in the four years which have passed since the material for the report was gathered, very important changes have taken place in southeastern Alaska. Not the least of these is the initiation of a Government.

Mr. Petroff is of Russo-Alaskan extraction, and his knowledge of the language has been turned to good account in numerous compilations from Russian sources which appear in various parts of this description of the Territory, and form in reality its most valuable contribution to our knowledge. His natural bias toward material derived from the Russians has in some cases led him (as in regard to the Tebienkoff atlas) to overrate both its value and its accuracy, and to neglect later work of a better sort. The valuable unpublished observations of Nelson have been freely drawn upon for information. For those parts of northwestern Alaska which were visited by Mr. Petroff, his description seems accurate and his conclusions just. Where he leans upon Zagoskin, however, he partakes of the errors of that lazy and mendacious traveller, whose custom, according to his Russian companions, was to catechize the natives, and from his notes to construct a journal and map of a journey which he never made. These errors, which are chiefly ethnological and geographical, do not materially affect the value of Mr. Petroff's report on the Yukon region, the general conclusions on which—that it is chiefly valuable for its furs and fisheries of salmon—are little likely to be modified hereafter.

The population of Alaska is estimated at about 33,500, of which about half have been actually enumerated—a result in harmony with the independent estimates of Veniaminoff in 1839, Kostlivtsoff in 1863, and Dall in 1870, but based on better data. Nearly two-thirds are referred to the Eskimo stock, and one-third to the Athabaskan and Tlinket Indian races. Of these about five thousand might be considered civilized as distinguished from the independent and unmodified barbarians. A useful summary of various, chiefly Russian, censuses of Alaska has been compiled from several sources.

The report on the resources of the Territory is on the whole very just, with a decided leaning to caution in claiming what is but imperfectly known. The history of the fur trade, though not monographic, is very full as regards the Russian trade, and the compilation of statistics made in it will be of permanent value. The statistics of the annual product since the purchase are confessedly inadequate, on account of the disinclination of dealers to admit outsiders to a knowledge

of the details of their business. It is known that the product of continental furs is much greater than before the purchase; the figures given probably represent only a small part of the real trade either in number of skins or their valuation. For the sea-otter and fur-seal alone are reliable statistics available. The maps showing distribution of fur animals are at most but tolerable approximations: the fact that a skin is bought in a district is by no means evidence that the species lives there, owing to the wide inter-tribal traffic in skins. The map on the distribution of timber, tundra, and glaciers is perhaps the most hazardous of any. Much of the detail upon it there is no evidence on record to sustain, and it is at best founded in great part on guesswork.

The contributions to geography in the report are chiefly those of Nelson, which have appeared elsewhere. On the other hand, several errors have been reintroduced from imperfect Russian maps, and the course of the Yukon changed to conform to certain alleged observations by traders, which have already been shown by Schwatka to be erroneous. The map has been superseded by better ones, as is the fate of maps in a country under exploration. Geographical names are misspelled throughout the report in a very irregular and puzzling way, Mr. Petroff evidently not fully realizing the values of the English alphabet. An historical account of Alaska is a very useful compilation from Russian sources and from the Russian point of view. The portion of it since 1867 hardly rises above good-natured gossip, and is sometimes inaccurate, but the preceding matter will be very welcome to those interested in the Territory.

The ethnological portion of the report is the weakest, owing to the fact that the author has undertaken a task for which he was not suitably prepared either by experience or education. It teems with interesting facts, but interspersed with assumptions and conclusions which require revision. Much has been quoted from other works, and for those people actually seen by Mr. Petroff his accuracy need not be questioned; but his classification includes several errors of a fundamental nature, and, in general, the work is deficient in scientific precision either of statement or orthography. The maps of the report are well executed, but there are a few chromos which had better have been omitted.

The report on the fur-seal fisheries by Mr. H. W. Elliott has already been noticed in these columns. It is without doubt the best general account of the Alaskan fur seal and his haunts, and is copiously illustrated by the author. As treating of the chief source of Alaska's wealth, it not unnaturally covers a space about equal to the preceding report of Petroff, but a good deal of this is devoted to more or less irrelevant topics.

A Dictionary of Urdû, Classical Hindî, and English. By John T. Platts, M.A., Persian Teacher at the University of Oxford; late Inspector of Schools, Central Provinces, India. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1884. (Pp. 6 and 1,259, royal 8vo.)

Among the various living languages of India, the Urdû, or Hindûstânî, from its greater or less currency in every part of the country, is invested with an importance which can hardly be overrated. In strict truth, it is, as it is often called, the *lingua franca* of the land. To Muhammadans, a few of the most illiterate in Lower Bengal well-nigh alone excepted, it is, in its pure form, or with dialectal modifications, the mother-tongue; and large numbers of Hindus, in nearly all quarters of India, are at the pains to acquire a conversancy with it almost equal to that which they possess with their vernaculars. This being the case, it is not surprising that steps were promptly taken by Englishmen, their foothold in the country once assured, to provide facilities, lexicographical, grammatical, and in the way of text-books, contributory towards an intelligent acquaintance with it.

The earliest guide to the language, at all noticeable for its fulness or scholarly execution, was an elaborate work by Dr. John Gilchrist, in four quarto volumes, of which the first was issued from the press in 1787, and the last in 1798. Along with other matter, it embraces a dictionary and a grammar. Though all but a pioneer in his special department of research, Gilchrist left very little to be added regarding the Urdû as developed down to his day; and what he accomplished still deserves, as an exemplification of enthusiastic and thorough craftsmanship, to be spoken of in terms of unqualified respect.

Until very recently, the most creditable of Dr. Gilchrist's successors in the province of Urdû lexicography were Captain Joseph Taylor and Dr. W. Hunter, whose dictionary bears the date of 1808. Like Gilchrist's, it was published at Calcutta. Next, and avowedly based on it, followed, in 1817, the excellent compilation of Mr. John Shakespear. Of the three revised and enlarged editions of it which its author was encouraged to produce, each was a great advance on its predecessor, as was to be expected from Shakespear's indefatigable industry of research and solidity of judgment. The latest of them appeared in 1847. The dictionary of Dr. Duncan Forbes, which came out a year after, is mentionable mainly for its reversed vocabulary, English-Hindûstânî, which is considerably ampler than Shakespear's. Its cheapness was, however, its chief recommendation to students. Together with these Urdû dictionaries of the old school may be named, but not because entitled to approval, a recent dictionary by the late Mr. F. Fallon. If its objectionable features were eliminated, there would, indeed, be ground to speak well of it, at least for its copiousness as concerns Urdû of the past and that of the present time alike. A strange phenomenon is its author's perpetual predilection for fatuity, and likewise for what is even more repulsive than fatuity, foulness. Besides this, he was in no sense or degree a philologist; and his book is very high-priced. But its antiquation is already imminent. In competition with what has since been effected by Mr. Platts, it has no chance; and, if we dismiss it without further comment, we do so with no fear of being chargeable with injustice.

The labors of Mr. Platts have created a veritable epoch in Urdû philology. His 'Grammar of the Hindûstânî or Urdû Language,' which has now been ten years before the public, at once and for ever superseded its forerunners, not one of them excepted. Nor is there any hazard in venturing the forecast that, in like manner, his 'Dictionary' will speedily obsolete all those which preceded it. Not only did he work long at it in India, with free command of learned natives as assistants, but he is the only general lexicographer of Urdû that has made a study of the language in the multifarious host of books exhibiting the many changes in it, and the prodigious expansion of its vocabulary, to which the last forty or fifty years have given birth. His, too, is the merit of having first treated it, as an etymologist, in a manner aiming to satisfy others than the superficial and the incurious. That he should leave liberal gleanings for those who follow him was, of course, inevitable.

The nature of a large mass of his imperfections which require to be redressed may be gathered from the two instances subjoined. *Angusht-numâ*, 'notorious,' he duly records; but he omits *angusht-numâî*, 'notoriety.' Again, while he gives *dhanvânatâ*, an exceptional derivative, we consult his pages in vain for the classical *dhanvattâ*, its equivalent in signification. An author lies before us who, having used the former in the first edition of one of his works, substitutes for it, in his second edition, the latter. Slight defects like the two just specified, and others of a miscellaneous character, might be adduced in a profusion that would make up a list suggestive of serious shortcomings, if account were not taken of the enormous body of particulars, wholly proof to unfavorable criticism, which the new dictionary comprehends. In concluding our notice of a literary achievement which challenges emphatic commendation, we would express the hope that the Hindî, in view of its daily increasing importance, its opulence of verbal expression, and its independence, to a great extent, of the Urdû, may soon find a lexicographer equipped to do much more for it, and that by itself, than has been done by Mr. Platts, who, like Shakespear and the rest, has treated the two languages as if they were, which they are very far from being, integrant constituents of one whole.

Das deutsche Volksthum und seine Nationale Zukunft. Von Karl Theodor Reinhold. Minden: J. C. C. Bruns. 1884.

In the book above named a German who for a wonder is a judge and not a professor, has attempted to analyze the character of his own countrymen. The purpose of the work is avowedly patriotic. It aims to show the German people the error of their psychological ways, and to point out what they must do in order to become a great nation. Herr Reinhold cannot be credited with possessing a judicial mind. He is too evidently a man with a hobby, or rather with several hobbies, and astride of one or the other of these he is perpetually running a tilt against alleged vices of the German character, which turn out upon examination to be nothing but vices of poor weak human nature. As to the hobbies: Reinhold is in the first place a member of the "party Bismarck *sans phrase*"; secondly, he is an uncompromising admirer of England; and finally, he is an almost rabid hater of metaphysic in all its forms. Thus he becomes a very censorious critic of his countrymen. We do not remember to have seen a more scathing account of the German character. Had the book been written by a foreigner, Germans would laugh at it as the product of prejudice and hypochondria. As it is, the patriotism of the author being after all so undeniable, they have been compelled to take him seriously.

The long preface sufficiently sets forth Reinhold's political attitude. The first thing needful for Germans, he contends, is a strong imperial government, and the second is increased loyalty to that government. Everything is to be approved which will in any way strengthen the hands of the central power, and the greatest of political sins is in any way to oppose or embarrass Prince Bismarck in his battle for solidarity and strength. It is with a view of "showing up" the opposition to the Chancellor as springing from deep-seated vices of the national character, that our author undertakes his analysis. He first proceeds to show that the Germans are still, what they have been historically, low-spirited and devoid of national pride. Everywhere they try to forget as soon as possible that they are Germans, and learn to speak sneeringly of the fatherland. In North and South America they take pride in becoming denationalized. In Austria-Hungary they meekly accept the domination of Magyars, in Poland that of Slavs. When a Frenchman thinks himself maltreated, say by a policeman, he says: "Est-ce qu'on me prend pour un Allemand?"

This deficient sense of national pride shows itself in the Reichstag, according to our author, in

a multiplicity of parties and separate party interests, and in puerile opposition to the Government, because it *is* the Government. And when it comes to political discussion, either in Parliament or out of it, then a whole catalogue of vices show themselves to prevent the transaction of business or the reaching of sane and definite conclusions. Foremost among these vices is the tendency to abstraction and metaphysic. This means in politics an emotional interest in that which might be, instead of a practical interest in that which is. In spite of the mighty changes brought about in recent times by Bismarck and the railroads and modern industrialism, the Germans are still, so our author contends, too much given to idealism and dreams. Professors and doctrinaires have inoculated the people with the disease of philosophic deduction, and this disease can best be got rid of by going for instruction to England, "the greatest nation in history." The almost universal dislike of England in Germany is absurd and wrong. For Germans have to learn that politics deals with policy and not with eternal justice, and accordingly the two masters from whom they have most to learn are Burke and—Machiavelli. "The uplifting of the soul," says Reinhold, "to purely spiritual issues, is something noble, and, in its proper sphere, is the grandest part of our nature. But for the hard battle of life upon earth, and above all in the remorseless struggle for national existence, this transcendental trait of the German character is the most ruinous dowry which fate could have given us."

The other vices to which he gives most attention are pedantry and "formalism," which last is said to show itself in an undue emphasis of form at the expense of substance, and in a tendency to judge hastily from false analogies. But it is the tendency to abstraction which forms Reinhold's chief solicitude. Again and again he returns to the subject, and finally proposes, as preliminary to his own discussion of certain political questions, the motto: Down with Ratiocination and up with Experience. Of the chapters which follow, the most interesting are those upon Church and State, "Deutscher Parlamentarismus," "Militarismus," the Imperial Revenue Policy, and Socialism. With regard to this last, the author tries to show that its importance as an enemy of the Empire is overestimated, and is in reality very slight. As the enemy of professors and theorists, Reinhold is, of course, a protectionist; but here the customary recourse to English wisdom fails him, and he is compelled to point to the examples of France and the United States as affording a complete practical refutation of visionary free-trade doctrines. An American reader finds here a painfully familiar acquaintance in the syllogism: Is not the American Union great and prosperous? Has not the American Union a high protective tariff? Ergo, etc. As to the burden imposed upon Germany in the maintenance of its army, Reinhold is clear and positive. The German people must learn to bear far more than they now bear. An invincible army is the only condition of national existence, and the nation must be willing to give everything for its life. Hence they must take as their watchword *Rücksichtslosigkeit*—remorselessness toward themselves and toward others. All talk of arbitration as a means of settling national disputes should be left with the professors. The cry for reduction of burdens is the foolish cry of children who do not know what is good for them. Our author does not hide his contempt for those who look forward to the disarming of Europe as the great problem of future statesmanship. The German programme must be: Better artillery, larger armies, and conscience avaunt!

We have thought it better, for the purposes of this review, to state Reinhold's views than to criticise them, else our task had been a long one indeed. The German people are not so unlovely, so unpatriotic, or so stupid as he thinks them; but one shudders to imagine what they would be like if the above-described programme were to be carried out.

French Orthoëpy.—The Modern French Method. By J. D. Gaillard, Officier d'Académie. D. Appleton & Co.

THE author claims to have discovered a new means of overcoming the difficulties of French pronunciation. He starts from the principle that pronunciation is simply a "mechanical action, performed by certain organs which are normally possessed by all alike," and concludes therefrom that any one may acquire a correct pronunciation if he is taught to place his organs of speech "in the same relative position as natives do in speaking their own language." This, if we mistake not, is the principle upon which the deaf and dumb are taught to speak. Nor is the philosophical view taken of the importance of studying the action of the vocal organs on sound so very new; what reader of Molière can forget the amusing scene in "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," when the Master of Philosophy expounds the principles of pronunciation to the admiring Monsieur Jourdain, who exclaims, "Ah! la belle chose que de savoir quelque chose!" Yet, Mr. Gaillard's adaptation of those principles to the study of French by foreigners is not without merit. He divides the French sounds into the "Buccal, Laryngeal, and Pharyngeal," and illustrates the mechanical action required to produce them by anatomical designs and a musical gamut, the latter adapted specially to the laryngeal and pharyngeal sounds, and running from C sharp to A sharp. No comparison is instituted between the English and French sounds; the learner must study the mechanical action until he can produce original French sounds.

Mr. Gaillard's 'Modern French Method' is based on the same philosophical idea. It is a mental drill, compelling the student to think, and helping him by means of suggestive words to express his thoughts. It holds the golden mean between the old system of learning disconnected sentences with their English meaning, and the new system, which discards English and relies on an expressive pantomime to help the understanding. The conversations between teacher and pupil are upon a connected subject, which is followed up through the book, forming a continuous story replete with adventure and very interesting. The idea is ingenious, and the student who has been true to the course of pronunciation and has besides learned the rudiments of grammar and acquired some knowledge of the verbs, may take up this method with reasonable hopes of becoming a thorough French scholar. Mr. Gaillard does not encourage the fallacious notion, entertained by some educators, that knowledge can be gained without hard study.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha. 1885. B. Westermann & Co.
Bastian, A. Religions-Philosophische Probleme auf dem Forschungsfelde Buddhistischer Psychologie und der vergleichenden Mythologie. Berlin: A. Asher & Co.
Bayne, G, M. Galaski. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Blackburn, H. English Art in 1884. D. Appleton & Co.
Cooke, Mrs. Rose Terry. The Deacon's Week. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Curtis, G. H. A Prima Donna, and Scenes from Real Life. Thomas Kelley. $2.
Ebers, G. Serapis: Historischer Roman. B. Westermann & Co.
Farrar, Dr. F. W. The Messages of the Books; being Discourses and Notes on the Books of the New Testament. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Gardner, Mary Russell. English History in Rhyme. New Haven: The Stafford Printing Co.
Giesy, Dr. S. H. The I Ams of Christ; a Contribution to Christological Thought. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Hale, E. E. Christmas in Narragansett. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Hawthorne, Julian. Prince Saroni's Wife and the Pearl-Shell Necklace. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Heilprin, L. Historical Reference Book. D. Appleton & Co.
Hundred Greatest Men. D. Appleton & Co.
Hunt, Mrs. Mary H. A Temperance Physiology for Intermediate Classes and Common Schools. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Ker, D. The Lost City; or, The Boy Explorers of Central Asia. Harper & Brothers.
Kingsley, Rev. C. The Water Babies. A Fairy Tale for a Land Baby. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Kingsley, Rev. C. Poems. In two volumes. Macmillan & Co, $3.50.
Lambert, Rev. L. A. Notes on Ingersoll. Buffalo: Catholic Publication Society. 25 cents.
Little Arthur's History of France, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of the Second Empire. Illustrated. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Marshall, Emma. In the East Country with Sir Thomas Browne, Kt. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Marshall, Emma. Mrs. Willoughby's Octave. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

Lady Brassey's Sumptuous New Book.

In the Trades, the Tropics, and the Roaring Forties.

Beautifully illustrated with nearly 300 Woodcuts from Drawings made by artists engaged especially for the last voyage of the "Sunbeam," and containing ten maps and charts. Price, $5.

HENRY HOLT & CO.,
Publishers.

TWO CHOICE NOVELS.

Farneli's Folly.

By J. T. Trowbridge, author of 'Cudjo's Cave,' 'The Three Scouts,' 'Neighbor Jackwood,' 'Neighbor's Wives,' 'The Drummer Boy,' 'Martin Merivale,' and 'Coupon Bonds' (of which new editions are ready). Price $1.50.

"This story, by the always popular Trowbridge, is very bright and entertaining. It is written in his quaint and humorous style, and is one of the best, if not the best of any of his novels."—*Worcester Spy.*

Out of the Wreck;

or, Was It a Victory? By Amanda M. Douglas. Price $1.50. Uniform with 'Floyd Grandon's Honor,' 'The Old Woman that Lived in a Shoe,' 'Whom Kathie Married,' 'Lost in a Great City,' 'Hope Mills,' 'Home Nook,' 'In Trust,' 'Nelly Kinnard's Kingdom,' 'From Hand to Mouth,' 'Stephen Dane,' 'Claudia,' 'Sydnie Adriance,' 'Seven Daughters.'

"'Out of the Wreck' will increase the reputation of the author, and is sure to give much pleasure to the wide circle for which she writes."—*The Beacon, Boston.*

*** Sold by all booksellers, or mailed on receipt of price by the publishers.

LEE & SHEPARD, Boston.

Tales of the Pathfinders

The Boston *Advertiser* says of Arthur Gilman's 'Tales of the Pathfinders': "If there is any book fitted to give people a taste for historical reading, it is the little volume of sketches in which Mr. Gilman so delightfully pictures some of the salient facts illustrative of the history of this country from its first settlement to the time of the War of the Revolution." It adds that the book "is entertaining from beginning to end."

For sale by all Booksellers. Price $1.

D. LOTHROP & CO., Boston.

REAL ESTATE RECORD:
Full set for sale by A. S. CLARK,
34 Park Row, New York City.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 8, 1885.

The Week.

THE question whether Secretary Frelinghuysen has taken any steps to abrogate, in a friendly and becoming way, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty with Great Britain, as a preliminary to the negotiation of the Nicaragua treaty, is yet without any official answer at Washington. We have looked accordingly to foreign sources for information, but without any satisfactory result. The latest advices by mail reveal nothing except a mild state of surprise that so important a proceeding as an inter-oceanic canal should be undertaken by one government without any attempt to prepare the way for it, by consultation with another government which we had agreed to consult on that subject if we should ever seriously contemplate such a work. The *Economist*, for instance, takes occasion to say that the respect for treaties among the people of the United States is considerable, and that they are not likely to cancel violently any obligation which they have once voluntarily assumed. In other words, it is believed that public opinion in this country is more regardful of international agreements than its official organ, the Department of State. But if the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is to be ignored, and arrangements entered into in direct contravention of it, then Great Britain will have to take such measures as may be necessary to protect her commercial interests. She cannot allow differential tolls to be established on a new highway between the Atlantic and the Pacific to the prejudice of her shipping and her trade. She cannot be placed at the mercy of a rival in this regard. She will be compelled to lend her aid to the enterprise of M. De Lesseps at Panama in order to secure the rights which the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was intended to secure. The Panama Canal will be put in jeopardy financially by the Nicaraguan Canal. The former, being a private enterprise merely, cannot withstand the competition of a rival backed by the unlimited fiscal resources of the United States. It is quite certainly doomed to failure if the Nicaraguan treaty goes in force. The money to complete it cannot be obtained by individual subscription. But England will be compelled to furnish the funds if another canal is to be opened, in which her right of transit on equal terms is not guaranteed beyond peradventure.

This is the mild but decided opinion of the principal organ of British commercial interests. Can we gainsay it or offer any opposition to it? If we violate the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, we certainly release Great Britain from any obligations to observe it. If we put her commerce in jeopardy by opening an inter-oceanic canal in which she has no share, we cannot forbid her the same privilege. The Monroe doctrine does not stand in her way. The Monroe doctrine is political merely. It affirms that the American Continent cannot be made the subject of further European domination; that the free institutions which exist here are not to be interfered with by European conquests or colonization. It interposes no objection to railways, canals, public loans, or other peaceful and non-political movements. In fact, there is nothing to prevent England from furnishing M. De Lesseps all the money needed to put the Panama Canal through in the shortest possible time, and obtaining from him such rights as he chooses to give her in return for indispensable aid.

It not surprising to find the officially inspired *Neue Preussische Zeitung* declaring that

"The day is now near at hand when the Panama and Nicaragua questions, which are essentially of international interest, should be regulated by an international conference like that now regulating the Congo. In all that concerns Panama and Nicaragua, Germany has quite as important interests at stake as England or France."

Our performances at the Berlin Conference of course turn the European mind in this direction. The *Mémorial Diplomatique* of December 20 complains bitterly—and says it is in this expressing the feelings of most of the European delegates—of the delays caused by the persistent efforts of the American delegates to obtain the neutralization of the Basin of the Congo and of the railroad from Vivi to Stanley Pool, the very thing England contends for or is likely to contend for with regard to the Isthmus of Panama and the canals. Says the correspondent of the *Mémorial Diplomatique:*

"I have never concealed from you the surprise caused by the invitation addressed to the United States to assist at the Conference.

"Have these adepts of the Monroe doctrine really come to participate in deliberations concerning questions in no way American? Having been admitted to do so, is it proper for them to try to play a preponderating part, to raise incident on incident, question on question, and to impose on themselves and on their colleagues a prolonged sojourn at Berlin? They and they only have forced the Conference to adjourn till January. Beaten and repulsed in the sub-committee and the Committee, they always come back to the charge, promising to modify or attenuate their motions, but paying no attention to the objections made to them. The Conference, as the protocols show, has manifested a real desire for concord and harmony; it is only the American motions which have caused a sort of grouping looking very like a division."

Some curious light is thrown on the above by the position Mr. Kasson took with regard to the neutralization. He introduced a resolution providing that when two or more Powers, members of the Conference, went to war, they should treat the Congo Basin and its rivers as neutral territory in the ordinary manner, and that no contraband of war should be permitted to leave its ports for any belligerent. Now this would have been, if adopted, and was so considered by the Conference, an ordinary joint guarantee of neutrality. But Mr. Kasson explained that his object was not to place the neutrality of the Basin of the Congo under the joint guarantee of the Powers, this being, he said, "opposed to the principles of political law which prevail in the United States," but "simply to reserve to each Power the right of interfering, if it pleased, in any case in which the neutrality might seem to be compromised." In other words, he wanted to substitute for a guarantee which all would respect and which would be thoroughly effective, a guarantee which would be worthless, because it would consist simply in the right of any Power to take part single-handed in the war in which the neutrality was violated, as if this right did not exist already. This absurdity was, of course, intended to cover our position with regard to the Nicaragua Canal, which is, that we cannot even allow a foreign Power to promise publicly not to meddle with it. The final touch is given to the *Mémorial's* account of the American proceedings by the statement that the Conference took no action on the Kasson-Sanford proposals for the neutralization of the Vivi-Stanley Pool Railroad, from the "painful" suspicion that these gentlemen or somebody behind them had a pecuniary interest in the enterprise, and were fighting for it, as Blaine fought for the Landreau claim, because "there was millions in it." If they should hear the talk there is here now about the Nicaragua Canal, these suspicions would probably be strengthened when the Conference meets again.

The failure of the House to fix a day for the discussion of the Lowell Bankruptcy Bill means probably its defeat in the present Congress. This is all the more regrettable because it appears that it was due in the main to the absence of representatives from New England and New York, or, in other words, from the very States which are most interested in the passage of the bill. The opposition came mainly from the West and South. Mr. Randall, with the narrowness which has always been one of his striking characteristics, was very active in instigating it. In the present state of the country the measure is almost essential to a clearing of the ground for the revival of business on an honest and healthy basis, and there is but little opposition to it which does not spring out of sympathy with some form of dishonesty. The failure of the measure is one more illustration of the small extent to which the purely mercantile interests of the country are represented or cared for in Congress.

The decisive vote by which the House has rejected the scandalous amendment which the Senate, on the eve of the Presidential campaign, attached to the Mexican Pension Bill, probably disposes of it for ever. Before another Presidential campaign comes round, we trust that the folly of angling for the "soldier vote" by means of more pensions, without any regard for justice or public decency, will be abandoned. It will be remembered that this amendment passed the Senate only after it was protested against as outrageous by such eminent Republicans as Senator Sherman. Logan was its chief advocate, and his zeal was possibly rewarded by his vote on election day. Various estimates have been made of the amount of money which the amendment would take from the Treasury, the lowest being $17,000,000, and the highest $2,500,000,000. Nobody could tell how much it would take. There were never any adequate reasons given in support of it, and none were found on Monday.

There is a bill pending in Congress to create a Department of Agriculture with a Cabinet officer at its head. The *American*, of Philadelphia, thinks that it ought to pass, and that there ought to be a Department of Manufactures also, if not one of Mines, one of Forests, and one of Commerce. We are not sure about the need of the latter, seeing that the Treasury Department is largely a Department of Commerce, but there is no doubt that there ought to be a Department of Plumbing. There is a great deal to be said in favor of such a department that cannot be said for a Department of Manufactures or even of Agriculture. The Government has nothing to do with either agriculture or manufactures, except to compile statistics and distribute information regarding them, whereas it has a great deal to do with plumbing. The bills which it has to pay on this score for all the public buildings in the United States must be enormous. Moreover, the plumbers have recently attempted to form a guild, or close corporation, by agreeing to buy lead pipe only from dealers who will promise to sell only to licensed members of the guild. This is an attack upon our liberties which the Government might well inquire into through a Cabinet officer. Of course, plumbing has not yet attained the dignity of agriculture or of manufactures, but the Government departments are not established out of compliment to the several vocations of life. The Post-office Department does not exist because of the dignity of letter-carrying, but because the Government carries letters. The Department of Justice does not exist out of compliment to the lawyers, but because the Government has a great deal of law business to be attended to. "Seats of this kind," says the *American*, "exist in all the Continental cabinets." Quite true, and they also have a Department of Public Worship, sometimes presided over by an infidel.

Governor Cleveland's letter defining his civil-service policy has been before the country for nearly a week, and has been discussed by all the newspapers. We have yet to see a Democratic newspaper which does not commend it heartily, and does not accept it as meaning precisely what it says. The whole Democratic press accepts it as a declaration that the "spoils system" has passed out of national politics forever. This most gratifying attitude of the Democratic journals finds a practically unanimous echo in the comments of Democratic politicians. A few of these have dissented from Mr. Cleveland's position, but in all cases they are found to be men who have had no sympathy with his course as Governor, and who did not exert themselves to secure either his nomination or election as President. Among Republican journals, the letter has been received with widely conflicting comments. The rabid Blaine organs are able to see in it nothing either sincere or encouraging. They insist that the Governor does not mean what he says, and that if he did mean it he would not be able to accomplish it. Many other Republican journals, however, which are able to realize that the campaign is over, and that there will not be another one for four years, admit frankly that the letter is an admirably frank, honest, and courageous document, which deserves to be accepted in good faith, and which entitles its author to the cordial support and encouragement of every patriotic man.

Anything more blindly partisan than the efforts of the Blaine and Butler organs to belittle the letter and prevent the new President from carrying out the promises of it, this country has seldom seen. Mr. Cleveland is President-elect of the United States, and will, if he lives, hold and administer the office for four years. If he carry out the policy which he has outlined—and we have not the slightest doubt that he will—he will bring to his support every honest and patriotic man in the country. If he gives the country a plain, honest, business-like Administration—as we have perfect faith that he will—the old partisan cries will grow fainter and fainter as time goes on, and when the end of his term is reached we shall be well launched into a new era, with new party lines and new issues. The editor who thinks that while this change is going on he can hold the country back by tugging at its tail, and shouting over and over again the old campaign cries, is simply walking to his own destruction. He greatly underestimates the common sense as well as the patriotism of his fellow-citizens.

It was a curious and significant coincidence that the *Sun* and *Tribune* should both have tried to suppress Governor Cleveland's letter on the civil service. It was, however, more significant still that they should have both begun on the same day to ridicule it by asking why, since he had written a letter on civil-service reform, he should not also write letters on the subjects which he had avoided and been praised for avoiding in his letter of acceptance, on the ground that his office was "essentially executive"? The *Tribune* sapiently declared that it took it for granted that "this absurdity had been abandoned," and that he would now answer letters in like manner from "the Tariff Reform League, or the National Temperance Reform League, or the National Anti-Monopoly League," and so on. It is very difficult to deal with talk of this sort, for reasons which courtesy forbids our revealing. The reason why Governor Cleveland writes freely about the civil service is that it is the one thing which the Constitution places in his control. He is charged with the execution of the laws, but he executes them by appointment and dismissal. In fact, appointment and dismissal and pardoning may be said to constitute the chief work of his office. Nothing he can say, therefore, is so interesting to the country as a statement of the policy he will pursue in making appointments and dismissals. When he talks about the tariff, or temperance, or monopolies, on the other hand, what he says is hardly more interesting than what any other man says who can get all the newspapers to print his views. These are things which lie within the domain of legislation, and the President does not legislate. He recommends legislation, but so does the editor of the *Tribune*, and as a general rule his recommendations are not heeded by Congress. An attempt was made by the Blaine papers to persuade people during the late canvass that if Blaine was elected he would order the tariff raised and direct a cessation of the existing business depression; while if Cleveland were elected he would lower the tariff, let in the low-priced British goods, and order the closing of the chief American factories. Nobody really believed this, however, except perhaps the recently arrived Hungarian and Italian laborers.

No better illustration of the Blaine theory of civil-service requirements could be given than is frankly revealed by Congressman Reed, of Maine, who says that Governor Cleveland's letter is "an assurance to all the sneaks in our (the Republican) party that they are to be kept in office, if they are in office, while honest Republicans are notified that they are to be turned out." Mr. Reed is a thoroughgoing Blaine man, and owes his prominence in political life to the influence of the Blaine machine in Maine. His idea is, that every office-holder who in the late campaign did not devote all his energies to help Blaine into the Presidency, is a "sneak," while all those who did use their positions for the accomplishment of that end are "honest Republicans." The "sneak" is the office-holder or clerk who attended quietly to his duties, refused to make a campaign contribution, and faithfully did his work as a servant of the public. The "honest Republican" is the office-holder or clerk who neglected his public duties in order to "whoop 'er up" for Blaine. This is the view of all the Blaine advocates, both before and since election. The criticisms upon the "President's lukewarmness" are based upon it just as were the disgraceful operations of the Clapp Contribution Committee in Washington. Nobody can doubt that if Blaine had been elected, all the "sneaks" would have been turned out, while all the "honest Republicans" like Dudley would have been handsomely rewarded for their zeal in the campaign. Civil-service reform would have had about as much chance for life as it had when, as Speaker of the House, Blaine turned it over to the fatherly care of General Butler.

In the Southern States the appointing power of the Governor, once quite extensive, has been, since the war, year by year abridged. In South Carolina, such county officers as treasurers, auditors, jury commissioners, and trial justices, are still, however, selected by the Governor. It has been customary to violate the spirit of the statute requiring these officers to be selected by the Governor, by appointing only such persons as may have received the recommendation of their representatives in the State Legislature, or of county conventions. In some counties of the State it has been the rule for candidates for offices filled by the Executive to submit their claims to a vote of their party (cast in "primaries"), and to bind themselves not to apply if defeated. When Governor Thompson came into office, he not only disregarded the pressure exerted upon him by friends and party workers, as we mentioned at the time, but he adopted a rule to retain in every instance an incumbent who had proved efficient and who desired reappointment, though such person should

not be recommended. The recent confirmation by the Senate of South Carolina of 600 officers appointed by the Governor, a number of whom were not recommended by county conventions or county delegations, must be considered as a proof that it also agrees with this principle of civil-service reform, and that it is beginning to abolish "Senatorial courtesy." That the people of the State heartily approve the Governor's policy is shown by his recent reëlection without any opposition whatever. In view of this, the resolution of the Legislature of South Carolina, in which the support of the people of that State is tendered to the President-elect in carrying out the provisions of the Civil-Service Law, cannot be considered as mere "words, words, words."

At one time on Saturday it was thought that Mr. Evarts's prospects for the Senatorship were improving, but there is little indication that the gain was sufficient to insure his election. His explanation of his letter to Folger does not give entire satisfaction. He says he declined to speak because he "might just as well have addressed a snow-storm with a view to stopping it." This is equivalent to saying that party fidelity is to be gauged by the prospects of victory, and that when your party's candidate has a poor chance of election you are not called upon to stand by him. There are evidences of weakening in that which cannot fail to injure Mr. Evarts's prestige as a party-loyalty man. The standard insisted upon in the late campaign by all the Blaine leaders, including Mr. Evarts, was that you must stand by your party, right or wrong, honest or dishonest; and that if you did not do that you were a mugwump, a dude-and-pharisee, and one of the class whom Mr. Evarts held up to ridicule at the Gould-Field-Blaine banquet as the "very particular and finical set of our people." If Mr. Evarts had made any other claim to the Senatorship than that of unswerving party allegiance, this Folger incident would be a small matter; but as that was his sole claim, any flaw in it must be regarded as damaging. We think he ought to give out the correspondence between himself and the Secretary for publication, in order that the public may judge fairly of his value as a party man.

We find the following interesting admission in our esteemed but somewhat rabid Blaine contemporary, the Utica *Herald*:

"The meeting of ministers which greeted Mr. Blaine on the occasion of his visit to New York, and which elicited the Burchard alliteration, is universally conceded to have been the immediate cause of the Republican defeat. That ministerial demonstration not only defeated Blaine, but it immensely damaged the influence of the Christian pulpit throughout the United States. The storm of ridicule and execration that has since overwhelmed the unfortunate Burchard has had its point and its effect, in the recognized fact that the man had no business to be there at all, and was outside his calling as a Christian minister."

It is very true that Dr. Burchard and his fellow-clergymen "had no business to be there," and were "outside their calling as Christian ministers," but who got them there? They were formally invited by the Blaine managers, and the engraved cards of invitation were sent out, it is understood now, by the minister who was paid a salary and given a desk in the Blaine headquarters for the purpose of keeping the Blaine campaign "in a line with the religious sentiment of the country." They were collected for advertising purposes, the design being to give Blaine a "religious endorsement" on the eve of election. If anybody is to be blamed for the disastrous outcome, it is not the clergymen, but the man who originated the plan of getting them together.

The Rev. Dr. Newman, the well-known Stalwart divine of this city, has covered himself with glory in San Francisco, where he now is, by preaching a $10,000 funeral sermon over a youth of sixteen, named Stanford. The "floral decorations" of the funeral alone cost $20,000. The fee is, we believe, the largest ever paid for an intellectual effort of this kind, and the Doctor tried to give the bereaved parents the worth of their money, and we think he succeeded. No words of ours can do justice to the discourse. We must confine ourselves to one quotation, which shows what a Stalwart theologian can do when put to his trumps. He said of the deceased, who had died in Europe:

"Although so young, he was tall and graceful as some Apollo Belvidere, with classic features some masters would have chosen to chisel in marble or cast in bronze; with eyes soft and gentle as an angel's, yet dreamy as the visions of a seer; with broad, white forehead, home of a radiant soul. He reminds us of the beautiful Joseph, 'a godly person and well favored.' Think of him as a rapt listener to the mature conversations of such men as Sir Joseph Hooker, Sir William Jenner, Baron Rothschild, Dr. Schliemann, and General di Cesnola, etc., asking or answering questions. It was the reproduction of Christ among the doctors at the age of twelve. Our youth should read his biography, which will be more fascinating than romance and more edifying than the creations of the imagination. The public-school scholar and the college student would be entranced by the epic of his life, and the 'Life of Leland Stanford, jr.,' would become as familiar as Fénelon's 'Telemachus' or Richmond's 'Dairyman's Daughter.' His tomb will be the shrine to which our youth will go as on a sacred pilgrimage, and from it they will gather grasses and flowers as mementos of what he was to them."

The Vice-Chancellor of New Jersey, in declaring that President Dodd, of the defunct Newark Savings Institution, committed contempt of court in his reckless use of its funds, has administered a scathing rebuke to both lawyers and laymen. It appears that Mr. Dodd's counsel sought to shield him, by contending that the Chancellor's order under which Mr. Dodd had conducted the institution since 1877 was granted without authority, and that therefore his violation of it could not now be punished. The Chancellor says:

"If it were possible for a party to commit a contempt of court by the inherent insolence of his defence, it would seem to be quite plain, when the circumstances under which the order alleged to have been violated was made are considered, that some of the persons now before the court on a charge of contempt should be adjudged guilty, whether their conduct prior to their appearance in court on the present charge justified a conviction or not."

He expresses indignation at such an open defiance of courts and their orders in the following forcible language:

"With my views of what constitutes propriety, decency, and manliness, it is scarcely possible for me to imagine a course of conduct more disrespectful and insulting than for a suitor to ask a judicial tribunal to give him, by the rightful exercise of its undoubted jurisdiction, aid and protection, convince the court that he is entitled by the law of the land to what he asks, cause the judgment of the court to be entered on its records, and take to himself all the benefit and the advantage that can accrue from the judgment, and then, after he has got all he can get, and when his interests or his caprice or his conceits make it desirable for him to do so, to insult the court by trampling upon its judgment and defying its authority; and when he is called upon to answer for his misconduct, to tell the court that it is without power to punish him, for it had no authority to pronounce the judgment which he convinced it that it had authority to pronounce, and which he has since contemned."

If courts would use more of this kind of reasoning and take every convenient occasion to express it as emphatically as possible, it would have a wholesome influence, both in and out of the profession of the law. It is already a practice much too common for the good of the community, for violators of the law to question its validity without seeking in any way to excuse or defend their own misconduct. And it is only a step further in the same line of defence to defy orders of court on the ground that they were granted without authority, even though such orders were obtained by the party violating them.

The "White-book" presented a few weeks ago to the German Reichstag reveals the extraordinary vigor and promptness with which Prince Bismarck has inaugurated the colonial policy of the Empire. In December, 1883, the Senates of Bremen and Hamburg were informed that, conformably to their recommendations previously solicited for the protection of German settlements and commerce in Africa, the Imperial Government had decided to send out a Consular Commissioner in a war vessel to the west coast of that Continent. Dr. Nachtigal received the appointment and, in May, 1884, the Chancellor's instructions. The objective points were all distinctly stated, and the Commissioner carried out his instructions to the letter. Toward the close of June he had concluded a treaty with the King and chiefs of Togno, or Togo, east of the English domain on the Slave Coast, by which their territories, including Lome, Bageida, and Little Popo, on the Gulf of Benin, were placed under a German protectorate. On July 11 the Commissioner's war vessel, the *Möwe*, landed at the mouth of the Cameroons, in the Bight of Biafra; and, Hamburg merchants having paved the way for Dr. Nachtigal by negotiations with two native Kings, within a few days the German flag was hoisted over all the prominent places from Bimbia to beyond Batanga (between 4° and 2° N. latitude). The same Kings had some time before offered to place their lands under an English protectorate, but delays had taken place, and the protests of a British consul who arrived on July 19 proved vain. Angra Pequena, with all the "Lüderitz Settlement" (now extending from the mouth of the Orange River, which forms the northern boundary of Cape Colony, to 26° south latitude), and the coasts of Namaqua and Damara Lands, as far north as Cape Frio, with the exception of Walfish Bay, had some time before been taken possession of with the necessary formalities, and on October 13 a communication was despatched to all the maritime Powers announcing the sum of the *faits accomplis*. None of the Powers raised any objection, and all readily accepted the subsequent invitation to attend a conference at Berlin on West African affairs, at which the German Chancellor was to preside and lead.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 31, 1884, to TUESDAY, January 6, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

CONGRESS reassembled on Monday. In the House of Representatives, Mr. Hiscock moved to pass, under a suspension of the rules, his bill for the reduction of internal taxes by about $40,000,000. The motion was lost, yeas 77, nays 128. A resolution was introduced in the House by Mr. Herbert (Dem., Ala.), calling on the President for his reasons in appointing American delegates to the Congo Conference. A motion to fix January 22 for the consideration of the National Bankruptcy Bill was lost, yeas 136, nays 76—not the necessary two-thirds in the affirmative. The Mexican War Pension Bill with the Senate amendments also failed of a two-thirds vote—the vote being 129 to 85.

In the Senate, Mr. Beck introduced a bill to create a Revenue Commission. It is to consist of members of the House and three Senators whose terms extend beyond the present Congress. The Secretary of the Treasury is to be ex-officio a member. The bill makes it the duty of the Commission to inquire as to what changes should be made in the existing tariff laws. It is authorized to appoint sub-committees, and to hold meetings at such places in the country as can furnish the information wanted. It is also provided that each house may select the members of the Commission from its body respectively in such manner as it may see fit. The bill was referred to the Finance Committee.

The Senate on Tuesday passed the bill forfeiting the unearned land-grants of the Oregon Central Railway. The House passed the Pension Appropriation Bill. It appropriates within $24,000 of the $60,000,000 asked for, which is $29,000,000 less than last year's appropriation.

The canvass for the United States Senatorship and the Speakership of the Assembly, in this State, was the most interesting political feature of the week. It increased in intensity as the time for the meeting of the Legislature, January 6, approached. Messrs. Evarts, Morton, and President Arthur were the leading candidates for Senator. The Morton men apparently formed a combination with those supporting Mr. Erwin, of St. Lawrence County, for Speaker. This combination developed great strength on Saturday. Other candidates for the Speakership were Messrs. Hubbell of Monroe, Howe of this city, O'Neil of Franklin, and Curtis of St. Lawrence. Mr. Hubbell had the support of most of the Arthur men. Curtis and O'Neil were free from Senatorial alliances.

In the caucus on Monday evening Mr. Erwin was nominated for Speaker by the Republicans without opposition. The Democratic caucus nominated William C. Ely, of Otsego. The Republicans nominated Mr. Chickering for Clerk. There was a late conference of anti-Morton men on the Senatorship at the Delavan House. It was decided to communicate with Mr. Evarts and Mr. Depew, and to make one of them the candidate of the opposition. On Tuesday evening Mr. Evarts was decided upon as the candidate of the anti-Morton faction.

It was announced on Saturday evening that President Arthur did not consider himself a candidate for the United States Senate. The anti-Erwin men united on Mr. Hubbell as their candidate for Speaker, all the others withdrawing. During Monday afternoon it became evident that Erwin had the canvass in his own hands, and at 4 P. M. Mr. Hubbell formally withdrew from the contest.

One of the incidents of the Senatorial canvass was a charge brought that Mr. Evarts refused to make speeches for Secretary Folger when the latter was running for Governor of this State. Frank H. Sperry, who was Mr. Folger's private secretary, said: "Since my name has been used in this connection, I have stated, as a matter of fact within my recollection, that in the fall of 1882 Mr. Evarts declined to make a speech at a public meeting in favor of the Republican State ticket, after being requested so to do by the candidate for Governor. Mr. Evarts will, without doubt, admit the truth of this statement."

Mr. Evarts said on Saturday, in reference to this letter: "If there was anything discreditable to me in my answer to Mr. Folger, let this young man, Sperry, whom, by the way, I do not know at all, publish the letter; I am not afraid of it; and until he does I think that the public will be suspicious of his story. Among other things Mr. Folger asked me to give him my opinion as to his chances. I did so, and as every one in a position to know knew at that late day, his chances were utterly hopeless. My letter may have been unsatisfactory in the news it gave, but it certainly was a kindly letter, and not intended to hurt in any way. As to my not having gone into that campaign as a speaker, I might just as well have addressed a snow storm with a view to stopping it."

The New York Legislature formally organized on Tuesday at 11 o'clock. Lieutenant Governor Hill called the Senate to order. After some preliminary business it adjourned until 12:30 P. M., when Senator McCarthy, President pro tem., called the meeting to order again. The following message was received from Governor Cleveland: "I hereby resign the office of Governor of the State of New York." A committee was appointed to notify Lieutenant-Governor Hill. They did so, and Mr. Hill replied that under the Constitution he accepted the office. They then proceeded with him to the Executive Chamber, where he assumed the office of Governor. The organization of the House was quickly effected, Mr. Erwin receiving 72 and Mr. Ely 51 votes for Speaker. The former, on taking the chair, made a speech which was heartily received. About 1:20 P. M. Governor Hill's message was received and read in both houses. It is a very long document, reviewing the affairs of the State. One of its notable passages is the following: "With an earnest conviction that the system of civil service which our State has been the first to apply is full of promise for the better administration of public trusts, and a remedy for many evils that have long been regretted, I recommend that the Legislature continue to give such countenance and support to the work of the State Commission as will best promote the system, and give to the people of the State its full benefit." Both houses have adjourned until January 13, to enable the committees to be made up.

President-elect Cleveland will leave Albany for Buffalo on January 8. He will remain in the latter city for a week or more, completely settling up his business of every nature. He will then return to Albany and occupy the house he has rented as a permanent home till he goes to Washington to be inaugurated. During the interval it is probable that he will come to New York, to remain a week or ten days, for the purpose of more conveniently receiving calls from prominent men who may wish to consult him.

Prof. J. M. Gregory, of the Federal Civil-Service Commission, recently said of Governor Cleveland's letter: "It seems to me the honest expression of sincere and settled conviction, with no hidden meaning and no contemplated afterthought. The paragraphs relating to those who 'have used their places for party purposes,' which to some of his critics appear to be a designed loophole for a wide partisan proscription, are altogether too large and plain for such construction. They are so open, frank, and fearless as to forbid all thought of their hiding any sinister and malignant meaning. President Arthur's hearty and magnanimous support of this reform will make his Administration as famous in history as it has made it popular among the best of his living countrymen. But it needs the equally hearty and magnanimous efforts and sacrifices of his successor and of the Democratic party in its turn, to fully extirpate the accursed upas tree of the patronage system. These efforts Governor Cleveland's letter fairly promises; and in this light I accept it in the full breadth of its frank assertion. If it is carried out in its letter and spirit, it will place the name of its author high in the list of the best Presidents of the republic."

Governor Cleveland has publicly denied a statement, attributed to Mr. Frank Hurd, that he was the president of a free-trade club, or had ever been connected with such an organization. Mr. Hurd says that he has been misunderstood.

Mayor Grace succeeded to his office in this city on January 1st at noon. The new Board of Aldermen assumed office on Monday. Between midnight of December 31 and noon of January 1, Mr. Kirk, President of the Board of Aldermen, claimed to be acting Mayor, and as such appointed E. T. Wood Corporation Counsel. Late on the last day of his term Mayor Edson appointed Rollin M. Squire Commissioner of Public Works. Mr. Wood's appointment has led to a complication in city affairs which has not yet been settled.

In the investigation of the appointment of United States Deputy Marshals at Cincinnati on Monday, by Mr. Springer's Congressional Committee, Marshal Wright testified that all the deputies were Republican so far as he knew; they were furnished by him with 44-calibre "bulldog" revolvers; 600 of these came to him by express from New York; he had no information that would justify him in saying that they were furnished by the Republican National Committee, but supposed they were so furnished.

A large number of mills and factories in New England, Pennsylvania, and Ohio announced a reduction of wages, to take effect on Monday, ranging from 5 to 35 per cent.

The guards were driven away on Thursday night, by a mob of strikers, from the Bristol Tunnel, on the Newark and Shawnee Road, in the Hocking Valley, Ohio, a branch of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and the tunnel was set on fire. This is strictly a coal road, thirty-five miles long, over which immense quantities of coal are carried to Newark and thence to the lakes and in all directions. Both combustibles and dynamite were used, the tunnel being filled with hay. It was heavily timbered, with solid walls of coal on each side. It was still burning on Monday.

The representatives of the anthracite coal-producing and carrying companies met in this city on Wednesday afternoon to arrange the details of production during the year 1885. It was decided that the Philadelphia and Reading shall be entitled to mine 38.85 per cent. of the year's output; the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western, 16.05 per cent.; the Delaware and Hudson, 11 per cent.; the Pennsylvania Coal, 5 per cent.; the Pennsylvania Railroad, 8 per cent.; the Lehigh Valley, 19.60 per cent., and the New York, Lake Erie and Western Railroad, 1.50 per cent. The allotment was made upon the basis of a total output for the year of 30,000,000 tons.

The movement of corn from Nebraska, and especially from the Republican Valley, has begun in earnest, and the volume now going to various markets is remarkable. Both the Burlington and Missouri River and the Union Pacific are unable to meet the demands made for cars. The reason assigned is that the farmers can hold on no longer, being compelled to sell to pay taxes and meet current expenses.

East-bound passenger rates from Chicago to New York were cut on Saturday to $11 50 for first-class tickets and $8 50 for second class.

William C. Kingsley resigned on Friday evening as a trustee of the East River Bridge. He has been connected with the bridge since its inception. He was General Superintendent during the construction of the towers up to high-water mark. At the death of President Henry C. Murphy he was elected President.

A number of towns in Frederick County, Maryland, were severely shaken by an earthquake on Friday evening about 9 o'clock.

The Rev. Dr. Noah Hunt Schenck died on Sunday at his house in Brooklyn. For the last sixteen years he had been rector of St. Ann's-on-the-Heights, one of the largest and most fashionable Protestant Episcopal churches in Brooklyn.

FOREIGN.

Earthquake shocks continued to cause great alarm and destruction of property and life in Spain on Wednesday and Thursday. The greatest damage was done in the provinces of Malaga and Granada. There was further loss of life and property at Periana, Riogordo, Viñuela, and elsewhere. A thousand houses at Alhama are in ruins; 192 bodies were recovered. The King subscribed $6,000 for the relief of the sufferers. The shock at Granada on Wednesday night was very severe. Ten thousand people left the city in the panic. Albuñuelas presents an appalling sight. Half of the town is completely ruined. Churches, the convent, and the Town Hall were thrown to the ground. The inhabitants gathered outside the town. Sixty wounded persons are in a temporary hospital. One hundred and ninety-two corpses were taken from the ruins. The Mayor and several wealthy residents are among the victims. Many persons were rescued after being buried alive for twenty-four hours. Similar tales of distress come from Alhama. A fresh shock was felt in that city on Thursday night, and at Granada, Malaga, and Nerja. A national fund has been opened for the relief of the sufferers. The land tax has been omitted in the afflicted districts. Public officials will contribute one day's pay, aggregating $200,000.

Official statistics show that up to the present time 673 corpses have been recovered from the ruins in the province of Granada. Two hundred and sixty-nine bodies have been recovered in Alhama, in which city 1,400 houses were destroyed. At Albuñuelas 160 persons were killed and 260 injured, and at Arenas del Rey 135 were killed. The shocks continued at intervals throughout the week.

The Belgian delegate to the Congo Conference, who was sent to Paris to negotiate with Premier Ferry in regard to the claims of the International Association on the left bank of the Congo, has returned to Berlin. He reports that M. Ferry refused to recognize the Association's rights, and insisted that the port of the Association on the left bank of the Congo be included in the French territory. This dispute threatens to affect the result of the Congo Conference. A three hours' session of the Congo Committee was held in Berlin on Monday. The English project binding the Powers to adopt all possible means to prevent slave traffic in the Congo territory, and the American proposal to prohibit the sale of alcohol (equally on land and water), were unanimously adopted.

Just after a British Cabinet meeting on Saturday it was reported that a peremptory despatch from the Admiralty Department was received at the Portsmouth naval depot, ordering the immediate recall to their ships of all officers and seamen who were absent on leave, and the fitting out of a squadron for foreign service at the earliest possible moment. This caused a sensation. It was believed to indicate that the Cabinet had decided upon a vigorous foreign policy. Where the fleet was to operate was unknown. Among the rumors were the following: one, to the effect that England is going to make a determined resistance to the acquisition of any part of New Guinea by Germany, and thus maintain the rights which are so strenuously urged by Australia; another, that the fleet is to expel the French from the New Hebrides in order to maintain the neutrality of those islands; still another, that the men-of-war are to be sent to the southeast coast of Africa to dispute Germany's claim to St. Lucia Bay, and to assert the validity of Sir H. E. Bulwer's annexation of that region. The Admiralty on Monday denied that any unusual orders had been issued to the Channel fleet. It had previously received orders to sail this week.

Earl Granville declines, it is reported, to give his consent to the proposal to hold a formal conference on the Egyptian question at Paris. He proposes instead that informal meetings be held at the British Embassy at Paris, to be presided over by Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador, at which the other foreign ambassadors accredited to France shall have the privilege of taking part in the discussion, but not of voting. It is reported that Premier Ferry, besides agreeing to Earl Granville's proposals, offers terms for an arrangement which are likely to lead to an *entente* with England, and a general acceptance by the other Powers

Advices from Durban, South Africa, state that a British protectorate has been proclaimed over the whole coast of Pondoland.

It is reported in Vienna that the Khedive of Egypt, encouraged by the advice of the German and Russian Governments, has refused to comply with England's demand to convene the Chamber of Notables for the purpose of voting a reduction of the land tax and pronouncing in favor of the English financial proposals.

General Wolseley received on Thursday a note from General Gordon with the latter's genuine seal on it. The date is December 14, and Gordon says Khartum is all right. A messenger brought it concealed in a seam of his garment. Gordon, who estimates the Mahdi's force at from 20,000 to 80,000, spends the nights at Khartum in a ceaseless watch, visiting the outposts to see that every sentry is on the alert. During the day he sleeps. He is described as cheerful. An Arab from El Mahdi's camp has reached Dongola. He states that the False Prophet's army is a two days' march from Umderman. He recently intended to march against the Mudir of Dongola. The chiefs wanted him to lead the troops and charm off the bullets. The Mahdi thereupon told the chiefs that he had seen in a dream that the Mudir was a saint against whom it was useless to fight. This statement caused great alarm in the Mahdi's camps.

General Stewart and his flying column arrived at Korti on Monday, having successfully accomplished the march to Gakdul (ninety-seven miles) and return in one week. He captured a quantity of spoil on the route; also a Sheikh and his family. The march completely surprised the desert Arabs. A few of the Mahdi's men were captured. General Stewart left guards at Gakdul in an impregnable position, with a plentiful supply of good water and provisions.

London was again startled by a dynamite explosion on the underground railway between Gower Street and King's Cross Station at 9:30 o'clock on Friday evening. Two trains were passing each other at the time of the explosion, and were filled with passengers. In both, the lights were extinguished, windows were shattered, and the framework of several carriage doors was smashed. The passengers were greatly alarmed, and many ladies fainted. The trains resumed their journey after a delay of twenty-five minutes. At the Gower Street Station the shock was very severe. People on the platform were knocked down, the ticket collector was thrown from his box, and the houses in the vicinity were shaken. Two gentlemen and a lady were slightly injured. These are the only casualties reported. At the site of the explosion there is a hole in the solid masonry about four feet from the ground, with a diameter of four feet and a depth of five or six inches. The masonry is more or less damaged for about eight feet around the hole. The effects of this explosion correspond almost exactly with those of the explosion at the Praed Street Station fourteen months ago. As a matter of course, the outrage is ascribed to Fenians.

Colonel Majendie, Chief Inspector of Explosives, after an inspection on Saturday, decided that dynamite had been the agent used. It was probably a percussion bomb, such as was used to assassinate the Czar.

Queen Victoria has announced to the Privy Council the betrothal of Princess Beatrice to Prince Henry of Battenberg. She will, it is reported, ask Parliament for a dowry of $150,000 for her daughter, and an annuity of $30,000 for the young couple after the marriage.

Sir Andrew Clark, M. D., has ordered Mr. Gladstone to take complete rest for the present. He is suffering from sleeplessness, but was somewhat better on Monday.

Prince Bismarck, in a conversation on Thursday, denied that he had any personal enmity toward Mr. Gladstone. He said he viewed with equanimity the party struggles in England. He could have relied upon Lord Beaconsfield to keep England in accord with the rest of Europe, but, whatever Mr. Gladstone's policy might be, it was a matter of little concern to Germany. Bismarck has handed to the Bundesrath six petitions from agricultural associations for the protection of farm produce, demanding that the duties on corn, cattle, and wool be increased fourfold, and that the gold monetary standard be abolished.

General Campenon, on Saturday, resigned the portfolio of French Minister of War because Prime Minister Ferry demanded that more reinforcements should be sent to the French troops at Tonquin. General Campenon refused to accede to this, assigning as a reason that such action would compromise the mobilization of the army.

It was officially announced in Paris on Sunday that General Lewal, of the Conseil Supérieur de le Guerre, would be appointed to succeed General Campenon as French Minister of War. Gen. Lewal is a leading military authority, and his appointment is taken as an indication of vigorous and energetic measures against the Chinese. It is asserted that the management of the Tonquin campaign will now be handed over by the Ministry of Marine to the War Department. Besides reinforcements to the number of 5,000 men, which will leave next week for Tonquin, the Marine Department has been ordered to prepare four more transports to convey a new division of troops to the scene of operations. A new cruiser will be ready in February. Advices from China indicate that active war preparations continue there.

Four French men-of-war have been ordered to the Chinese waters to reinforce Admiral Courbet.

Advices from Hanoi assert, that, after the defeat of the 6,000 Chinese near Chu by General Negrier, 12,000 Chinese returned and resumed hostilities. General Negrier attacked them, penetrated their positions defended by forts and tiers of batteries, and repulsed and routed the Chinese, who after an active resistance abandoned their positions. The Chinese lost 600 killed and large numbers of wounded. The French losses in both battles were three officers wounded, nineteen men killed, and sixty-five wounded.

It is reported that the French Government is negotiating with the Government of the United States of Colombia for the cession or purchase of islets off the northwest coast of Panama, upon which to form a French naval station.

The centennial anniversary of the birth of the brothers Grimm was celebrated at the University of Berlin on Sunday and at Hanau, their birthplace, where a statue to their memory will soon be erected, funds for that purpose having been already subscribed.

The Sultan of Turkey on Friday accepted the resignation of the Grand Vizier. A ministerial crisis is threatened.

GOVERNOR CLEVELAND AND THE "WORKERS."

THERE is no part of Governor Cleveland's letter on civil-service reform more important than the warning to party "workers" now in office, that they must quit the public service when he comes into office. We believe, too, that no part of it meets with more emphatic approval from the public, although the whole of it has met with more approval from all parties than any document which has for many years issued from a President or President-elect. One of the worst features of the spoils system, and one which the Civil-Service Act cannot reach for a long time, is the practice, now old and deeply rooted, of employing more officers than are necessary, as a means of providing party politicians with the means of livelihood, and then allowing them to devote their time, or a considerable part of it, to electioneering work. There is hardly a department at Washington, except the State Department, or a large custom-house or post-office in the country, which does not contain a greater or less number of this class of officials. They cannot be got at by the civil-service reform, because they are already in office, and as they are Republicans, no Republican President has yet had the courage to dismiss them. They hold their places solely by virtue of the theory that the public offices belong not to the nation but to the party in power, and that their "bread and butter," as they call it, comes not from the national Treasury, but from the private till of the Republican party. Or, to put it a little differently, they retain their places on the theory that the national Treasury becomes for the time being, to a certain extent, the private fund of the party in power, and may be used, within certain limits, to reward purely party services.

The natural result of this is, that they are not only absent, we will not say from their official duties, for they cannot be said to have any, but from their nominal posts, a good deal of the time. They are absent weeks together during the preparation for and sitting of conventions and the election of Senators, and during hotly contested State and Federal canvasses, pulling wires, and laying pipe, and negotiating "deals" and compromises. Sometimes, as in Commissioner Dudley's case, they are absent for whole months, during which they draw and consume the money of the taxpayers with unfailing regularity, while denouncing one-half of them as thieves, cheats, and traitors. When at home they are very irregular even in the routine attendance at their offices, and give but little attention even to such light work as is assigned to them, having their minds wholly occupied with what is called "local manipulation," such as "fixing primaries," and looking after the captains of fifties and captains of tens who work under them. They are generally, too, bullies and spies towards their brother officers who are the real servants of the Government. They report those who are suspected of "disloyalty" to the party, keep them in terror of arbitrary dismissal, and see that they pay up their "assessments" to the party committees. They are, in fact, the vermin of the body politic, and the first work of any reformed Administration is to clean them out. Luckily their activity makes the process of cleaning them out a very easy one. It will hardly be possible for President Cleveland to make a mistake about them. The very pains they have taken to be noted as active party workers make their identification a very simple matter.

Their removal is necessary, too, on other grounds than the fraud they commit on the Government in drawing their salaries. It is necessary in the interest of discipline. Nothing else will convince the quiet, hard-working officers who really do the Government business, that close attention to their duties is the best policy for a Government clerk, as well as for a man in any other reputable calling. Nothing else will fortify them against the party leeches who extort money from them in campaigns, or break down the doctrine that they are under pecuniary obligations of any kind to the party in power. The state of things which reform in the civil service aims at, and which Governor Cleveland's policy will greatly hasten, is one in which Government employees will be no more excited about politics than grocers or dry-goods men, and no more expected to pay the expenses of party canvasses.

Another reason is, that, as campaigns are now carried on, there is something utterly unsuitable and unseemly in the participation of subordinate public officers, who are not expected to change with the Administration, in the usual attacks on party candidates, under one or other of whom they are sure to have to serve afterwards. It is asking too much of human nature to ask a President to tolerate in the service of which he is the head, the presence of men who have passed two or three months of the previous year in spreading charges against his moral character, and describing him as a political humbug or charlatan. We ought not to expect a Blaine to keep in office a man who has been freely denouncing him as a liar and jobber, or a Cleveland a man who has been proclaiming to the world that he is a profligate, and drunkard, and ignoramus. In short, there is no hardship in the world in requiring permanent office-holders to keep off the stump, to take none of the time they owe to the Government for "politics," in any sense of the term, and to imitate the example of the bulk of the American people during political campaigns, in attending to their own business, and in keeping their tongues from lying, evil speaking, and slandering. They are no better judges of candidates or parties than any other class of the community, and have no lessons in government to teach anybody.

THE MOURNFUL PAST.

THE controversy between the Republican managers as to who is to blame for the late defeat, continues, and becomes more acrimonious. The Jones party are defending themselves by accusing the Arthur party of lukewarmness or covert hostility toward the ticket. The Arthur party deny this, and produce Senator Hawley as a witness, and retort that the Committee conducted the campaign from the beginning on the theory that New York was not needed to elect Blaine, and was grossly incompetent besides. Then there is a side attack on Mr. Evarts, as a candidate for Senator, arising out of his refusal to make a speech for Judge Folger in 1882, and Mr. Blaine has indicated that he bears a grudge to the President and Secretary Frelinghuysen by failing to call on either of these gentlemen on New Year's Day, while calling on Secretary Teller and Secretary Lincoln, who have apparently dealt handsomely with him. Finally, Mrs. Blaine has curtly refused to be present at a reception in the White House because of President Arthur's treatment of her husband. All this, too, is over and above the steady warfare against the Mugwumps, which now rages all over the country. Some of the organs have even turned their batteries on the Blaine clergy, whom they courted so much during the campaign, and now boldly declare that even the divines who assembled to pay their respects to Blaine in this city, in obedience to the Jones advertisement, were a discredit to their cloth, and that ministers ought to keep out of politics. In fact, whichever way one looks in the Republican camp, one sees parties of greater or less size engaged in fisticuffs over the late election.

What is the object of all this it is impossible to say. Usually it is only hopeless people who quarrel over what might have been. The hopeful and practical are generally too much occupied about the future to care much about the past. Practical politicians especially, in all countries, who do not consider their career closed, are generally so busy about the next election that they care no more about the last one than about any other historical event. When the Republican party was last defeated, in 1856, not one word of recrimination was heard. On the contrary, the managers filled the whole country with the sounds of preparation for the mighty and decisive struggle of 1860. The speakers swarmed in all the halls and lecture-rooms, preaching the principles of the party and trying to make converts. The party newspapers were wholly devoted to the work of conversion—that is, the work of getting more votes for the next election. The sapient plan of abusing and insulting everybody who voted for Buchanan was never thought of; on the contrary, all the energies of the party leaders were devoted to getting those who voted wrong in 1856, to vote right in 1860, and particularly the "Americans" who voted for Fremont and Johnston. This, in fact, is the way parties are built up and win victories. A party in a minority can only become majority by getting people who did not vote their ticket last time to vote it next time. In short, the next election is every good politician's sole concern. The last election concerns him only as showing in what quarters he needs to be more persuasive and conciliatory than he has been. Using it to show him in what quarters to be abusive and repelling, and whom he can most surely discourage from ever voting his ticket, is a distinctly Republican invention. No contrivance in the remotest degree resembling it is to be found in any political patent office or museum.

Some people try to account for it by ascribing it to the delusion that the last election is to be held over again in 1888, like a "new trial" ordered by the courts, with Blaine again as the candidate, he in the meantime acting as "the leader" of the party in Washington. But this only makes the matter worse, because a

majority will still be needed in order to elect him, and he can only get a majority by making more friends. At present he and his disciples seem to be busy making more enemies. The first time he opened his lips after his defeat he hurled defiance at the whole South. His next utterance was a letter accusing the people of Indiana of such corruption that an honest jury could not be found in the State to try the question whether he had been legally married at a certain date. He is now apparently trying to alienate and disgust permanently all those Republicans who belong to what is called the "Arthur crowd" in this State. His partisans are everywhere busy, too, discouraging everybody who did not vote the Republican ticket in November, but would be likely to vote it again, from doing so. Nothing like all this, we believe, has ever been seen in politics before. It most resembles the efforts of a ball committee to watch over the invitations so as to make the company select. That it is a policy which can result in any way but disaster, it is impossible to suppose. To make it succeed we should have to change the form of the government, besides making some slight modifications in human nature. Blaine's defeat was not decisive enough—that is, the majority against him was perhaps not large enough—to insure his prompt disappearance from the arena. He and his disciples are now, however, doing the work in the way of his political extinction which the election left undone.

MORE ABOUT THE CONGO CONFERENCE.

A RESOLUTION has, we are glad to see, been introduced in the House of Representatives, calling for information about the appearance of two American diplomatists at the Congo Conference, to assist in disposing of a piece of the African Continent as large as the United States east of the Mississippi. The small amount of attention which this has attracted, considering the position we are taking up with regard to the Nicaraguan Canal, is very extraordinary. Mr. Frelinghuysen, we believe, when his attention was called to the inconsistency of it the other day, excused it on the ground that the territory the Conference was cutting up was occupied only by barbarous tribes; but what this had to do with the matter it is hard to see. The Monroe Doctrine does not say that no European Power shall meddle with any portion of this continent now inhabited by civilized men. It says that "the European system" shall not be extended to any part of this continent, no matter what kind of people live on it. Moreover, there are very extensive portions of this continent which are either not peopled at all, or peopled only by Indians but little, if at all, above the inhabitants of the Congo Basin in point of civilization. This is, in fact, true of a considerable part of Central America. It appears, also, that the Congo Basin is much more densely peopled than any portion of this continent. Calculations as to population in such a region must of course be very vague, but the estimate on which the explorers who are best acquainted with it have agreed, puts the number of its inhabitants at 80,000,000, or 30,000,000 more than we have ourselves.

However, we are not concerned now on behalf of the people of the Congo Basin. We have no doubt the proceedings of the Conference will do them a world of good. What we are concerned about is the participation of this Government in a European Congress, engaged in the division of territory on a continent beyond the ocean, in which we have not a sing lecolony, factory, or market. The appearance of our agents in such a Congress indicates nothing, therefore, but our willingness to become part of the "European system," to share in its deliberations and votes, and abide by its decisions. That this position can be successfully defended while insisting on the absolute exclusion of Europe from all political influence on this continent, is impossible. We must be worsted in any discussion which may arise out of it. We cannot maintain that our interest in the spread of civilization justifies us in joining Europe in settling the fate of Africa, when we deny that any interest in civilization would warrant Europe in settling the fate of Central and South America. Surely, if we admit that England, France, Germany, Italy, Austria, Russia, Belgium, and Portugal are not enough to manage the affairs of Central Africa, we cannot decently hold that the United States alone are competent to take charge of the American Continent from the Rio Grande to Cape Horn, covered as it is in great part either by pure savagery, or by "rum, Romanism, and rebellion."

We have called attention already to the fact that our representatives have not only joined in providing this vast African territory with a government, but in dedicating it to British free trade, and in forbidding its infant industries to be nourished by a tariff, or its shipping to be built up by bounties or navigation laws. Its present Government is what is called the "International Association," in which Belgium plays the principal part, but which is thus far organized somewhat like a mercantile corporation. It is now proposed, however, to convert it into a monarchy for some of the impecunious European princes, and this work must also be done by the Conference which called the new State into existence. Are our representatives to take part in this proceeding also? If not, why not?

There is another consideration arising out of the matter which applies also to the Nicaragua Canal project. Participation in a European Congress for distribution or redistribution of territory in any part of the world always implies willingness to contribute to whatever physical force may be necessary to carry out its decrees. Generally the employment of the necessary force is left to the Power most interested in the result, but sometimes several Powers are called on to contribute something, and most is expected from those whose resources are greatest. In fact, it is an unwritten law of these combinations that poor Powers, which have an empty treasury and a small army and navy, shall take back seats in the deliberations.

This is of course a somewhat humiliating position, but small States, like poor men, have to put up with a good deal of humiliation. It is certainly a position which no American would like to see the United States occupy. Nevertheless, we have got into it on this African business. Nobody can tell what complications may arise out of the scramble for colonies in which the leading Powers of Europe are now engaged, or what effect they may have on the new Congo state. We may yet be called on for the physical assistance in supporting the decisions of the Conference which our participation in it tacitly promises. Can we give it? Certainly not. We have neither army nor navy to take part in transatlantic warfare, were we never so desirous of doing so. Our men-of-war dare not approach the African coast if warned off by either England, France, Germany, or Italy. Time was when ships of war fit to cope with almost anything afloat could be created by taking large merchant vessels, putting portholes in them, arming them with heavy guns, and putting good crews and commanders aboard of them. But that time is gone as completely as the time when men fought battles with bows and arrows. A man-of-war now is one of the most costly, complicated, and specialized works of human ingenuity, and takes twice as long to construct as any European war of this century since Waterloo has lasted.

We again ask, therefore, and hope Congress will find out, what led to Mr. Sanford's appointment, and why Mr. Kasson was allowed to help him, and whether the effect of their appearance at the Conference on our own position with regard to the Isthmus was duly considered when the step was taken.

THE ENGLISH REDISTRIBUTION BILL.

THE English Parliament having adjourned till the 19th of February, the country is left to think over the great change to which it has so suddenly and unexpectedly pledged itself. True it is, that the Redistribution Bill has many discussions to pass through before it can become an act, and that many attempts from different quarters will be made to alter it in committee. The general belief, however, is that it will not be materially changed from its present shape, and in particular that the two chief points which make it important will be preserved—the transference of seats from small boroughs to the large cities and populous counties, and the general establishment of one-membered constituencies. The second of these features excites much uneasiness; but as it is approved by the Tory leaders, no opposition that can be raised to it is likely to prevail against them allied with the Ministry; nor can the Ministry, who have allowed it to be part of the compact which produced the bill, recede from it with honor. It is this union of the chiefs of the two parties that makes probable the passing of a measure which under other circumstances would have run the greatest risks of failure, because the temptation to disaffected Ministerialists to join the Tories on some critical division would have been almost irresistible, and those who think it important that the reallotment of seats should be carried out at the earliest possible moment, find in this a justification of the unprecedented combination of the heads of hostile parties which has produced the scheme.

Assuming, therefore, as nearly everybody in England, whether rightly or wrongly, does assume, that the bill will pass much in its present

shape, the question is, how it will affect the balance of English politics. Will it check or accelerate English progress towards complete democracy? Will it make the ebbs and floods of popular opinion, such as were witnessed in 1874 and 1880, more or less sudden and violent? Will it strengthen or weaken the Crown and the House of Lords?

That these questions are obscure, and will be answered in different ways by different persons, is evident from the fact that both the great parties support the bill, which neither would do did it expect serious evil from it. Nearly all Liberals think it will strengthen the Liberal party, and say so openly. The Tories are less demonstrative, but one must suppose that Lord Salisbury and his colleagues believe it will not damage them, else why should they have consented to it when they might easily have forced a dissolution of Parliament and kept it off for several years? Any one who tries to predict the result of the bill must therefore do so with diffidence, aware that nothing more than a fair conjecture can be made as to a problem depending on many factors, some of them most imperfectly known. What are these factors?

The first and the most obscure is the disposition of the agricultural laborers. The Franchise Bill (now an act) gives them votes, the Redistribution Bill gives them a representation in Parliament proportioned to their numbers. They will be numerous enough, if they act together, to return any member they like in those purely agricultural counties which have hitherto been the stronghold of the Tory party. Wonderfully little is known about them, for they have been hitherto inarticulate, neglected by the classes above, except by the clergyman and his wife, whose benevolent but often officious patronage they do not always appreciate. The most probable opinion is that they will vote with the Squire, the parson, and their employer, the farmer—that is to say, vote Tory. But there are districts where they have formed trade-unions to obtain a rise of wages, where political agitators have obtained a hearing from them, where the bolder spirits are disposed to revolt against the domination of the farmer. To what extent the elements of revolt prevail is quite uncertain. Some years may be needed to let them develop themselves. On the whole, one may conclude that in most counties the laborers will at first follow the lead of the Squire, who has been a sort of local deity to them, but that where the unions are strong, and where the spread of Nonconformity has shaken the hold of the Established Church, independence will begin to show itself, and will in course of time extend further. It would thus appear that the best which the Tories can hope for is to retain for the present their hold on the agricultural district—that is to say, to return a somewhat but not greatly larger number of agricultural Tory members than they do now. We say "not greatly larger," because the population of the agricultural counties is comparatively thin, and the increase to their representation will not therefore be large. The counties, however, are not wholly agricultural. In the mining districts, such as Northumberland and Durham; in the manufacturing districts, such as Lancashire and Yorkshire; in the neighborhood of London and other great cities, there is a population substantially urban and not rural in its character—a population where the influence of farmers and squires counts for little. Hitherto it has been only the richer part of this population that has enjoyed the suffrage, but now the whole of the humbler class will have it, just as in the towns. In the towns this class is mainly Liberal; it will presumably be so in the counties also. Now these urban counties, as one may call them, will command fully one-half of the whole county representation over England and Scotland. They have hitherto given more members to the Tories than to the Liberals; in future they will probably give more to the Liberals than to the Tories. Here, therefore, there seems a prospect of a Liberal gain which can hardly be less than fifteen seats and may be considerably more, and which will equal or outbalance such gain as the most sanguine Tories can look for from the additional seats given to agricultural counties.

There remain the new seats given to the great cities. The seven cities of London, Liverpool, Manchester (with Salford), Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, and Bristol, now return forty members, and will in future return one hundred members. These members will be returned not by the cities as a whole, but by divisions, each being cut up into three, four, five, or more divisions (according to its size), each of which will have one member. The Tory chiefs are understood to have stipulated for this system in the hope that the residential districts, as they are called, the districts inhabited by the wealthier people, such as parts of Marylebone, Westminster, and Chelsea, in London, and some of the suburban parts of Birmingham and Manchester, will return Tory candidates who would have little chance if the city voted for all its members in one large list. This will probably happen, but to no very large extent. The seven cities above mentioned now return thirteen Tory and twenty-seven Liberal members. So far as one can predict, they will in future return about twenty-four Tories and seventy-three Liberals, the odd three being probably Parnellites. Here, therefore, there is a prospect of a further and more serious loss for the Tory party. Their greater security in the residential quarters will be ill compensated by their losses in the poorer districts, where, both in London and in the manufacturing cities, the Radicals have every prospect of obtaining decided majorities in the new divisions. The smaller cities are in general untouched by the bill, though a few of them receive an additional member; but in these cities the Liberals have a considerable majority already. The case therefore stands thus: In the agricultural county divisions the Tories will probably gain something, though how long they may hold that gain is hard to predict. In the manufacturing, mining, and suburban county divisions they will lose something. In the large cities they will lose a good deal. In the smaller cities they are in a minority already. It is true that by the extinction of the small boroughs the Liberals suffer rather more than do the Tories, but the difference is not great, and certainly much less than the Liberal gain which may be expected to follow from the new allotment.

What we have said hitherto refers to England only. Let us now see how the changes in Scotland and Ireland affect the prospects of parties. Scotland receives twelve new seats, of which it is hardly possible that more than three can be won by Tories, so strongly does the current run in favor of Mr. Gladstone in that country; while the extension of the county franchise will take away from them three which they now hold. Here there is a further gain of twelve seats to the Liberals. It is more difficult to forecast the result in Ireland, where the extinction of small boroughs is great, and where the lowering of the franchise, which was previously fixed at a higher point both in boroughs and in counties than in England or Scotland, changes more largely than in those countries the character of the constituencies. But the probabilities are that out of the one hundred and three members which Ireland is to keep, more than seventy will fall to the extreme Nationalists, the remainder being divided, probably nearly equally, between Tories and Liberals. The Liberal loss will be larger here than the Tory loss, but the Liberal loss will mean a gain not to the Tories, but to a third section equally hostile to both the British parties.

It appears, therefore, if the foregoing considerations be well founded, that the general result over the three kingdoms will be to increase the strength of the Government, which already commands a good majority, and to diminish that of the Opposition. In England the Liberals stand to gain something in the counties and more in the cities. In Scotland they must gain from ten to twelve seats. In Ireland they suffer, some fifteen, twenty, or even twenty-five seats passing over from them to the Nationalists; but this loss does not counterbalance their probable English and Scottish gains, and does not enure to the benefit of the Tories. Mr. Gladstone will, therefore, apparently obtain as large a majority of the whole House of Commons as he has now, and a larger one as against the regular Tory Opposition.

Nor is this the only result to be expected. It is generally believed that the Liberal majority will be not only, so far as England and Scotland are concerned, increased in quantity, but altered in quality. That majority has hitherto included a considerable number of members whom it is the fashion to call Whigs, for the sake of implying that they represent the Liberalism rather of forty years ago than of our own time, but who may be more correctly described as moderate Liberals. They call themselves "cautious or conservative Liberals"; their enemies call them "weak-kneed Liberals." They are usually either the scions of some land-holding and titled family, or else rich men whom wealth has made conservative; and they represent either a county or a comparatively small town. The extinction of the small boroughs will hit them pretty hard, and the changes in the counties may also damage them, because such seats as the Tories gain there, will probably be gained at their expense. That they will disappear as individuals is hardly likely, because the landed aristocracy and the possessors of wealth acquired in commerce are both such important classes in England that persons belonging to them are likely to succeed as candidates under any system. But they will in future have to sit for county divisions in which the poorer class will furnish the immense majority of

voters, or for city divisions in which the Radical element is already strong, and will tend to become stronger. Hence, to retain their seats, they will have to alter, if not their principles, at least their professions and attitude, and to become more pronouncedly Liberal than they have heretofore been. Those who refuse to be so modified may have to retire and see their places filled by politicians of a more aggressive type. Moreover, all members will, according to present appearances, be more closely watched by and dependent on their constituents than has hitherto been the case. Now the constituencies are generally more Radical than the members; hence this closer dependence will tend to radicalize all Liberal members, and deepen the line of their politics.

Against this view it is urged that on the system of one-membered divisions a merely local candidate will have greater chances of success than he has now; that such a local candidate will be, in the counties, a landlord, in the cities a large employer of labor; that such persons are usually moderate in their Liberalism, and that therefore, through them, moderate Liberalism will hold its ground. There is some force in this, though how much, only experience can show. But it must be remembered that although such a local candidate may himself be Whiggish rather than Radical in his tendencies, his constituents will, in the towns and in the so-called urban counties, be chiefly Radicals; and their tendencies may well overbear his personal inclinations. On the whole, the most probable conclusion is that the House of Commons will be more Radical than heretofore, more in sympathy with the masses of the people, more disposed to drastic legislation.

Although most Liberals welcome this prospect, and exult over that extinction of the Whigs which they deem near at hand, there are some who discern a bad side to it. In their view the cautious Liberals acted as a useful check on the vehemence of the more advanced men, and formed a sort of link between the Liberal party and the more progressive and moderate wing of the Tory party, preventing party strife from becoming too bitter. They fear that if the Liberal party grows too Radical, moderate men may go over to the Tories; they fear that if it becomes too numerous in the House of Commons, it may break up into sections, or may, by ill-considered violence, provoke a reaction similar to that which followed the Reform Act of 1832. There is ground for these apprehensions, but it is hard to estimate their validity apart from the presence and conduct of individual leaders. If Mr. Gladstone continues at the head of the Ministry after the next general election, he will probably be able to restrain the impetuosity of the extreme section and to keep his whole party together. If he retires, the task will prove a more difficult one to any successor. The advance of popular power does not in England, or perhaps in any country, eliminate the personal element from politics, although it obliges the leader to adapt himself more and more to the wishes and emotions of his followers.

GERMAN OPERA IN NEW YORK.

It is well known that the plan of giving German opera here was seized upon as a last expedient when it was found impossible to organize another Italian company without risking a repetition of last year's disasters. When the first steps had been taken to secure a German company, many expressed their misgivings, and we ourselves gave reasons in October why it was "quite possible that this winter the verdict will seem unfavorable to German opera in New York." The management betrayed its apprehensions by dodging the frank advertisement "German Opera," and calling it "Opera in German" or simply "Grand Opera." The results of the first two weeks sufficed to sweep away these doubts, and "German Opera" may now be printed in the boldest type without fear of frightening anybody.

Eight weeks ago the season opened at the Metropolitan, and we are now able to sum up the results of the first two months. They include 33 performances of 10 different operas. Wagner leads with 13 performances ("Tannhäuser" 7, "Lohengrin" 6); Meyerbeer follows with 7 ("Prophète" 4, "Huguenots" 3); Beethoven and Rossini have 3 each; Mozart, Weber, Auber 2; Verdi 1. That Wagner should have almost double the number of any other composer is not strange, as the same is the case at the leading opera-houses in Germany. Wagner's operas have the great advantage over others of giving satisfaction to all classes of opera-goers. For those who desire a good drama or a feast for the eyes only, they offer more entertainment even than Meyerbeer's, and Wagner's scenic effects have the advantage over Meyerbeer's of being the necessary outcome of the situation, and not dragged on the stage for their own sake; so that, for those who are able to appreciate good music, Wagner's operas offer an abundance of entertainment not remotely approached by those of any other composer. Three other works of his are down for performance this year, "Rienzi," "Flying Dutchman," and "Walküre"; and now that Materna, the greatest living interpreter of these operas, has arrived, a fresh interest will be added to the gala nights at the Metropolitan.

The results achieved so far are important from several points of view, and by far the most important is that they have struck a deadly blow at the star system. The large audiences at the Metropolitan have borne witness to the fact that *good* operas prove attractive, even without the presence of an operatic Jumbo. Several of the singers in Dr. Damrosch's company are indeed famous artists, but they were comparatively unknown in New York when they arrived, and they did not fill the house by the mere magic of their names. But they gave first-class operas with a good ensemble and succeeded. From this, managers may learn a lesson that will enable them in future to make courageous resistance to the exorbitant demands of fashionable *prime donne*. These supercilious singers have been often warned that they were killing the goose that lays the golden eggs; and now, it seems, they have actually done so. No doubt the directors of the Metropolitan would have been glad to engage the services of Mme. Nilsson at $1,000 or $1,500 an evening, but she demanded $2,500, and this absurd demand was very properly refused. Then she organized a concert company and made a provincial tour in England, which ended in a financial deficit. In this case, instead of pocketing her $2,000 a night, she suffered the losses which are commonly borne by those victims of the star system, the managers. Next season the offer of $1,000 an evening will probably be renewed, and should she again refuse, the directors of the Metropolitan would be very foolish if they did not persevere in the policy inaugurated this year. After all, Nilsson's repertory is limited to half a dozen familiar operas, and in some of these—as "Lohengrin"—she is no better than several German singers whose demands are much more modest. Among them are Sucher, Malten, and Lehmann, all of whom are equal to Nilsson, although they have not that operatic nimbus about them which the fetish-loving public has bestowed on Nilsson and Patti.

As for Patti, and all other light soprani, they are of course out of the question, because they could never be heard to advantage in the vast Metropolitan. When the architect planned the dimensions of that house he unconsciously decreed that it must be forever devoted to grand opera—that is, to German opera, for most grand operas are the works of German composers. And it must be admitted that, with such acoustic improvements as have been made, and with the strong voices of German singers and a large orchestra, such as Dr. Damrosch leads, German opera sounds well in the new house. For concert purposes the Metropolitan stage is useless, as was shown at the Wagner concerts. But in the place built for the orchestra, below the level of the parquet, the music sounds well; and it is but fair to the architect to give him credit for this circumstance. The immense proportions of the stage are also of great advantage in giving due emphasis to scenic display, in which the Metropolitan is so immeasurably superior to the Academy under Mr. Mapleson's régime.

Next to the blow struck at the star system, the most important lesson taught by the success of German opera is that American audiences are not so far behind those of European capitals in musical culture as the character of our operatic entertainments heretofore has implied. The antiquated Bellini, for example, who was completely ignored in London, Vienna, and Berlin last year, continued to hold the place of honor in Mr. Mapleson's repertory. And there seemed to be a reason for this preference inasmuch as the Academy was full on Bellini nights, and not full on Meyerbeer, Wagner, and Mozart nights. But the German opera at the Metropolitan has exposed the fallacy implied in this reasoning. It was not Bellini that attracted people to the Academy, but Patti. For on "off-nights" not a soul seemed to care for "Sonnambula." Mr. Mapleson organized a company especially adapted to the style of Bellini; when they attempted Meyerbeer or Wagner they failed; consequently people who had been "sold" once refused to go again, and the result was the notion that Meyerbeer and Wagner did not "draw." How they do draw when they are properly performed by a company specially adapted for their styles, is shown by the Metropolitan statistics we have just given. Even with the assistance of a temporary craze for the joint appearance of Patti and Scalchi, Mr. Mapleson's greatest success

in his season just ended was four performances of "Semiramide"; whereas in the same space of time, at the other house, "Lohengrin" was given six and "Tannhäuser" five times. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on this comparison, in vindication of the musical taste and predilection of New York audiences.

Another straw shows the direction of the wind. The so-called Milan Grand Opera Company was dissolved a fortnight ago with a deficit of $60,000. This company gave performances of old-fashioned operas, with a very fair ensemble, and at the moderate price of $1 50 for the best seats. But they found no hearers, and everybody seems to be at a loss to account for this phenomenon. The explanation is very simple. The lyric operas they gave are "played out," and no one goes to hear them for their own sake, but only to see (rather than hear) a famous "star." But the Milan company had no "star"; hence they found no favor, notwithstanding their low prices.

THE REVISION OF THE FRENCH CONSTITUTION.

PARIS, December 18, 1884.

IT may be said not inappropriately of a constitution, as of Cæsar's wife, that it should be above suspicion. This has not been the case with our new republican Constitution, framed in 1871 and 1872; it has always been denounced by the republicans as the work of the monarchical party, and this year it has been partly revised. The republic has now lived fourteen years, and the republicans might have been contented with this great fact; the defects of the Constitution, if it had any defects, have not been such as to endanger the vitality of the republic—its organic parts—or such as to make the working of parliamentary institutions impossible. It is quite true that the majority at Versailles which framed the present Constitution had no passion for the republican form of government. The republic was accepted as a necessity, and was organized in such a way that it could be altered in the easiest manner possible—that it could even be transformed into a monarchy. This transformation was in the minds of the "Constituants" of Versailles. They said to themselves: We will give to France all the machinery of parliamentary government—two legislative Chambers, a Chamber of Deputies elected by universal suffrage, an Upper Chamber with very definite powers. As for the executive, since it cannot be a king [for the Comte de Chambord had been pronounced impossible], we will call him a president, and we will allow him the power of dissolving the popular Chamber with the consent of the Senate; we will also give him the power to choose his ministers and to form cabinets.

This Constitution was not embodied in a single law—it was made piecemeal, and is to be found in several laws which are called constitutional laws. The result of this has been good and bad at the same time. It has been good in that our present Constitution is not an ideal and theoretical work, but organic, having grown out of the necessities felt first by M. Thiers, afterward by Marshal MacMahon: it has been experimental. But this organic development has had one bad result, which is that in reality there is no such thing as a Constitution, as the word was once understood. If you enter a bookseller's shop and ask for a copy of the French Constitution, the bookseller will tell you that he has none and that there is no such thing. The Constitution cannot be read to the children in the schools, and it is no exaggeration to say that the revision of the Constitution was made before the majority of Frenchmen fairly knew and understood its character.

A constitution ought not to be treated as roughly as an ordinary law; it ought to have something almost sacred in its character. In the absence of a dynasty, of a visible form of authority, of a living incarnation of power, it ought to be regarded as placed above everything, as uniting the past with the present, and as being destined to unite the present with the future. It ought to be guarded against the caprice, the violence, the passions of the multitude. The great men who framed the American Constitution well understood this necessity, and they succeeded in creating in the American people a feeling of respect and of regard for the higher constitutional law which is one of the great conservative forces that maintain the Union. The revision of the American Constitution is no joke; something more than a chance majority in Congress is necessary to alter it. It is not so in France; it was decided at Versailles that if there be a majority even of one vote in each of the two Chambers in favor of a revision, the two Chambers unite themselves at once and form *de facto* a new Constitutional Congress. Great discussions have taken place this year on the way in which the revision is introduced in such a Congress. The Cabinet brought in a programme of revision, and this programme was accepted in both Chambers. But clearly such a programme is not necessary; there is no limitation whatever to the right of revision, and consequently a programme, whatever it may be, can offer no real limitation to the work of the Congress. It is not difficult to imagine circumstances of national emotion or peril, which may lead the two Chambers to form a Congress; a majority of one is enough in the House of Deputies and in the Senate, and by this small majority a Congress may be formed, and then, without taking the sense of the people, without consulting the President, or even against the will of the President, without allowing a Cabinet to trace limits to its powers, the Congress can act in a truly sovereign manner, and completely undo what former Congresses have done. The destiny of France can thus be placed at the mercy of an unscrupulous majority.

The necessity for a revision of the existing Constitution was not felt in the country: there was no agitation in favor of it; the movement was totally artificial. How could the people think of revising what they had hardly had time to know and to understand? The politicians, however, wished for a revision, and their object was twofold. In the first place, they wished to place the form of government beyond question, out of the reach of a Congress. In the second place, they desired to give a more democratic character to the Senate. I will not enter into the details of the controversy which took place on the various articles of the revision, and will only dwell on the main points. The two Chambers, united in Congress, have decided that the form of government ceases to be a matter subject to revision; it has decided that while future Congresses may still be free to change everything, they cannot touch the principle of the Republic—they cannot make an Empire or a Monarchy. How much value can we attach to such a limitation? It is inscribed in an article of the present Constitutional law, but this article can be repealed by a Congress. It is difficult to imagine what could stand in the way of a Congress, determined on a change in the form of government, if ever the people should give its confidence to such a Congress and persist in electing Deputies and Senators in view of such a change. That popular sovereignty cannot abdicate is one of the mottoes of the old republican school; a Congress can do everything except to make a King. These formulas may satisfy the most absolute minds, but their satisfaction is, perforce, of a platonic character. Nations as well as individuals may sometimes find it to their advantage to renounce a certain portion of freedom, in view of some distinct and positive advantage.

I must mention, in the same order of ideas, an article which has been inserted in the Constituant law, and in virtue of which no person belonging to any of the families which have once reigned in France can be elected to the post of President. I said that this prohibition belongs to the same order of ideas as the interdiction to discuss or change the form of government, since it shows in the republican party an exaggerated fear of monarchy; in other respects, it is a contradiction of these ideas. If the sovereignty of the people must be placed above all changes, this sovereignty ought not to be chained, and the nation ought to be allowed to choose any President it likes to have. The ostracism of all the members of royal or imperial families is in reality a limitation of the popular sovereignty.

Little practical importance must be attached to the changes which I have just mentioned: they will have no influence on the wishes, the hopes, the aspirations of parties, or on the government of the country. The same cannot be said of the important change which concerns the Senate. Congress has erased from the Constitutional law all the articles which concerned the election of the Senate, and has decided that there must be a special law on this question, having the same character as any other law, and therefore alterable by the two Chambers, without the necessity of a Constitutional Congress. This seemed logical enough, as there exists such a law for the election of the House of Deputies. Let us now examine the new law on the Senate, which was the corollary of the change made in the Constitution.

The Constituants of Versailles gave a double origin to the Senators: seventy-five of them were elected by the Constituant Assembly for life, and it was decided that when one of these "inamovibles" died, another one should be elected in his place by the Senate itself. The great majority of the Senators, those who were not irremovable, were to be elected not by universal suffrage, but in each department by an electoral college composed of the councillors-general (the *Conseil-Général* is the board which controls the finances, roads, prisons, asylums of the department) and of the representatives of the *communes* or townships. Each commune was to have one delegate or senatorial elector, whatever its population. It was on account of this origin that Gambetta once called the Senate the "Great Council of the Communes." This system of representation was quite novel. In the absence of an hereditary aristocracy, in a centralized country in which there is no federation of States, it will always be difficult to constitute a High Chamber. The privilege given to each township, even to the smallest, in the nomination of the Senators was intended to counteract the brute force of numbers, which alone is felt in the election of the Deputies. It was thought that by increasing the political power of the villages, a conservative force would be created, and it must be admitted, in fact, that the system has worked well, and that the Senators chosen according to the system which I have just described are a superior class of men, more enlightened, more independent. They have ties with the departments, they represent landed, industrial, or commercial wealth and interests. As a rule, they have not their fortunes to make, and they don't take out letters of marque on the fortune of the country. The Deputies profess to be the true representatives of the people; but they seem to represent especially the lowest instincts of the population. Some of them have been

brought before the courts of justice, some have been obliged to leave France in order to escape prison; we have heard of few such scandals in connection with the members of the Senate.

The new electoral law which will now be applied to the Senate does away with the "inamovibles," who are replaced by Senators elected not for life, but only for nine years. The institution of Senators for life has been condemned as too aristocratic; and if the Chamber of Deputies had had its will completely, there would have been no Senators elected by the Senate itself for nine years. It has been agreed, also, that the townships shall have a sort of proportional representation in the College of Senatorial Electors. The arithmetic law of proportion has, however, not been admitted: the townships and cities will have delegates in unequal numbers, but these numbers will always be small. It is needless to give figures here; the principle of the first law was the predominance of the rural element; the new law does not sacrifice the rural element, but it takes something from its strength and adds it to the strength of the larger cities.

On the whole, the work of revision has been done in what is commonly called a democratic spirit. The changes which have been made are some futile and nominal, the others tend to diminish the conservative element in the Senate. But the new Electoral Colleges will probably not be as different from the old as the authors of this revision desired.

THE RIVIERA FOR WINTER LIVING.

ALASSIO, November 29.

IT is now about fifty years since the residence of Lord Brougham at Cannes directed the attention of English people to the charms and advantages of that region as a winter health resort. Nice, Cannes, Hyères were almost the only places well known to the limited public of the days before express trains. Then, some twenty years ago, appeared the clever book of Doctor Bennett, 'Winter and Spring on the Shores of the Mediterranean.' It smacked strongly of the advertisement, but it answered its purpose. Mentone rose rapidly into fame and favor. Little by little it was discovered that the entire Riviera di Genova, both east and west, was full of nooks as sheltered as the famous East Bay of Mentone, and the winter stations soon included San Remo, Bordighera, Alassio, Arenzano, Pegli, Nervi, Rapallo, Santa Margherita. The last addition is Ospedaletti, where a French company has lately built a casino, a grand hotel, and a little village of villas in a situation unequalled perhaps for real invalids, but with little to recommend it to the two principal classes among winter visitors—those who find themselves fairly well as long as they are here, and those who come merely in search of pleasure. Both of these classes, living in the open air, would prefer to Ospedaletti places where there is a greater variety of scenery and occupation.

It may be that to-day the physicians who believe that nothing cures like the remedy in vogue have ceased to talk about the Riviera as much as they did a few years ago. In the course of time the Riviera has abdicated its post as panacea and has taken the surer position of standard remedy. Seconded by prudence and good sense on the part of the patient, it still works its miracles, and it has established as an undisputed fact that for many invalids its climate has no equal in Europe. It is mild and dry, with little rain and much sunshine. Fogs are unknown, snow and frost make but rare appearances—one or two in the course of two or three years, and then for scarcely long enough time to be noted. The temperature is such that the gardens are never without flowers. We begin December with all sorts of roses, passion flowers, geraniums, salvias, heliotropes, and a hundred plants that, in the north, are preserved only under glass. The almond trees blossom in January, in February comes the exquisite bloom of a southern spring. Add to the considerations of climate those of landscape and civilization—that the coast from Marseilles to Spezia offers a succession of beauties such as can nowhere be surpassed, and that every comfort and luxury of the educated man is of easy access from any point along the whole line—it is evident that the fashion among physicians may send patients to high Alpine valleys or to lone islands, but that the Riviera of Genoa will never lack for winter visitors.

Little by little, however, this hibernation has taken on a character that is worth noting, as it has an increasing effect on society in England, Paris, and elsewhere. The dismal table d'hôte, lined chiefly with the gentler sex in some of its sterner types—people who all day long have dotted the hill slopes, hunting out the rare flowers or caricaturing nature in water-colors in their albums; the occasional travelling carriage, putting four days between Nice and Genoa, with three or four horses, valet and maid in the rumble, and the faces inside that one seeks to read and classify in the glimpse one has in passing—these still represent the winter movement to large numbers of travellers, at least in the quieter places. But even this sort of movement has assumed enormous proportions. Mentone has about fifty hotels and pensions; Nice and Cannes an even larger number. On this side of the Pont Saint Louis, San Remo has already more inns than, for instance, Interlaken; Bordighera about as many as Chamounix. The place from which we write begins to show the air and the conveniences of a resort for pleasure-seekers.

Now, it has come to pass of late that most of these hotels are but echoing solitudes during a great part of the winter. The few guests who occupy the space intended for five times their number are the serious visitors, obliged by their state of health to be there, and kept in low spirits by the vast vacant spaces around them. Suddenly a change takes place. For a time the humblest pension puts on a lively aspect, and the favorite houses have to refuse applications for rooms. The season may last two months, more or less, according to the severity or clemency of the winter elsewhere.

This state of things is new, but seems to grow in importance, and is a part of the change hinted at just now. A few years ago, when the visitors to places other than Nice and Cannes were chiefly seekers after health, the tendency was naturally to remain quietly for the winter in whatever spot suited their exigencies as to shelter, medical aid, economy, occupation, etc. Nowadays the majority of visitors are mere pleasure-seekers: they have their winter round as their summer round. In winter they visit the Riviera, Rome, Naples, just as in summer they visit Scarboro', or Trouville, or Switzerland. They have their fixed times for Florence, for Venice, for the Italian lakes, the upper Engadine. Fashion, the new hotels, the Marseilles, Ventimiglia and Genoa Railway have brought the Riviera into the round of what I may call the tramps of pleasure. When Ruffini wrote 'Doctor Antonio,' an Englishman was an object of curious interest at San Remo; now there is no spot on the shore between Cannes and Spezia where he is not, during the winter at least, an every-day sight, and, during a certain period and in certain places, he becomes the dominant feature of the street life. He is not equally prominent in all the resorts. Cannes, Nice, Monte Carlo are thoroughly cosmopolitan and polyglot. San Remo, Pegli, and Nervi are above all things German. It is at Mentone, Bordighera, Alassio, Santa Margherita, Spezia that the English type prevails.

It is, however, something aside from the hotel life which is the great new feature of the Riviera winter. The hotels may be full or empty—the foreigners are here just the same. At all the places I have named, perhaps also at others, there have sprung up within a few years a great number of villas, in many cases the property of the families inhabiting them during the winter. In places like Cannes, Nice, Monte Carlo, Mentone the increase in the number of villas is something wonderful. At Nice, for example, a city of 60,000 inhabitants, the winter quarter is by far the larger half of the city. Its occupants, symbolized by swallows on the olive-wood knick-knacks sold at these places, come generally about the beginning of winter and remain from four to six months. The villas, always a more certain source of income to a town than its hotels, have become in these later years also a richer one. The most marked effect is perhaps that on Anglo-Saxon life. Many of the villas are owned by people who in England are accustomed to exercise a large hospitality, and who now leave their great country-houses shut up and desolate. We have heard the fear expressed more than once that an important feature of English life was in a way of diminution that threatened extinction. Without sharing the fear, we must admit that the number of English people living out of England for a large part of the year is rapidly increasing. Among these are many Parliamentary and society leaders, who seek repose after the fatigues they have undergone, or strength for those to be borne in the next season. The greater part are simply well-to-do people, who take to themselves a new comfort. Here in this place, during our first winter, four years ago, there were three or four resident English families. There are not less than ten this year, either owning their villas or holding them upon a lease of several years. There is a pretty English church and rectory, and, in addition, there are other houses let for the winter only. Many of the best building sites on the slopes of the hills and in the sheltered nooks are in the possession of Englishmen, who hold them for sale. And yet Alassio is still one of the less-known, least-visited resorts. "Ex pede Herculem."

Now the English winter exodus is not at all the same thing as the American fashion of hibernating in Florida or Southern California. "Cælum non animum mutant" who go from New York to Tallahassee. They change place, but remain at home, hearing always the same tongue, the same voices, the same ideas, or at least the tongue and ideas of the same family. The Englishman strives, it is true, to carry England with him: he lives as nearly as possible as he used to do at home, makes but few acquaintances among the "natives," and those of the most superficial character, and knows and cares but little about the ways and thoughts of his French or Italian neighbors. Yet his defences are not so perfect that the outside world does not force itself daily and hourly upon his attention. He will, very likely, misunderstand what he sees, but nevertheless the old chain of his notions is broken in upon, and the result of several years of such impressions of Continental life is that the Englishman, for better or for worse, is become another man. Cosmopolitanism may not be an unmixed good, but then no more are railways. It may still be claimed for both that they are goods peculiarly of our time. Provincialism is to-day the reproach, even patriotism has been held to be a virtue of the past—universality is the demand of the present, and, to judge from appearances, will be yet more so of the future The great assemblage that is seen every winter along this coast of English, French, Germans,

Russians, Americans is, no doubt, in the first place the result of increased facilities of travel and of increased wealth, and what is sought is simply a bettering of the conditions of life; but with this is found, unsought, something of the blessing of cosmopolitanism. This is a form of brotherhood. It will not do to claim too much for it: brothers quarrel, and the annexing mood of countries like England and Prussia is not to be curbed by what would be called sentimental considerations. But aside from seasons of tension, the relations of the peoples become pleasanter and more profitable the more they see of each other, and everywhere the number of those whom it is agreeable to meet increases. The world becomes better worth living in as the friction of intercourse is lessened.

There is room for a word to those who think of visiting the Riviera for the first time, either for the purposes of health or pleasure. Not for those who have but a single winter to spend: their physician tells them that they must choose a room to the south, and, if they are really ill, that they must go indoors before sunset. For the rest, they fare as travellers anywhere. But to those who have leisure and wish to find a spot where they can spend several winters agreeably, we would present the claims of the smaller, the less-visited places. Everybody knows what Cannes and Nice and San Remo are, but few know the real advantages of such a place as that from which we write. For the lover of nature these need no statement; for the lover of society they may be summed up, aside from economical considerations, in the facility with which connections are made among Italians. Granted a starting point and some familiarity with the Italian language, nowhere in the world is it easier to make acquaintances, nowhere are strangers received with more friendliness. For as little as one lends one's self to surrounding influences, one is in a short time as much part and parcel of the daily life of these people as those who are born among them. It is hard to understand the judgment of many writers on Italy. Even some who, as novelists, make a trade of knowing human nature, have given us volumes to show that Italian human nature must forever remain an undecipherable puzzle to them. Mr. Henry James, in a recent book, quotes some of these close observers as saying that Italians at bottom despise strangers and regard them as barbarians. Mr. James is himself too good a citizen of the world to accept such a judgment, and his clearer eyes see that Italians have "less national pride than any other people in Europe." Less or more, their inmost feelings do not hinder a warm welcome of the foreigner. He is received in the clubs, in all companies; it is not the fault of the Italians if he does not feel himself speedily at home.

For ourselves, we would counsel anybody with time and taste for such experiments to rent or buy a house at some little-frequented place of the Italian Riviera. If he wishes thoroughly to enjoy the winter, he should choose a site at the foot of a hill that guarantees shelter from north and east winds; the distance of a mile often separates a semi-tropical from a semi-intemperate climate. Let him arrange his life according to his liking; but if his liking include mankind, let him make speedy acquaintance with the little world about him, official, professional, gentle, and simple. He will find plenty of food for criticism: there are even serious defects in the character of these charming people, and, as a rule, they do not remain long hidden; but we are very much mistaken if he does not conclude that, after all and taking all in all, there are few places where life may be better enjoyed than here. S. K.

THE OLD WATER-COLOR SOCIETY'S EXHIBITION.

LONDON, December 19.

THE winter exhibitions of the old water-color society (now officially known as the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colors) are generally composed mainly of studies and sketches, and contain few works which aspire to be historical, or even *genre*. The general impression, on looking over the exhibition, is one of feebleness of color and intention—the dilution of general effect by the white mounts perhaps going for something. One does not look for much finished work with real pictorial intention, and would be disappointed if he did. The only figure pictures of any value, even as drawing, are Henshall's "Is it true?" Sir John Gilbert's "Retreat," and Mrs. Allingham's little studies of figure and landscape combined. Sir John shows, of course, a certain power and knowledge in design, a complete understanding, up to a certain point, of his material; and the "Retreat" is a pell-mell of horsemen in wild flight, full of movement, dash, and executive energy, and up to his standard of general quality. But his second picture, "The Prince and Princess of Wales going to her Majesty's Drawing-room," is, as might be expected from a subject with which no true artist could have any sympathy, a doleful failure, which, for the sake of the artist's reputation, we hope her Majesty may hang in her most private room. It is heavy and spiritless, the horses black and stiff, the Princess a mass of impossible and unluminous white, and the crowd uninterested and uninteresting, with a flimsy wash of a background.

Mr. Henshall's picture deserves the honors of the figure department. A little girl in gray, on a tall stool, her hands clasped round her knees, holds on her lap a book. The tone of the picture is subdued and tender, and the face comes out of the ensemble bright and expressive. It is full of power, knowledge, and sentiment, and is a masterly contrast to the general figure-work. Mrs. Allingham's pictures are in another way luminous points on the walls—almost points, in fact, as their extremely small size makes them notable. The chief among them is a delightful study of an old English cottage, from the door of which an old lady is watching a little boy riding a broom down a path bordered with marigolds, sweet-williams, and other flowers, while rows of cabbages fill up the foreground. An old cottager in white blouse is working among the cabbages. Since Fred Walker died I have never seen a garden so daintily painted on so diminutive a scale. "The Apple-tree Seat" is another charming study of children, who are reading a story book on a bench under an apple tree in full blossom. There is in the bloom and the plants around just the true measure of detail—not so much as to interfere with the figures, and enough for characterization—and the children are delightfully put in—so like children, and country children at that; not like the dressed dolls of Kate Greenaway's, as the *Nation* has characterized them, and which are, with their numerous imitations, becoming a nuisance in our pictorial world, but true and well understood, without affectation or pose. "At Sandhills" is an admirable study of gorse, that most delightful of all English shrubs, so fascinating a problem to the painter. The other drawings by Mrs. Allingham are not so good—a larger portrait of a child being especially behind those I have noticed.

Three Oriental figure studies of the veteran and always earnest Carl Haag must not be included among the weak things, though they are apparently studies for larger pictures; nor should Frederic Shields's drawing of "Abel"—academic, somewhat, but full of expression. It is one of a series of designs for Eaton Hall, Chester. Poynter sends two studies of heads in chalk, slight and wanting in style for him. Stacy Marks has two humorous pictures, like enlarged Christmas cards; very slight but effective sketches for decorations. The most elaborate is "An Argument," in which a man seated with a friend at a table where they have been drinking, argues with his friend, book in hand, while the friend fills his pipe; and it tells its story capitally, as Marks's pictures do for the most part. Another is "A Justice," in which his worship is discoursing with bumpkins in a charming landscape.

In landscape the little drawings by G. P. Boyce are, like Mrs. Allingham's, gems of style and dignity so perfect in form and color down to the least detail that they might serve as backgrounds for religious pictures. Davidson has a capital chalk drawing, on gray paper, of sheep in a field by moonlight, the sea showing beyond a cliff in full sight; and Holman Hunt a hard and unsympathetic drawing of the Archipelago, with a light sea and a blue-black mass of rock. Henry Wallis sends two admirable drawings, "The Gateway of the Palace of Don Pedro the Cruel, at Toledo," with an exquisite rendering of architectural detail and figures coming through the gateway, rich and harmonious in bright green and red attire; and "The Bishop's Tomb," another Spanish study, the Bishop's reclining effigy surmounted by a beautiful figure bas-relief, with some ladies in black kneeling before the tomb. Poynter has some admirable studies of autumn foliage. Charles Gregory contributes some landscapes with figures, ambitious, but sadly wanting in the higher qualities of art, heavy in color, lacking in ensemble. The best is "Marketing in Dinan." Miss Clara Montalba has a number of the meretricious dashes at Venice which are so well known, and are always the same—clever and shallow. Birket Foster goes on with his minute and tiny landscape, and H. P. Riviere sends a series of conventionally faithful views about Rome. There are, besides, a number of heavy and opaque attempts at strength and depth of color which in the main more resemble pastel than water color, of which H. R. H. Princess Louise furnishes one which has been noticed because it is hers rather than from any real artistic merit.

I find I have omitted to notice a drawing by Du Maurier, "A Last Look at Whitby," a drawing in color which much disappointed me by its want of the qualities of the colorist. It gives a girl in blue dress spotted with white, coming towards one along a paved esplanade. The gray stones are monotonous and papery; a young man, following the lady at a distance, is awkward, stiff, and out of perspective relation. The general color of furled sails, etc., is not bad, but unattractive. It is a clever work by a clever man who has worked so long in black and white as to lose perception of gradation when rendering drawing into color.

I have been over the criticisms of the daily papers which I noticed last summer while writing of Morris's criticisms, and it is worth while to see how loyalty struggles with duty to all—if, indeed, the critics had any perception of the latter. The *Telegraph* says of the chief of the contributions of H. R. H., "a firmly handled drawing, full of good color, and marked by gradations which argue a largely augmented mastery of technique." The *Times*, more dexterous and more doubtful, says simply, "in which it is difficult to detect the hand of the amateur." The *Standard* shirks the question; and it is difficult to imagine any one fit to be a critic who could conscientiously praise H. R. H.'s drawing. To take a picture as a text of the critic's abilities, that of Mr. Henshall, alluded to above—one which really requires some study of art and experience in seeing pictures to criticise

properly—it is interesting to compare what these teachers of the public find to say about it. The *Times's* critic did not see it; the *Telegraph*, vulgar in art as in everything else, says flippantly, that it "somewhat misses the intention. A staring, wistful wonder, such as the artist no doubt had in mind, is scarcely the expression conveyed by the too conscious and clever face of the pretty young lady." Yet if there is one picture distinguished above the rest by an earnest and truly artistic purpose, it is this. The *Standard*, which is getting to be (if not already) the most just and earnest of our mostly flippant daily news-spreaders, is far more thoughtful, and says:

"Its real success is to be found in the audacious dexterity of the treatment of modern attire—in a perception of the rhythm of line which actual dress reveals if the artist does but know where to look for it. The drawing will be a good deal objected to. It will be called trivial by those for whom seriousness exists only in unrealities, and vulgar by those to whom vigor and freshness is always a little offensive. But it is sterling work."

This is not profound criticism, and shows no knowledge of artistic ways of thought; but it is, from a certain not-too-high standpoint, honest and good criticism. I wish there were more even of that for our newspaper-ridden public among its daily teachers. The *Pall Mall Gazette* has no critique—it has the future navy of England on its hands, and is much more profitably em ployed than in criticising art. I don't speak of the weeklies—they all give vapid generalities, in which we find (as in most of the dailies) the flavor of the personal sympathies and antipathies of artist and critic. The *Portfolio*, whose editor is by far our ablest critic, does not notice the exhibitions; and from the general periodical literature what is there to hope?

Correspondence.

LAKE SUPERIOR ORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation*, No. 1017, December 25th, in an article headed "Tariff Reflections," commits itself to a statement so seriously inaccurate that wrong-headed protectionists may charge the author with something like prevarication.

It is stated on page 541 that the Lake Superior mines at present are producing no iron ore at all. Certainly none is shipped by water at present, and the rail shipments, at all times, to the total shipments are quite insignificant. Marine underwriters will not take risks on Lake shipments or shipping after November 30 until an arbitrary date in the spring; hence Lake Superior iron ore is not forwarded during the winter months.

During the year 1884 Lake Superior mines shipped about twenty-four hundred thousand tons of iron ore; and all the important companies at present are preparing their mines and stocking their ore, as usual at this time of the year, for the coming season. The companies will doubtless mine and market in 1885 far less than their maximum output, but their product will nevertheless be considerable.—Respectfully yours, James Rood, Jr.

Chicago, December 30, 1884.

[The words to which Mr. Rood calls attention were not intended to be taken with exact literalness, nor did the argument require literalness. We do not know how far Cuban ore might penetrate inland in competition with that of Lake Superior, if the former were no longer burdened with duties, but it is impossible to suppose that it could cross the Alleghany Mountains, unless it were needed to mix with our own ores for special uses. In the latter case the foreign ore would be a benefit, rather than a detriment, to the Lake Superior mining interests.—Ed. Nation.]

ARMY COMMISSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you oblige an old reader by giving your opinion on the following?

Non-commissioned officers of the army who have been recommended, and have passed according to the Act of Congress as set forth in Army Regulations, are now only allowed the commissions they are entitled to at the option of a board which convenes at Fort Monroe. This happened last year, and again this. This year one of these young men was rejected by the second board. Now, I am informed on excellent authority that, according to the existing law, such a thing as a second board is not contemplated, and that nothing but a court-martial can deprive a man of the commission which he gains by being recommended by a Department Commander and a board of officers of high rank. When we consider that there are generally about 400 applicants for the civil appointments, it is not hard to see why the non-commissioned officers are "double-banked."

Is there not room for a little "Cleveland and reform" here? At present we have the edifying spectacle of the President recommending a man for appointment as second lieutenant who had to leave West Point on account of incapacity, while a non-commissioned officer, who has fulfilled the requirements of the law to obtain his shoulder-straps, is doing duty in the ranks somewhere out on the Plains. If this state of affairs is allowed to obtain, justice to the non-commissioned officers of the army is a mere fiction. The army is certainly an important branch of the Government, and it is to be hoped that the new President will give it a good share of his attention. Old Point Comfort.

December 20, 1884.

A NAPOLEONIC ENGRAVING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have lately observed an engraving from one of the best-known of the Napoleonic series of paintings by Meissonier. It represents the Emperor in winter, mounted at the head of his staff on the march, he and they occupying the centre and left of the picture. On the right and in the rear is a column of infantry advancing in a direction parallel with the beaten track along which the horsemen are proceeding. This engraving is entitled "1814."

I always supposed that this picture represented the retreat from Russia in the fall and early winter of 1812, and that the picture usually known as "1814" was the one representing Napoleon alone on horseback, he occupying the entire centre of the picture, the only other figures therein being one or two horsemen on the right and in the rear, apparently ascending the knoll on which the Emperor stands at rest.

If I am right, the engraving just above mentioned is misnamed. Will some artist familiar with the pictures tell me whether I am right or wrong?—Very respectfully yours,

An Inquirer.

[The pictures alluded to are both of 1814. The snow picture represents a phase of the French campaign of 1814, but is often erroneously attributed to the Russian campaign.—Ed. Nation.]

THE "SOLID" SOUTH AND THE NEGRO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter in No. 1015 of the *Nation*, entitled "An Explanation of the 'Solid' South of To-day," by "A Political Student," was just the kind of objective and fair-minded article that is needed at present, and was doubtless appreciated as such by Southerners. But has he not made too hasty a generalization in saying that the "almost unanimous testimony of Southern Democrats" is, that the negroes never vote the Democratic ticket in *national* elections? A few facts that have come under my observation may be worthy of mention, as tending to show that at least a not altogether contemptible fraction of the negroes have cast their votes for Democratic candidates for the Presidency.

During the campaign of 1876 I was on a visit to my grandfather in Hinds County, Miss. In many of the towns and villages—possibly in all of them—the Democrats had formed regular uniformed companies, whose business it was to bang cannon, hold torchlight processions, and the like. My uncle was President of the company at the small place of Dry Grove, and a negro was Vice-President. There were also a number of other negroes in the company, who wore the uniform, marched in the processions, and voted for Tilden. I am unable to give any figures, but if there were as many Democratic negroes in other parts of the State as in the neighborhood of Dry Grove, they undoubtedly made up a not insignificant total. Numerous barbecues were held, at which Democratic negroes as well as whites delivered speeches, and at which whites and blacks of both parties were at liberty to partake of the plentiful and well-cooked viands. I am unable to say anything now as to the cogency of the dusky Democratic orators in favor of Tilden; for the only thing I can recollect of their speeches was that one of them, who appeared to be a great admirer of Calhoun, informed the audience that he was from South Carolina and had "knowed ole John C."

Whatever may have been the case in former years, there was, in 1876 at least, no bull-dozing in that part of Mississippi; or, if there was, I have totally forgotten it. If the white men carried pistols—as is too often the case with Southern and Western men—they kept them in their pockets. Numbers of the negroes stayed away from the polls; some of them doubtless from fear of violence, others, as "A Political Student" remarks with truth, because they had found out that it was better for them to "make right smart o' cotton" than to listen to the lies of the "scalawags" and "carpet-baggers." As a frequent instance of these lies, let me mention that a friend of mine in North Carolina wrote me, shortly before the late election, that he heard the Republican candidate for Governor of that State tell the negroes, in a political speech, that if Cleveland were elected they would be practically put back into slavery.

In 1872 I was in the village of Middleburg, Loudoun Co., Va., and I remember hearing George Wilcox, one of the most intelligent negroes in the place, haranguing the men of his race in favor of Horace Greeley.

Undoubtedly a very large majority of the negroes always vote the Republican ticket; but I think that the few above-mentioned facts have a tendency to prove that the number of negroes who vote with the Democrats is sufficiently large, when combined with the probably still greater number who are apathetic and abstain from voting altogether, to account for Democratic victories in some of the "black belts." At all events, the wild wail of the Tattooed Knight about the shot-gun policy of the Solid South is too comic at this late date to be even worthy of contempt.

The eyes of thousands of well-meaning but prejudiced people are going to be opened very wide after Cleveland has been in office for a month or two, and Solid Southism and Bloody Shirtism will soon be things of the past. The election of Lincoln was the signal for the outburst of the "irrepressible conflict" into open war; Cleveland's election is the signal that the war is over at last.—Respectfully, R. H. DABNEY.

BERLIN, December 24, 1884.

THE DOG IN GREEK AND PHŒNICIAN RELIGION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of to-day an account is given of Reinach's attempt to support Halévy's interpretation of *kelabim* in the Citium inscription, as "dogs." Whatever may be the view of Semitic scholars in the case, it raises the interesting question of the light in which the dog was regarded by Phœnicians and Greeks. Reinach wishes to prove the meaning "dogs" to be possible and natural, by showing that the dog was not merely employed as a guard, but was held sacred at the temple of Æsculapius in Epidaurus, and inclines to accept the view that Æsculapius was by origin Phœnician. It is true, he says, that the temple to which the Citium inscription relates was that of Astarte, but the cult of this goddess may have been associated with that of Eshmun, the Phœnician Æsculapius (as Serapis with Isis). Apart from conjecture, our knowledge of the Phœnician religion is desperately meagre, and the rôle played by the dog is yet to be known. On the general principle that the Phœnicians borrowed without stint from Egypt, we may suppose that the dog-headed deity was not left without his share of honor, and the dogs that were so carefully embalmed in the Cynopolite Nome may have been held sacred in Phœnicia. Certain it is that Reinach has missed some strong evidence in support of this theory with which he starts out, a deficiency of some importance in a theory that needs all the props it can gather.

Ælian tells us (H. N. xi. 3) that at Ætna in Sicily there was a highly honored temple of Hephæstus, containing an unquenched and sleepless fire, and about the temple and grove were "sacred dogs" that welcomed those who entered the precinct with pious hearts; but they would bite and rend any one that came with polluted hands, or from wicked associates. Again he relates (H. N. xi. 20) that in the city of Adranus in Sicily there was a temple of the deity Adranus of great fame, to which "sacred dogs" were attached, not less than a thousand in number. They acted as servitors and attendants of the god, and surpassed in beauty and size the famous Molossian breed. During the day they welcomed all that entered the temple and grove, whether natives or strangers; at night they played the part of the good policeman. Apparently, the excellent cheer that was furnished at the temple was accustomed to produce its effect upon the visitants; for Ælian says that such as were quite intoxicated and could only stagger on their way, the dogs conducted to their homes very tenderly and safely, but such as were violent and noisy, they jumped upon and tore their clothing, till they were brought to their senses; while thieves and pickpockets were torn to pieces by them without mercy.

The history of Sicily shows that we may naturally look for strong Phœnician influence in its early cults, and the Hephæstus of Ætna has been connected, on the one hand, with the Hephæstus of Lemnos, the Cabiri, and the Phœnician Kabir; on the other, with the Creto-Phœnician Talus, with his dog attendant, both of which are figured together on the coins of Phæstus in Crete. Creuzer sees in this Hephæstus one of the phases of the sun-god at the height of summer, when the celestial dog is raging. Adranus is believed by some to have the same origin, and the legends bring him into close connection with Hephæstus. On the coins of the Mamertini he is accompanied by his symbol, the dog.

It is a commonplace in mythology that the dog was sacred to Hecate and sacrificed to her. This deity was one of the phases of the tri-form Diana, as the Cretan Dictynna was another. In his life of Apollonius of Tyana, who pretended to be a sort of second Æsculapius, Philostratus gives an account of a temple of Dictynna in Crete, which maintained numerous dogs as fierce as bears, that recognized Apollonius and welcomed him, though he came at an unseasonable hour, when the temple servants thought him a thief. Here, as at the Ætnean temple, the dogs are accredited with an insight into the character of the visitants, which might have been regarded by the Greeks as partaking of the divine, the servitor being *en rapport* with the god, as when the dog of Epidaurus acts as the healing agent of the deity. Philostratus, indeed, says that the dogs of the temple of Dictynna were kept to guard its treasures; but their connection with the huntress goddess may well have been regarded in another light in earlier days, as we find Hecate with a dog's head, and Isis and Bubas is in Egypt accompanied by their faithful hounds. Between the Egyptian Isis and the Cretan Dictynna, the Cypriote Astarte may be regarded as a connecting link. In the light of this investigation, the question is pertinent whether the old Hebrew interpreters of II. Kings, xvii. 31, may not have been right when they assigned the figure of a dog to Nibhaz, the idol of the Avites, connecting the word with the root "to bark," as *Anubis latrator*.

A. C. MERRIAM.

NEW YORK, December 29, 1884.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. hope to publish early in the present month the biography of George Eliot by her husband, Mr. J. W. Cross.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish Miss Hale's biography of the late Thomas G. Appleton.

Macmillan & Co. announce for immediate publication, in two styles, Mr. P. G. Hamerton's 'Landscape.'

The Orange Judd Co. have in press 'A Dictionary of English Names of Plants,' in two parts, English-Latin and Latin-English.

The American News Company have disposed of the *American Bookseller* to Mr. N. R. Monachesi, who will continue to conduct it on its old lines.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will have for sale in this market a limited edition of 'The Letters and Journals of Mrs. Calderwood of Polton, from England, Holland, and the Low Countries in 1756,' edited by Lieut.-Col. Alexander Fergurson.

Maverick's Description of New England has been reprinted from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* by the Committee on English Research of the Society whose organ the *Register* is.

The very pretty little series of American Authors published in shilling volumes by Mr. David Douglas, of Edinburgh, now includes nearly all of the prose writings of Doctor Holmes, of Mr. W. D. Howells, and of Mr. John Burroughs, as well as one or more books by Mr. F. R. Stockton, Mr. G. W. Cable, Mr. J. C. Harris, Mr. G. W. Curtis, Mr. G. P. Lathrop, and Miss Blanche Howard. Mr. Douglas is now about to add 'In Partnership,' by Messrs Brander Matthews and H. C. Bunner, and all of the prose writings of Mr. T. B. Aldrich, which the author is to revise carefully for this edition. Certain stories and papers of Mr. Aldrich's will be included which have not yet been collected on this side of the Atlantic.

An Index to the Proceedings and Transactions of the Philological Society (England), for 1842-1879, has been issued, compiled by S. J. Herrtage and verified by F. T. Elworthy, with the help of his wife and daughters—a welcome work to all students of language. With it come also the articles of association in reference to the Society's Dictionary, and lists of members (Trübner & Co.).

That the American edition of Caedmon, by Professor Hunt, of Princeton, has come to a second edition within a year is a matter of some interest to the students of Anglo-Saxon and Early English. The author has carefully revised it.

Bulletin No. 18 of the Spelling Reform Association (New York, 324 West Sixtieth Street) is dated November, 1884, and embodies the proceedings of the Association at Hanover, N. H., in July, with some other news and information. Publishers are notified that the services of experienced proof-readers will be placed gratuitously at their disposal, for the purpose of printing books "in any degree of amended or fonetic spelling"; their only expense being for three new types. Mention is made of the English and German reform associations, and international agreement has so far been attained that the common sound represented by one of the three types in question has the same type in English and in German.

A spelling reformer, if we may credit the story, was the editor of the Cleveland *Advertiser*, who, on founding his paper in 1830, discovered that the current spelling (Cleaveland) was too long for his headline, and so set the fashion of dropping the needless *a*. The city was named after Moses Cleveland, a kinsman of the President-elect. A sketch of the life of this pioneer, with a portrait, is given in the *Magazine of Western History* for January. In the February number will be begun a series of "Notes and Criticisms on Unsettled Points in Early Western History," edited by Oscar W. Collet, of St. Louis, with the aid of Dr. J. G. Shea and, it is hoped, Francis Parkman and others.

The December number of Mr. W. E. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* deals with Samuel Johnson, apropos of the 100th anniversary of his death; and of the Rise of the French Drama, apropos of the 200th anniversary of the death of Corneille. An index to vol. iv. accompanies this issue, which closes also, we regret to say, the series. Mr. Foster's modest valedictory, reviewing the origin and growth of the conditions out of which his scheme was developed, states that no successor has come forward to relieve him of the burden, and the enterprise must accordingly come to an end in its present shape. Something like these *Lists*, on a coöperative plan, will hereafter be published in the *Literary News*, and sent as a supplement to the subscribers of the *Library Journal*.

The *Florida Annual* for 1885 (New York, 140 Nassau Street) is to a considerable extent identical with last year's issue, but, as the editor assures us, revision has been made to date, and this is true also of the map, which to many people will be worth the price of the pamphlet. Mr. Munroe takes a glowing view of the material prospects of the State, but as regards the proposed Florida Ship Canal he is evidently a pessimist.

Appalachia for December makes a good beginning of vol. iv., and reminds us more forcibly than ever that this is the geographical periodical *par excellence* of the country. Two papers will prove specially interesting—that on the ascent of the volcano Makushin, on Unalaska, by Prof. Geo. Davidson; and that describing a visit to

Mt. Mitchell and Roan Mountain in North Carolina, by A. E. Scott. We could almost predict that the next great venture in summer hotels, and perhaps ultimately in cottage life, will be among these park-like altitudes. Any one imagining himself a first-rate pedestrian will feel admiration, if not humility, on reading Mr. E. B. Cook's "Record of a Day's Walk" over the Presidential Range in New Hampshire. A fine view of Chocorua (but not the finest), well heliotyped, forms a frontispiece to the present issue

Mr. T. W. Higginson, forsaking his allegiance as a weekly contributor for so many years to the *Woman's Journal*, has begun a series of papers on "Women and Men" in *Harper's Bazar*. The first appears in the *Bazar* for January 17. It is devoted to an apology for the main title, and shows this writer's usual tact in adjusting himself to his new environment.

The *Sanitary Engineer* is now publishing full-page illustrations of architectural subjects, having no obvious connection with the leading objects of this journal.

Junges Volk (*Young Folks*) is a double-headed, bi-lingual, illustrated child's periodical, issued by the Cherouny Printing and Publishing Company in this city. On December 15 its eighth number was reached. Hereafter, instead of monthly it will be issued fortnightly. Its form is folio, and the contents are for the most part duplicated in parallel columns of German and English—an easy task for the prose, but often desperate for the verse. With prosperity ought to come clearer print and (why not?) Roman type throughout.

Prof. Pliny E. Chase's 'Elements of Meteorology' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates), of which announcement was made some months ago, does not prove on examination as good a work as we had hoped it might be. It fails to reach the standard that books for popular instruction should attain, for its explanations are not lucid, and its statements are not logically consecutive. Still further, it does not at all fairly represent the modern school of meteorology; it is too largely occupied with theories and dogmas which the leading physicists and meteorologists of the day refuse to accept. We cannot consider it a text-book worthy of general use.

Part 20 of the Franklin Square Library edition of 'Stormonth's English Dictionary' carries the work along to *Unread*.

With Part 10, Mr. Ponce de Leon's Technical English-Spanish Dictionary passes from *Lamp* to *Nail* (New York, 42 Broadway). Apparently the Spanish mariner must box his compass in English.

In the recent Health Exhibition, held at London, many papers treated of the London sewage. Very apropos comes the publication of a Parliamentary return containing correspondence for the last three years between the Home Department, the Metropolitan Board of Works, and the authorities of the city of London, on the pollution of the Thames. In substance it amounts to this, that the Thames is, as the Home Secretary asserts, and the Board of Works denies, really polluted; that sewage sludge is deposited; that a month's sewage is always oscillating backward and forward between Greenhithe and Teddington; that a sort of floating island of sewage has been steadily increasing in extent from the opening of the main outfalls to the present time. Any one who has gone down to Greenwich on a river steamer knows the dark fluid that is stirred up by the screws, and what odors assailed his nose, and must wonder at the members of the Metropolitan Board who, on a very warm day, "could detect no offensive smell." The Board, however, pays some deference to other people's acuter senses, and last July used daily between seventeen and eighteen tons of chloride of lime, to disinfect the sewage before its discharge into the river, and now is manufacturing for the same purpose twenty tons a day of manganate of soda, at a cost of £130 per ton. At this rate the sewage of 5,000,000 people will cost some $500,000 a year just to disinfect. What it will cost to dig it out of the river bed, posterity will know better than we.

An attempt has been made to discredit beforehand the value of Mr. George Dolby's forthcoming addition to the pile of Dickens literature. Mr. Colby was Dickens's agent for the later reading tours in England and America (1866-70), rather imperfectly described in the last volume of Forster's 'Life.' However, Mr. Dolby is entitled to claim that he stood on more familiar ground with Dickens than his business relations required, and his pages will contain ample proof that he was freely admitted into the perhaps not very exclusive circle at Gadshill. The work will be divided into three books, the first being a narrative of the English tours (1866-67), the second treating of the American tour (1867-68), and the third dealing with what Dickens called the "final farewell" tour in the United Kingdom. The author will devote a chapter to American pilgrims to "Gad's," and will describe those sad "last days in town" which helped to wear away the then slender thread of Dickens's life. Mr. Fisher Unwin publishes the work in a popular edition.

The author of 'Much Darker Days,' a clever skit upon 'Dark Days' and 'Called Back,' is Mr. Andrew Lang. Mr. Hugh Conway, the author of 'Dark Days,' is said not to laugh with Mr. Lang and the public.

Miss Mary Anderson has taken the Haymarket Theatre, and, it is said, is going to make it the home for three years, not only of her own beauty and Shakspere's dramas, but also of American acting. All that is best in the United States is to be invited to see how it likes London audiences, and how London audiences like it.

The correspondence of Ivan Turgeneff, which has just appeared at St. Petersburg, contains not less than five hundred letters from this master. Extracts have already been made in the French papers.

That the desire of the French to extend their slim knowledge of foreign literatures has grown greatly, during the past ten years, is known to all. Its latest fruit is a volume recently prepared by M. Auguste Malfroy, a professor at Nantes, entitled 'Évangéline et poèmes choisis' (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). In this stout book of nearly four hundred pages we have found an outline sketch of American literature, a brief biography of Longfellow, 'Evangeline,' and the 'Courtship of Miles Standish,' fragments of 'Hiawatha' and the 'Golden Legend,' and some thirty of Longfellow's minor poems, in English, with abundant linguistic foot-notes, and with full appendices of grammatical and historical information. The illustrations are, unfortunately, very British; indeed, they are the most wooden woodcuts we have seen lately. The editor's work may be highly praised; a few of the parallel passages which he cites here and there in notes are of interest even to American critics of Longfellow. As a rule the Continental critics of American authors have been content to echo British criticism and to apply British standards; it is a pleasure to see that M. Malfroy relies on himself or cites American authorities.

A very concise, but as to names and titles rather comprehensive, synopsis of the literature of the United States, forms the forty-ninth volume of the "scientific series" of miniature handbooks (in 32mo), published by Ulrico Hoepli in Milan, and collectively designated *Manuali Hoepli*. The author of this 'Letteratura Americana' (1884) is G. Strafforello, probably the most prolific of his class. The little work is executed with a considerable bias for the literary and scientific genius of the great republic of the West, and occasionally indulges in strains of admiration which would not meet with an unbroken echo even on this side of the Atlantic; but it is remarkably free from slips discoverable on the surface. This is almost astounding when we consider that the author, who has written, translated, or adapted scores of volumes on scientific, historical, and miscellaneous topics unconnected with our history, has turned to this extensive American subject in the seventh decade of his life. His first chapter begins with "Le più antiche creazioni poetiche americane," and the seventh and last ends with the living humorists, and a doleful comparison of the barrenness of the Italian literature of our day with the richness of the American. "Oimè! *Fuimus Troes!*" he exclaims, after vainly looking about among the living Italians for a Longfellow or Bryant; a Prescott, Bancroft, Motley, or Ticknor; a Maury, Dana, or Edison, and so on, down to Mark Twain and Bret Harte.

Professor Pasquale Villari personally accompanied the thirty cases of Ashburnham manuscripts from London to Florence. On the day of his arrival home with the precious freight he was gazetted a Senator of the Kingdom by King Humbert. There is no doubt that, in inciting the Italian Government to this costly purchase, and in conducting the delicate negotiations which followed, the historian of Savonarola and Machiavelli has rendered another important service to his fellow-investigators in Italy. The manuscripts are now safely housed at the Laurentian library, where most of them, we trust, are likely to find a permanent abiding-place, though a few, of special local interest, will probably be restored to the Roman, Neapolitan, and other collections from which they were originally abstracted.

An elaborate catalogue of the MS. treasures of the library of the Trivulzio family has just been published by Count Giulio Porro, of the Italian Senate. It enumerates no less than 2,276 manuscripts.

Virgil, who in his epic connected Venus and Troy, through the fugitive Æneas and his little Iulus, with Rome's Julian house and his Imperial master Augustus, did, chronologically and otherwise considered, a less audacious feat than has just been carried out by Herr Oskar Gutsche, in a prose substitute for a German national epic, the novel entitled 'Torald der Hohenzollern Ahnherr unter Christi Kreuz' (3 vols. Stuttgart). The hero, who is recommended to our veneration as the direct ancestor of Emperor William—a kind of warlike but philosophically dream-ridden Gothic Anacharsis — is made to wander, in search of a vanished German patriot, of true knowledge, and of the tortured god whom prophecy had told him he would one day behold, from the oak forests on the Vistula, over land and sea, through Rome and Athens, to Jerusalem. Here he becomes the friend of Jesus Christ, philosophizes with him and his disciples on the great questions of humanity, and witnesses his passion; after which he returns to his native heathen land, marries the object of his early love, fights for his people, and dies a victim of envy and blindness. His eldest son is saved by Torald's *fidus Achates*, Heribert, who carries him to Mount Zollern in Swabia—the cradle of the Hohenzollerns—but afterward founds Schönhausen (Fair Home) in northern Germany. This Heribert was, it is needless to say, the ancestor of Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen and of his son, Count Herbert. And thus the new Æneid is more than complete

It appeared in the right time—to serve as a Christmas gift book.

The Nestor of African travellers, Eduard Rüppell, died at Frankfort on December 10, at the age of ninety. His fame as an explorer of Nubia, Kordofan, Abyssinia, the shores of the Red Sea, and also of Arabia Petræa, he earned in repeated journeys, more than sixty years ago, and the last of his independent descriptive and scientific publications, the 'Systematische Uebersicht der Vögel Nord- und Ostafrikas,' appeared in 1845; but he remained active as a student and collector to the last years of his life. His own very rich African and Arabian collections, scientific and antiquarian—including Egyptian curiosities, Ethiopic manuscripts, coins, etc.—he presented to the Senckenberg Museum and the City Library of his native town, Frankfort. Later travellers, while eclipsing his achievements, amply confirmed the accuracy of his observations. When the autonomy of Frankfort was destroyed by Prussian annexation in 1866, he renounced his citizenship.

A Cretan newspaper, the *Minos*, reports the discovery at Messara, in that island, by an archæological traveller, F. Ernest, of a stone with an ancient Greek inscription, written boustrophedon, containing no less than 17,000 letters.

It is strange that any printed poem by Whittier should be inaccessible, but a correspondent writes us that he has in vain sought to obtain (even of the author) a copy of his song written for the Fremont campaign to the air "Suoni la tromba," and beginning—

"Sound now the trumpet warningly."

—A correspondent writes us from Lynchburg, Va.:

"Referring to your paragraph about bedecking Presidential candidates with plumes, we have a still earlier instance than that in John A. Andrew's Chicago speech in 1860, in S. S. Prentiss's famous speech in New Orleans, 22d February, 1848: 'Had *I* the choice of a President—did it rest with me to indicate the successor of the present occupant of the chief magistracy—I should not be much puzzled to select. I should cling to my first love; I should shout aloud the name of that veteran statesman who has attained the very highest eminence on the pedestal of fame, under whose banner I have so often been proud to fight, whose white plume I have so often followed in battle, when, like that of the gallant Henry IV., it tossed to and fro in the conflict, but never bowed to power nor was stained by cowardice. I should give my vote for——' The sentence was never finished, except by yells for Clay, etc. (Memoir of S. S. Prentiss, by his brother, vol. ii, p. 448)."

—The dead of the year 1884 were collectively less illustrious than those of the twelvemonth preceding. Not a crowned head (despite Nihilism) is on the roll, and the Duke of Brunswick is the nearest approach to one. Noticeable is the absence of "indispensable" men; further, a certain number of men, once eminent, whose time for active service had gone by—as much so as that of Gen. J. P. Adam de Schramm, who was decorated after the battle of Austerlitz. The Second Empire has been brought to mind by the deaths of its biographic apologist, Blanchard Jerrold; General Fleury, representing the period of the *Coup d'État;* Eugène Rouher, of the middle period; and General Wimpffen, who had the hard duty of surrendering at Sedan. The Russian service and panslavism were deprived of Gen. Ratislav Fadeyeff. Our own Godfrey Weitzel and Col. Geo. M. Totten were specially distinguished as engineers. Among administrators, an able and liberal Turk certainly deserves the first mention, and such exceptionally was Midhat Pasha. Great in another field and in another way was Sir George Lawrence, of Indian fame, and still otherwise Henry Fawcett. Quintino Sella not only lifted Italy out of the slough of deficits, but saved her from a French alliance in 1870. Eugène Pelletan bore a manful part in the Government of the National Defence. Germany's greatest loss in statesmanship was Eduard Lasker. Remarkable also for ability was his cosectary, Judah P. Benjamin. Charles J. Folger, without taking rank with Sella as a financial minister, came of Franklin's breed, and did his duty faithfully. The lamented Friedrich Kapp will furnish the transition from statesmanship to literature, and close beside him may be placed his countrymen and fellow-historians Karl Hillebrand and J. G. Droysen. The veteran Mignet was still continuing the line of historical works begun sixty years before. Emmanuel Geibel's muse in his seventieth year was yet strong, and worthy of the prime distinction accorded it among living German poets. Heinrich Laube earned his title to remembrance both as poet and as theatre-director. The death of Richard Hengist Horne, the author of "Orion," brought almost the same sort of surprise as did that of Charles Fenno Hoffman. C. S. Calverley, too, had begun to drop out of mind as a living humorist in verse. Giovanni Prati is the last poet on our list, of the same age as Geibel, and, like him, famous for his lyrics. Charles Reade, who had outlived his reputation at its highest; Mark Pattison, the accomplished editor of Milton; Abraham Hayward, the prose translator of 'Faust'; the inexhaustible (except by death) Paul Lacroix; Henry G. Bohn the author-publisher, and inventor of the great series which bears his name; Nicholas Trübner and Frederick Leypoldt, friends of those who live in the spirit of bibliography, conclude our literary summary.

—Turning to the full array of scholars, it is satisfactory to name first an American who challenged comparison with any in the essentials of scholarship, Ezra Abbot. Three eminent Orientalists, Thomas Chenery, editor of the London *Times*, Stanislas Guyard, and François Lenormant; the great Egyptologist, Richard Lepsius; our American sinologue, Dr. S. Wells Williams, with Prof. L. R. Packard, of Yale, are chiefly to be remembered among philologers. Dr. Erasmus Wilson's claim to be mentioned in the same category is more or less disputable, but his Egyptology gave the Thames Embankment its Alexandrian obelisk. After these belongs Julius Friedländer, the eminent numismatist. Science laments Charles Eugène Dumont, archæologist; the Abbé Moigno, physicist; Alfred Brehm, naturalist, traveller, and author; Paul Pogge and Eduard Rüppell, African explorers; E. Behm, the statistician of our globe; Arnold Guyot and Ferdinand von Hochstetter, geologists; J. B. Dumas and C. A. Wurtz, chemists, among the first; George Bentham and George Engelmann, admirable botanists; Alphonse Lavallée, with his arboretum; and the good physician whose forte was prevention, J. B. Fonssagrives. Wendell Phillips heads the short list of philanthropists, and stands alone in his kind of oratory. John F. Slater, bestowing his money on the education of the Southern blacks; Reuben R. Springer, with his vast benefactions to Cincinnati; Stephen Salisbury, of Massachusetts, a liberal giver in many directions, exemplify a class never wanting in this country. Art has received heavy blows in the taking off of Hans Makart, Gustav Richter, and Bastien-Lepage; and those other French painters, François Bonheur and Benjamin Ulmann, and that refined Boston artist George Fuller, are also to be regretted. A steel engraver, of local repute, Henry B. Hall, of this city, was a native of England. In music we bid good-bye reluctantly to John Hullah, Joseph Rubinstein, and Sir Michael Costa. The stage loses Henry J. Byron, the dramatist; Mme. Anna Bishop; and those queer survivals, Taglioni and Fanny Elssler, the latter following closely enough her old attendant the Chevalier Wikoff. The Rev. W. H. Channing is the most distinguished name among the theologians who have left us; but Bishop Simpson was one of the pillars of American Methodism, and J. P. Lange had a more scholarly reputation than either. Keshub Chunder Sen was the apostle of the Brahmo Somaj. Charles O'Conor may share with J. P. Benjamin the lawyers' renown in our necrology. Journalism has got off lightly, with two characteristic losses, nevertheless—James Watson Webb, of the old swashbuckler school of New York editors, and Jane G. Swisshelm, a pioneer in female journalism. The charlatanism of Vennor (an ornithologist before he became an almanac-maker and weather-prophet), and the swindling of Shapira, will long be proverbial.

— The *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* says that, in the new Parliament buildings at Berlin, so little room has been assigned to the Library that the number of books cannot be increased; and yet there is an appropriation of 36,000 marks a year for purchases. It is the first time we have ever heard of so gross a blunder; but observation shows that architects may always be trusted to greatly overestimate the book capacity of their buildings, even if by capacity be meant the number of volumes that can be closely packed on the shelves; and every librarian knows that a library is inconveniently crowded long before it is absolutely full. Surprise is sometimes expressed that architects should succeed so ill in designing libraries. We have heard it said that there are hardly half-a-dozen well-planned libraries in the world. What else could be expected? Library buildings have certain peculiar needs which are hardly known to librarians themselves, and must be still less evident to building committees and to an architect who has paid no attention to the subject till he is called upon to design a library. How many thoroughly satisfactory Government buildings are there? The *Builder* and the *Building News* have lately been publishing all the plans submitted in a competition for the new War and Admiralty offices in London. A majority of them have the obvious defect of long and narrow rooms intended for clerical work and lighted only at one end by one window. If a dozen architects can make such a mistake in a kind of work on which they are continually employed, what wonder if, when they have to go out of the beaten track, they give us reading-rooms that cannot be ventilated; delivery-rooms where the light shines all day long into the face of the charging clerks; lofty study-rooms where the readers below are frozen in winter, and the books above are baked and disintegrated both in winter and summer; alcoves where little light can come, and shelves on the outer wall where the light shines in the eyes of those who are searching for books, and not at all on the books they are looking for; libraries that are noisy with marble floors, or dark with stained-glass windows; libraries that are inconveniently arranged, costly to administer, too small, and incapable of enlargement? The profession that suffers from these mistakes is apt to be disdainful of the profession that makes them; but let any librarian sit down and try to plan a library to suit a given lot of ground. When it is done, if he will consider how far he has satisfied the requirements of light, air, heat, space, convenience, economical administration, close packing, and capacity of enlargement, perhaps he will admit that the problem is not an easy one, and that failure in some particular is not disgraceful.

—M. Landau, a wealthy Austrian gentleman, but long a resident of Florence, has just published the first part of a catalogue of his private library, under the title of 'Catalogue des Livres Manuscrits et Imprimés composant la Biblio-

thèque de M. Horace de Landau.' The volume, of nearly 600 pages, is typographically luxurious, its execution being quite worthy of the well-known Florentine Tipografia dell' Arte della Stampa. Its most striking peculiarity is the reproduction, in the case of all the rarer works—on a reduced scale, of course, and with such variations as the employment of a single size of type necessitates—of the title-pages in their original inscriptional make-up, as, for instance:

MR. WILLIAM
SHAKESPEARES
COMEDIES,
HISTORIES &
TRAGEDIES.
Published according to the True Originall Copies.
(*Portrait de l'auteur gravé par M. Droeshoot*).
LONDON
Printed by Isac Iaggard, and E. Blount. 1623.

This has its uses, as every bibliographer knows, but it involves waste of space and an extravagant consumption of paper. The descriptions of the books are meant to be minutely accurate, and the bibliographical notes, though often too brief, are of value. The collection itself is a miscellaneous one, the major part consisting of early-printed Italian and German books, though the collector seems to have a passion for first editions of the different works of many moderns, such as Victor Hugo, Alfred de Vigny, Alexandre Dumas, Goethe, and Schiller. Dante occupies, perhaps, as large a space as any single author, the first title being a fine paper manuscript of the 'Divina Commedia' from the end of the fourteenth century, followed by the earliest dated printed edition, that of Numeister (Foligno,1472), that of Vindelinus de Spira (Ven.,1477)—with the commentary falsely attributed to Benvenuto da Imola—and five other issues of the quattrocento press. The earliest edition of Petrarch's 'Rime' is that by Theodorus de Reynsburch and Reynaldus de Novimagio (Ven., 1478), but the library possesses a unique copy of the 'Trionfi' printed by Pacini at Florence in 1503, the two Pacini editions hitherto known bearing the dates of 1499 and 1508. Of noted book-curiosities there are many, including a perfect set of the 'Grands Voyages' of De Bry (Latin text); no fewer than 1,098 Mazarinades, of which several are not cited by Moreau; 34 Rappresentazioni Sacre, all of the sixteenth century; a collection of 513 portraits by Anthony Van Dyck, of which 21 are engraved *à l'eau-forte* by the master himself; and what seem to be good copies of the four Shakespeare folios—besides which latter there are very few English titles. The final portion (pp. 487-578) of this first volume is devoted to a very extensive and interesting list of early musical works. The catalogue is alphabetical, but an excellent classified index is added. Its compiler and editor, as the introduction states, is "un savant distingué, M. Fr. Roediger." As will be seen by the Shakspere title we have copied, the proof-reading sometimes leaves something to be desired.

— No German writer of the last twenty years has discussed serious questions with the fire, energy, and rhetorical brilliancy of Professor Treitschke. Like the late Professor Fawcett, he has long suffered from a physical infirmity which would have kept in obscurity most men, of however brilliant mind; yet his oratory is as good as his writing, in spite of the fact that he is totally deaf, and hears his opponent's interruptions or replies only with his eyes. Apropos of his 'Deutsche Geschichte,' he has been styled, with more reason than is common in such cases, the German Macaulay; but he altogether out-Macaulays Macaulay in the passion he displays in support of party, and his complete obliviousness to the possibility that his side does not absolutely monopolize truth, honor, justice, patriotism, and political wisdom. Though equally opposed to the Catholics and to the consistent (or, in his phraseology, the doctrinaire) Liberals, he is not, like most thick-and-thin supporters of the Government policy, a personal adorer of Bismarck. Yet in one respect he goes further than even the Chancellor, who professes, at least, to admire the national unity he was so instrumental in bringing about. Treitschke cares not a rap for German unity—except as a much-to-be-deprecated intermediate stage. What he has always advocated is—to use an antithesis which has a famous history—not the disappearance of Prussia in Germany, but the disappearance of Germany in Prussia; and not even the encroachments of the Pope, or the intellectual and financial victories of the Jews, elicit from him such torrents of vindictive characterization as do the decentralizing or federalistic tendencies of the Liberal party.

— The question of the Brunswick succession seems to have acted like a chemical solvent in resolving the German parties, for the moment, into their original elements; and Treitschke's analysis of their motives (in the November *Preussische Jahrbücher*) seems to be true as well as penetrating, though we do not at all share his point of view. The Catholics, he says, favor the claims of hereditary descent, because, though the would-be sovereign is a Protestant, he would aid them in the struggle against the Prussianizing tendency, and afford a home for their intrigues. The Liberals are a much worse lot. Treitschke gives them credit for honesty, but their honesty only emphasizes their folly. They, it seems, object to the absorption of the Duchy for two reasons, which vie with each other in absurdity. One is, that Germany is a federation, in which the elimination of even a minor State disturbs the constitutional balance, especially as it would here increase the already too great power of Prussia, besides destroying an obstacle to the steady growth of centralization, and establishing a precedent which will result in making not the German people, but the Prussian monarchy, the reversionary heir of the lesser princes. As if this were not just the end for which every patriot strives, and the faster federalism disappeared the better! But if the Liberals' first reason is wrong-headed, their second is simply silly. It is, namely, that the wishes of the people of Brunswick should be consulted. The same objection to Prussian rule, combined with what they regarded as national patriotism, was conspicuous twenty years ago in Schleswig-Holstein, and has been rampant, ever since the annexation, in Hanover. But the professor is a true worshipper of the Juggernaut—if you don't like being crushed, that merely shows a misapprehension of the object for which you were created.

—The subject of part second of Professor Heinrich Zimmer's 'Keltische Studien' (Berlin, Weidmann, 1884), is more than usually recondite. It deals with the influence of accent (*i. e.*, voice-stress) in modifying the grammatical forms of Old-Irish. According as the accent falls upon the stem syllable or upon the prefix, we get a form either well preserved or quite corrupt phonetically. Students of Anglo-Saxon will best understand the point by a comparison of our early compounds with *and-* (*ond-*), German *ent-*. In verbal compounds this *and-* is atonic, the stress falling on the verb proper. Hence the *d* is dropped, as in *on(d)lúcan*, to unlock (*cf.* German *ent-schliessen*). Whereas in the noun-compound *ónd-wyrde* ("answer") and its verbal derivative *óndwyrdan* (*cf. Antwort, antworten*) the *d* is retained. In the Germanic family, this accent-corruption is comparatively simple. In Celtic it is excessively complicated. Thus the stem *mag*, compounded with the double prefix *do-for*, gives rise (with the accent on *for*) to *dofórmaigaim*, 'augeo.' Whereas the same compound, used as a verbal infinitive, accent on *do*, becomes *tórmach* 'au ere,' 'augmentum.' Our readers will perceive from this somewhat of the difficulty in dealing with Old-Irish. Not only are the word-endings clipped, as in other languages, but the beginnings are mutilated almost beyond recognition. Professor Zimmer has undertaken to treat this process of detrition in all its ramifica ions. Some of his conclusions may, perhaps, be questioned. But his treatise is searching, and will not fail to give new impetus to Celtic philology.

JOHN ADAMS.

John Adams. By John T. Morse, Jr. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

MR. MORSE'S life of John Adams, like his previous biography in the same series of John Quincy Adams, is a good piece of literary work. Together they constitute perhaps the two best volumes of the series. Without pretending to be books of original research, they cover the ground thoroughly, and give just the sort of succinct and simple account of the men with whom they deal that is wanted in a popular series of this kind. Mr. Morse has almost every quality which a biographer needs—a considerable power of sympathy, a rare facility of expression, combined with good sense, judgment, and discrimination in sifting evidence and using materials. On the present occasion he has necessarily followed, in the main, the excellent biography of John Adams written a generation ago by his grandson, Mr. C. F. Adams, and prefixed to that gentleman's edition of his grandfather's works. It is no more than fair to say that any biography of him produced now must be based in great measure on the narrative contained in that work, which throws new and unexpected light upon the most critical periods in Mr. Adams's career, clearing up much that had been obscure, and vindicating the reputation of one of the greatest Americans for all time to come.

There can be little doubt that John Adams's fame as one of the founders of a great modern state will increase as time goes on. The vivid impression made upon his contemporaries of a temper at times impracticable, and of an overweening pride, must be seen to be of less consequence than the permanent mark set upon the history of his country by his wisdom, foresight, courage, and unselfishness. From the time when, as a young man, in obedience to the dictates of professional duty and in defiance of public prejudice, he undertook the defence of the English officer who was charged with the wanton butchery of the "Boston Massacre," to the time when, as an old man, he wrecked his party by refusing to make war upon France, he appears to have been guided chiefly by an ambition of the most generous kind, and a public spirit of which, in our degenerate, money-loving days, we have few examples. In reading the lives of the somewhat statuesque heroes of our Revolutionary period, one is impressed by nothing so much as their incorruptibility, their superiority to the ordinary temptations of public life. Partly this was due, no doubt, to the circumstances in which they lived—the remoteness of the country from the great centres of luxury and corruption, the asceticism of the Puritans in one great colony, the influence of the hardships of pioneer life in the wilderness, and the enforced self-denial and self-sacrifice made necessary by a long and exhausting war. But whatever the cause, when we approach the men of that time we feel somewhat the same surprise and veneration that their European contemporaries did. Plutarch's

men, if we can imagine those heroes Christians, and accustomed to habeas corpus and the Bill of Rights, seem to tread the stage again, and to be engaged in the performance of one of those mighty dramas that now and then history provides, as if to remind the race of the immense heights to which human nature is capable of rising, and the traditions of which are, after all, the most priceless possessions that it inherits from the past.

Of all the men of that time who made a prominent figure in public life, none, with the exception of Washington, played a more important part in the founding of the American State than Adams, and his career is exceptionally interesting because he has had descendants who in each generation have also played an important part in public affairs, so that he founded a family having almost as such a public character—a feat which, in a democratic age and country, shows an extraordinary virility and force. His son succeeded him as President, his grandson occupied during our civil war the most important diplomatic post in the service of the Government, and the fourth generation has not been able to avoid public life, although public life has not, since the war, had the standing or attractiveness for ambitious men it formerly had; and both in it and outside of it they have displayed the same qualities which made their progenitors illustrious. This extraordinary tenacity and persistence is all the more remarkable because it has been exhibited at a period and in a country of which all the institutions and tendencies seem directed to the dispersion of families, family influence, and family fortunes. We are taught from our childhood to regard these things as the products of what is vaguely called aristocracy and feudalism; our laws are directed to exalt individualism at the expense of family; our mild religion and lax marriage customs have sapped the legal foundations of family authority and headship, until the family has been reduced from a powerful corporate unit to a shadowy social fetish, the potency of whose charm is secretly doubted by those who profess to revere it. Founding a family is an amusement which many men have tried in the United States, but how seldom have they succeeded in doing more than perpetuating wealth at the expense of everything which makes wealth worth keeping together; how frequently they have failed even in this. The fact appears to be that a family can only perpetuate itself in the United States by the vigor of its own moral and intellectual qualities, by that prudence and power of self-denial and far-sighted devotion to a generous ambition which conduces, if not, as Goldsmith says in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' to happiness, at least to prosperity and success.

All these qualities in abundance John Adams had. His ancestry had been New England farmers, and in three generations of constant struggle with the ungrateful New England soil had succeeded in wringing from it a fortune amounting to thirteen hundred odd pounds. It was through this that John Adams was able to obtain a college education, and thus separate himself from the farmer class and become one of the Massachusetts "aristocracy." It would be a waste of time here to go over the facts of his life, which will be found entertainingly given in Mr. Morse's volume, and we shall content ourselves with calling attention to one or two points which he brings out with great distinctness, though for the authorities on which they rest the reader must consult the biography of Mr. C. F. Adams.

The first of these is, that Mr. Adams's difficulties with Franklin and Vergennes were chiefly due to his want of tact. Franklin has put himself on record as declaring that though "always an honest man, and often a wise one, he [Mr. Adams] was sometimes and in some things absolutely out of his senses." And it is easy to see why the astute and politic old savant was driven to this conclusion. Nothing could have been, as Mr. Morse shows, more ill-advised than Mr. Adams's behavior with reference to the repudiation measure of Congress in 1780. Why he, not being charged with any such duty, should have voluntarily undertaken the disagreeable task of explaining and then of vindicating the action of Congress it is impossible to say. As Mr. Morse says:

"It was a difficult task which he so readily assumed; for though, if it is ever honest for a government to force creditors to take less than it has promised to them, it was justifiable for the Colonial Congress and the several States to do so at this time, yet it is by no means clear that such a transaction is ever excusable. . . . Adams afterwards said that he might easily have shunned this argument, as Franklin did, by sending the French Minister's letter to Congress, and expressing no opinion of his own to De Vergennes. But this course he condemned as 'duplicity,' and declared: 'I thought it my indispensable duty to my country and to Congress, to France and the Count himself, to be explicit.' Mr. C. F. Adams also tries to show that his ancestor could not have shunned this effort without compromising himself or his countrymen. But it is not possible to take these views. At the outset Mr. Adams was at perfect liberty to keep silence, and would have been wise to do so. The trouble was that keeping silence was something he could never do."

It was this difficulty of keeping silence which made diplomatic life so hard for Mr. Adams. In the United States his work had been that of a leader in a political movement; he had been one of the earliest advocates of independence; he had been continually engaged in whipping up and spurring on his reluctant and half-hearted colleagues in the Congress into action. At Paris he simply went on doing the same thing, but the place was not fitted for the work. Diplomacy as then practised was an extremely intricate game, which no European diplomat was mad enough to play with his hands on the table. Vergennes and the court, it is now well enough established, had none of that sentimental sympathy with the American Revolution which we were pleased for so long to believe was the mainspring of their policy. What they wanted was to injure England, and the aid they gave the revolted colonies they would have given to Indians or Sandwich Islanders with as much good will. The sentiment and sympathy of Frenchmen were to be found in other quarters. Vergennes wanted to protract the war and exhaust the English even at the expense of his allies, and this is what a diplomat of his age and country must have regarded as his duty. He made the American alliance, not for the sake of America, but for that of his own country, and everything else flowed from this. In the intrigues which he was carrying on the appearance of an ambassador like Mr. Adams must have been excessively irritating—exactly as the proceedings of Vergennes and Franklin were irritating to Adams.

The break-up of the Federal party was no doubt occasioned by the part played by Adams in preventing the Anglicist Federalists from involving the country in a war with France; but it is clear enough now that this was most creditable to him. A war was entirely needless, except for party purposes. The time had come when the Federalists, whose leaders had been born English colonists, and many of them members of a sort of colonial aristocracy, were brought face to face with the democracy which they had created and brought into being. Nothing but foreign complications could have arrested or deferred the progress toward a pure democracy, which was the destiny of the country. Hamilton and the Federalists who sympathized with him felt this, and, like all men and parties who have long enjoyed power, they were made desperate at the idea of losing it, and conjured up every imaginable evil and disaster as the probable consequence of a new party coming in. Had Adams been less a statesman than he was, he would have played into their hands; there would have been war with France; a large military establishment would have been set up, and the material development of the country retarded for a generation. The Federalists would have kept Jefferson and the "Jacobins" out, however, which was all they wanted. Adams stood in the breach, and saved the country from a disaster. His reward was small. He went out of office friendless and hated. He had quarrelled with his Cabinet, he had broken up his party, he had sacrificed himself, and all in great measure probably from the same peculiarities of character which got him into trouble with Vergennes and Franklin in Paris, and afterward with the English court. But at this distance his defects, for which he paid the penalty in his life, sink into insignificance by the side of his virtues. Simple, truthful, frankly ambitious and combative, resolute and fearless in the discharge of every trust, his is one of the most interesting characters of a period full of great men. His naïf egotism, much as it must have embittered some of his quarrels, is not a quality which readers of his life can bring themselves to deplore. Without it he might have been a grander man, but he would have been less human; his hot temper and his good opinion of himself, of which he was always so ready to give exhibition, enable us to understand and sympathize with him far more thoroughly than we can with many of his more reserved and *posé* contemporaries.

FACTORIES AND CIVILIZATION.

Old World Questions and New World Answers. By Daniel Pidgeon, F.G.S., Assoc. Inst. C.E. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

THERE must be in Great Britain an enormous appetite for facts from America if all the books published about this country find a remunerative sale. But, *per contra*, if all of them were like this one, such a demand would not be surprising. We have heard an old gentleman, whose life had been saddened by sympathy with the poor and suffering, say that his last days were made happy by Mr. George's book on 'Progress and Poverty.' We, on the other hand, laid down that book with a feeling of deep depression on account of the utter inadequacy of its conclusions, while we rose from the perusal of this with the most buoyant hopefulness we have ever derived from a work on the future prospects of labor. It is accompanied by a map of New England, with the author's route marked in red—from New York up the Naugatuck to Waterbury, then by Winsted, Great Barrington, Pittsfield, Williamstown, and North Adams to Deerfield, down the Connecticut to Hartford, then by way of Willimantic to Boston and Lowell, back by way of Providence and the Sound to New York, and finally up the Hudson through Lakes George and Champlain to Quebec and Montreal. We are accustomed to this sort of thing in travels through Siberia, China, or India; but as applied to the familiar scenes of New England it has an originality quite refreshing.

The tone of hearty enjoyment of scenery and blue skies and simple American life would alone give attraction to the style, but a much deeper interest comes from the discussion of the conditions of factory labor. On reading the accounts of Waterbury, Winsted, Dalton, Hartford, and Willimantic one is tempted to exclaim that this is quite too rose-colored; that such an Arcadian picture can exist only in the writer's imagination, and may hold out dangerous illusions to immigrants. But when it comes to Holyoke and

Lowell, we see that Mr. Pidgeon is fully alive to the other side of the case. He gives a dismal account of the lodgings and appearance of the French Canadian operatives of Holyoke, and a sad picture of the present condition of factory life in Lowell as compared with that which Dickens and Harriet Martineau saw forty years ago, since the "successive waves of Irish and Canadian immigrants have swept out of the factories the girl who tended a spinning frame during the day and wrote for the *Lowell Offering* at night." A just importance, therefore, attaches to what he says of the better cases.

The strongest of these is that of the Willimantic Thread Company. The manager, Colonel Barrows, has a firm belief that it pays commercially to keep the work-people in a high degree of ease, comfort, and intelligence:

"Why is it," he asks, "that the Willimantic thread will lift more ounces of dead weight and is smoother than any other? Every manufacturer can buy the same cotton and the same sort of machinery to work it. Why, then, the superiority of our products? Simply because they are made by people who know more than any other people in the world engaged in the same work. They put more brains into their work than others do. They are intelligent enough to know the value of care, intelligent enough to be conscientious about employing it, and intelligent enough to know how best to apply it with skill to produce the best results. That is why it pays us, directly, to increase their knowledge."

After quoting Colonel Barrows we must add a part of the author's account of the mill, necessarily omitting that of the library, reading rooms, schools, and the splendid coöperative stores:

"The floor of a vast single room, nearly a thousand feet long and two hundred feet wide, contains indeed 50,000 spindles; but instead of looking upwards to a low, dark ceiling and a chaos of whirling pulleys and belts, the eye seeks the azure of a New England sky, through a roof partly of clear, partly of colored glass, prettily disposed in geometrical designs. The walls are mere piers, separating great windows, also of clear and colored glass, below each of which the brickwork is fashioned into pockets filled with soil and forming great flower beds planted with climbers such as taxonia, cobœa, and English ivy, together with geraniums, petunias, and flowering shrubswhich frame the spindles, so to speak, in roses. The huge room is spotlessly clean, and beside the spinning frames stand girls all neatly dressed and wearing a uniform white linen apron of tasteful cut, while their faces are clean, bright, and healthful, and their hair carefully, often skilfully, dressed.

"One of the first things to catch my eye in the Willimantic mills was the following notice posted in all the entrance halls: 'No person who cannot read and write will be employed in this mill after the 4th of July, 1884.' The paper was dusty and stained with age, having already hung for some three years in its place, so that no employees were without ample warning of the manager's intentions, or the opportunity of learning in time, if they did not already know, how to read and write. Though almost all the help is Irish, with some admixture of Canadians, there is not a man, woman, or child in the mill who will be qualified for discharge under this notice when it comes into operation next Independence Day.

"The dining-room is a large, handsome apartment, decorated, like the porches, with pictures and plants, where all who please may get a capital midday meal, well cooked and daintily served, for a trifling sum. Here, too, at 9 o'clock every morning, the younger hands assemble in detachments to take a cup of milk and a slice of bread and butter. This light refreshment is furnished at the expense of the company, and may form the first and simplest example I have to offer of a benevolence that 'pays.' American mills begin work at 7 o'clock, and the first stop for a meal is made at noon. Five hours is too long for young people to wait for food without a sacrifice of vital energy, and hence it has been found, by carefully comparing the cost of time and food in question with the increase of production to which it gives rise, that it pays to show this attention to the health of the young hands. So marked, indeed, was the advantage that followed upon it that Colonel Barrows is now trying a further experiment in the same direction. A certain section of the help has been selected to receive a small cup of bouillon at 10:30 every morning, but without leaving their machines. This had been given for three months previously to my visit, and with such effect that I found it easy to determine in what section of the factory the experiment was in progress by the greater appearance of physical vigor in the operatives. 'It is not benevolence,' said Colonel Barrows, 'it pays; otherwise I could not ask my directors to adopt the plan. I proved the value of the milk meal by figures before I allowed the company to pay for it, and when I can do the same thing for the bouillon I will ask them to relieve me of the cost. But,' he added, 'those girls go from their work, as they come to it, singing, laughing, almost dancing, and I know that, in their high physical condition, they cannot help turning out more and better work than the others.'"

Compare this greatly abridged account with what is said of Lowell, where "young girls, tawdrily fine in dress, saunter along the sidewalks or loll idly from the windows, their hair shining with oil, their necks gaudy with flaring kerchiefs and gilt brooches, saluting passing friends and acquaintances." A lady who was invited to speak to a company of the mill girls says: "When it was over, a few of them gathered around and asked me many questions. When I urged them to occupy their spare time in reading and study, they seemed to understand the necessity of it, but answered sadly, 'We will try, but we work so hard and are so tired.'" And yet the writer adds: "The operatives of to-day have more leisure and earn more money than those of forty years ago, but they do not know how to improve the one or use the other."

As we read the glowing account of the Connecticut mill, we asked ourselves, Can these things be? Is it possible that the stimulus of gain shall lead men in the future to care thus for the welfare and happiness of those whom they employ? All honor to those who have set the example—to Colonel Barrows at Willimantic, the Cranes at Dalton, the Cheneys at South Manchester, Mr. Lock at Waterbury, the Fairbankses at Saint Johnsbury, Mr. Hazard at Peacedale, and Mr. Pullman at Lake Calumet, who, as Mr. Pidgeon says, have all followed the "God-like stirring" within them, and made their factories worthy of the self-respecting labor which they have created.

But this is not all the comfort which Mr. Pidgeon derives from the factory system. We had an impression, which we believe is pretty widely extended, that that system has had an injurious effect upon the welfare and the morals of operatives. This our author denies:

"If there was something idyllic about a picture of the old English weaver working at his loom, with his family around him carding and spinning wool or cotton for his use, that home of industry was very different in fact and fiction. Huddled together in a hut, whose living and sleeping accommodations were curtailed by the tools of his trade to limits which left little room for decency, the weaver's family lived and worked without comfort, convenience, good food, or good air. The children became toilers from their earliest youth, and grew up quite ignorant, no one having yet conceived of education, except as a luxury for the rich. Theft of materials and drunkenness made almost every cottage a scene of crime, want, and disorder. Against the spread of pauperism, indeed, legislation and philanthropy seemed alike powerless, and the evil was only at last checked by the rise of those manufacturing industries which followed upon the inventions of Arkwright, Hargreaves, and Crompton, and the enterprise of men like Wedgwood."

It was the flow of labor to the factories which first revealed the ignorant, brutal, and debased condition of the English laborer, and it was the association of numbers which made possible the reforms which have permeated the mass. To the argument that improvement was owing to the general progress of civilization, Mr. Pidgeon replies: "But the two systems were simultaneously in force in France down to a very late period—domestic industry being, even now, the rule in the country round Amiens. There, however, the rural workers have a very bad reputation as compared with that of the town operatives. Their homes are worse and worse kept; beginning work at no regular hour, they idle more and earn more precarious wages than do the factory hands, and they are inveterate drunkards." Moreover, "in the district already alluded to, between 1855 and 1859, the criminal list was reduced by 25 per cent., notwithstanding the fact that the factory population was at the time rapidly increasing at the expense of the domestic workers."

The discussions upon the tariff, wages, and the New England town meeting are well worth attention, but we have dwelt upon the one point in respect to which we can mainly recommend the book as a mental tonic against a tendency to pessimism. It ought to be on the list of every public library, and we should like to place it in the hands of every factory operative, and still more of every factory official, in the United States.

Folk-Etymology: a Dictionary of Verbal Corruptions, or Words Perverted in Form or Meaning by False Derivation or Mistaken Analogy. By Rev. A. Smythe Palmer, Curate of Staines, etc. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

FOLK-ETYMOLOGY is a new branch of science. A few of the most striking facts which it deals with have been current in literature as philological curiosities. Our English folk had interpreted *asparagus* as *sparrow-grass* so universally, that the great English authority for polite pronunciation in the last generation declared that *asparagus* had an air of pedantry. Most of us have heard that *Shotover* is an Oxfordshire corruption of *Château Vert*, and that the story is pure fiction which they tell about Robin Hood or Sir Harry Bath having *shot over* this castle, to the astonishment of the natives; and we have been told in the same way that the English sailors called the ship *Bellerophon* "*Billy Ruffian*," and that English jockeys knew the two horses named Othello and Desdemona as *Old Fellow* and *Thursday Morning*, and that sundry negroes knew their mistresses, Pauline and Imogen, as *Polly Ann* and *Emma Jane*. These are transformations (or, in the folk-dialect, transmogrifications) of words, which in some sense give them a new etymology; but in most instances the transforming is play rather than exposition.

Asparagus, spelt (as Steele has it in the *Tatler*) *spara-grass*, then *sparrow-grass*, seems to indicate a real effort of the understanding to make some sound English sense, or, at least, some good English sounds out of the Latin original; but calling the *Bellerophon* "*Billy Ruffian*" is plainly playing with the name, as much as calling Bonaparte *Malaparte*, or Athanasius *Satanasius*, or Metternich *Mitternacht*, Hildebrand *Brand of Hell*, presbyters *priest-biters*, or even as Swift's derivation of *ostler* from *oat-stealer*, *apothecaries* from *a-pot-he-carries*, and the like.

Examples of proper folk-etymology, words in which a serious mishearing and misinterpreting have been embodied in the spelling and fixed in the standard speech, have not been supposed to be very numerous. There is a considerable number of words in modern English which have been spelt to simulate imaginary derivations, as *island*, spelt with *s* to look as though it were derived from *isle*; *rhyme*, spelt with *hy* to look like a Greek word; *could* with an *l* as though from a present in *l*. But these are only simulacra of words. The inserted letters are silent. The spelling is the work of pedants—professors and dictionary-makers, who are no "folks." But even if we give the most liberal interpretation to folk-etymology, and let in all the play-words of this kind and all the blunders in spelling of the

etymologists, it is still surprising to find a dictionary of folk-etymology making a book of 664 pages of octavo in double columns, like this of Rev. A. Smythe Palmer.

He gives notice, however, that he has introduced another class of words—words which, though not actually corrupted from their true shape, are suggestive of a false derivation, and have been generally accepted in that mistaken sense; such as *camlet*, *carp*, *colonel*, *cozen*, *crabbed*, *fratery*, *god*, *hawker*, etc. This opens a wide door, and it will be seen from the examples that a promiscuous crowd has rushed in. Who can assure us that folks generally believe *camlet* to be from *camel*, *carp* from Latin *carpere*, *colonel* from *column*, *cozen* from *cousin*, *crabbed* from *crab-juice*, *fratery* from *frater*, *god* from *good*, and so on? Almost any word of doubtful derivation might be counted in this class. But, in fact, the words in the body of the book are very fairly chosen. A great many of them are dialectic interpretations of names of plants, animals, and utensils. The first word, for example, is *aaron*, a popular name for the plant *arum*, sometimes called *barba-aron*, as if *Aaron's beard*. The next is *abbey*, a Somerset corruption for *abele*, the white poplar; and shortly follow *Abraham's balm*, a willow; *acorn*, which must not be taken as *oak-corn; acwern*, a squirrel; *adder* for *nadder*, *an adder* for *a nadder; aerolite* (*-lite* for *lith*, stone, as in *chrysolite*, *coprolite*); *air-bell* for *hare bell*, and so on. There are plenty, of course, of more bookish terms with queer explanations of learned book-men. Persons fond of picking about among the curiosities of philology may here find plenty of nuts to crack.

Besides the common English words discussed there are vocabularies of corrupted foreign words, of corrupted proper names, and of corruptions due to coalescence of the article, as *alcoran*, the Coran; *al-ligator*, the lizard; *apron*, for *napron*, *an apron* for *a napron*. There are twenty pages of these, including many surprising examples and many doubtful ones. Then there is a vocabulary of words corrupted through mistakes about number, as *alms*, taken for a plural; *bodice*, taken for a singular; *child-r-en*, a double plural. Here are found such words as *Chinee*, *Cyclop*, *Æthiop*. Besides all these there is an Introduction of twenty-eight pages, which would have delighted Dr. Johnson, if he sat up all night, as they say, to read Burton's 'Anatomy of Melancholy'; it would be hard to find a score of pages in Burton which yield a richer treat of quaint learning.

On the scholarly side the book shows competent acquaintance with the best authorities, and is altogether worthy to take its place beside its single predecessor, Andresen's 'Deutsche Volksetymologie.' The linguistic philosophers who are generally inclined to rule out etymological perception and imagination in their explanation of the acquisition and tradition of speech, may here see them in lively action. There are more English words, it seems, which have been transformed by them than the whole vocabulary of many a nation.

Oriental Religions, and Their Relation to Universal Religion. By Samuel Johnson. With an Introduction by O. B. Frothingham. Persia. 1 vol., 8vo. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

In his eloquent tribute to Mr. Johnson, prefixed to this volume, Mr. Frothingham expresses surprise that one so gifted as was the author should have met so little recognition for labors manifesting talent of a high order, assiduously devoted to a subject of absorbing interest. Yet the explanation is not far to seek. In spite of his capacity as a thinker, his unwearied diligence, his honesty of purpose, and his facility of expression, Mr. Johnson's works have the fatal defect of being constructed on a theory. Doubtless, as Mr. Frothingham says, that theory was not an *a priori* one, but was formed after conscientious study of the facts; yet none the less it deprives his works of substantial value as a picture of the religious development of the elder races of mankind, by substituting his interpretation of facts for a simple presentation of the facts themselves. A large and increasing class of the best minds in the country would be deeply interested in a clear exposition of the diverse manners in which Chinese, and Hindu, and Zend, and Moslem, and Christian have sought to explain the relations of man to the universe; the several solutions which they have endeavored to give to the awful problems of existence, and the influence of these conceptions on the moral and physical development of the race. Few subjects would be found more fascinating than this to the thoughtful, and few which would be followed with more attention. Yet even the thoughtful reader may well hesitate in undertaking three ponderous tomes, devoted to the elucidation of what the editor tells us was "to him [Mr. Johnson] the fitting and all-important result of his studies of Oriental religions, namely: the connections between the religions of personal will, which found their culmination in Mahometanism, and universal religion; and the natural and necessary evolution, in connection with scientific thought, of the worship of personal will in the worship of cosmical substance, order, and law." He would have won a wider audience and more general attention to his views had he given us, as he was well able to do, a clear and impartial historical account of the faiths passed in review, and then have followed this with a forcible presentation of his theory within moderate compass. As it is, his volumes are incomplete as a history, and too bulky for a philosophical discussion.

A single instance will serve to show how this mistaken plan renders Mr. Johnson's work, not an exposition of its subject, but a commentary upon such portions of it as chanced to suit his purpose. On p. 25 we read: "The Zoroastrian meant by fire whatever was noblest in personal will, and would not allow that it ever destroyed life, even when one was burned to death." This is a kind of implied argument in which not only the conclusion is not warranted by the premise, but the premise itself is defective. It is true that the text of the 'Vendidad' to which he refers does indeed say, "Ahura Mazda answered: Fire kills no man" (Fargard V., 30); but this is preceded by a similar assertion respecting water—"Ahura Mazda answered: Water kills no man" (V., 24). Whatever may be the esoteric meaning of these mystic phrases, it certainly has not been guessed by Mr. Johnson. Thus the book is neither an historical relation of facts nor a scientific interpretation of them.

The contents of the present volume, in fact, illustrate unfortunately the arbitrary conditions imposed on Mr. Johnson by the plan to which he adhered. In a sketch of Mazdeism and its offspring Manichæism, the reader would naturally look for a continuance of the history through Paulicianism down to the most remarkable development of religious thought in the Middle Ages—the spread of Catharism, which, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, seemed to threaten the existence of the Church, and to promise the replacement of Christianity by that curious admixture of Christian, Mazdean, and Buddhist elements. Yet of all this there is no word. It was a necessity to the completeness of Mr. Johnson's speculations that Mahometanism should come under review, so the geographical idea is substituted for the religious one; the development of Manichæism is dropped, and we are treated to a long chapter upon Islam.

This is not a case in which to apply the criticism that the picture would have been better had the painter taken more pains. Rather we may say that the book would have been better had the author taken less pains, had his aim been less ambitious, and had he abstained from seeking that philosopher's stone, a universal solvent of the development and relations of man's complex and irreconcilable theories of the Unknown. The ambition was a noble one and it was not unworthily developed, yet none the less must we regret the zeal, and learning, and eloquence so unavailingly lavished upon it, for it was doomed from the first to inevitable failure.

The Genius and Character of Emerson. Lectures at the Concord School of Philosophy. Edited by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1885.

Here is a collection of more than a dozen essays by the persons who are professedly the disciples of Emerson, who received the fire direct from the apostle and keep it burning in the Concord School. What they contain should *prima facie* have some illuminating power; but (though we have read very slowly in order to increase our chances of taking in any large or germinative idea), so far as appears, the sole purpose of that sacred flame is to light up the portrait of the saint. The volume is, in fact, a kind of handbook of worship, and it is provided with several hymns to the head of the cult, as good in poetical merits as hymns usually are. One would think 'The Praise of Emerson' to be a more accurately descriptive title, for there is no master of the human mind, and hardly any highly-honored, inspired madman, whom he is not said to recall much as sunlight does moonshine. It is a mistake, apparently, to regard John the Baptist as the last of the forerunners—the line went on through Christ, St. Paul, and the Alexandrines, through Dante and Rabelais (yes, "Rabelaisian" is one of the Emersonian epithets) and Montaigne; and now in the Seer of Concord the true spiritual guide of the race has come. It is doubtful whether any fine genius of the high rank that Emerson really held, has ever had his memory degraded by such insensate eulogy.

In a course of lectures delivered before a selected audience, and written with the declared object of exhibiting genius and character, one looks for instruction. There are some sayings of Emerson that will bear a little explanation, and if a few of those quoted, merely, had been elucidated, it would have been useful, for the writers disclose a special fondness for his most "Orphic" utterances. But instead of scrutinizing the dark idea, they generally prefer to stand awe-struck, contemplating the profound depth out of which such a word must have come. In fact, if one passes over the eulogy, he will find the remainder hardly more than a string of quotations, a sort of abstract and brief compend of Emerson's thought. In other words, there is next to no exposition of the meaning, only a rearrangement of the sentences; and, as is well known, Emerson's style and the structure of his thought readily lend themselves to such treatment. Owing to this peculiarity of these essays, there is little room for difference of opinion, and there is none, except in one case; but on one point, where there was opportunity for originality, all the lecturers exhibit a unanimity truly miraculous in wearers of the gown, to wit: Mr. Arnold was a vastly mistaken man (not to apply any less brotherly epithet to him), and it will not be the fault of the Concord School if the world does not find it out. There has never been such an institution on earth, we have all been told, as the Concord School, which marks

the last and expiring stage of transcendentalism. We are sure there has never been such a memorial volume, so provincial in spirit, so puerile in criticism, so self-complacent, inflated, and in such bad taste, in the case of any great literary man. Even Dr. Harris's papers do not lift its thought to the level of respectability.

Life of Mary Wollstonecraft. By Elizabeth Robins Pennell. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1884.

In writing this 'Life' the author had little more to do than collect the various fragmentary notices that exist in other books, and reduce them to a narrative, with illustrations from the heroine's own works; and this has been done with thoroughness and patience. Mary Wollstonecraft had but little influence in her own day, and, except for the pathos and the literary associations of her life, her name would long since have been unspoken. Her opinions were more innocent than is commonly supposed, and even the more extreme of them were palliated by the extraordinary wretchedness of her experience in early life, and by the actual position of woman in society as she saw it after she had become mature. She was genuine and lived out her conclusions, and she was broken by suffering in consequence. The letters which she then wrote are the best expressions of her womanly nature, and it is the energy and charm of this latter that have principally interested posterity. She deserves credit as the first Englishwoman to depend solely on literature for her livelihood, and for her efforts at reform in education and in the practical ideal of women; but, with all her errors, which are plainly enough revealed in this volume, she deserves more than the usual tenderness accorded by men of heart to such failings, and she earns a true respect for the qualities of virtue which she exercised in many noble ways and under exceptional difficulty. It is a pleasure to have the memorials of her life intelligently gathered and set forth by a woman capable of discerning, if not of bringing out, the power of character that is the main excellence of her life's pitiful and truly heroic story.

Rochester: A Story Historical. By Jenny Marsh Parker. Rochester: Scranton, Wetmore & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. 412.

The capital city of what was known in New England, in the earlier years of this century, as "the Genesee country," seems fatally to have missed the beatitude pronounced upon those communities which "have no history." For even now, when it has just come from celebrating its first half-century of existence as an incorporated city, it has no less than three. So early as 1838 appeared the profuse and miscellaneous compilation of Henry O'Reilly, the value of which, at least as a *mémoire pour servir*, is certainly very substantial, and is to some extent attested by the extravagant price which copies already command. The occasion of the present year has called forth a great quarto, with gilt edges, conspicuously constructed upon the plan of the "county histories" which have of late afflicted the rural districts. These, indeed, are properly classed among the "biblia a-biblia"—the books which are not books—of Charles Lamb, such as backgammon boards and directories. But the handsome volume whose not altogether felicitous title is given above, is a work of an altogether different character. It shows, indeed, the pressure of some special urgency, not so much to make a book with insufficient material (for diligent and intelligent research has disclosed abundant matter) as to bring the material into a concrete and salable form as speedily as possible. But the author, who is not without some experience of authorship in less ambitious undertakings, is distinctly endowed with the literary faculty. Her plan, however hastily adopted, is at any rate a plan, and an intelligent and even skilful one. The brief period of occupation by white men, from the building of the first log house in 1812, is judiciously extended by reaching back, through the French campaigns and explorations of Denonville and La Salle, into prehistoric times. The vivacity of the narrative would go far toward making attractive even a less amusing process than the peaceful growth of a great city in a few years. A more heroic resistance to the temptations which urged the author, in the later chapters, to commemorate the achievements of successful patent-medicine men and their like, might have heightened the literary character of her work without impairing its historical value. But upon the whole the volume may be honestly commended as one of positive value and of real interest, even for readers at a distance from the scene.

The printer's and binder's work, from the Riverside Press, is, of course, all that could be desired. The illustrations are numerous, admirable, and really illustrate.

Leisure Hours among the Gems. By Augustus C. Hamlin. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

If the author of these 'Leisure Hours' had employed more of his own on the *labor limæ*, he would have given his gems more polish and more compactness. The book is mainly composed of pleasant gossip, of which little is new or recondite, while the scientific dissertations which occur here and there are hardly to be reckoned as contributions to solid knowledge of the treasures they treat of. Of the diamond he says: "Among all these investigations and reasonings the question comes forcibly to the mind, *Why* was the gem created, and has the day gone by when the conditions required for its formation no longer exist?" Naturally, in the present state of theology and mineralogy, he replies to his own question, "With due respect to the phenomena connected with the crystallization and deposition of metals and minerals at the present time, we cannot answer this question hastily." The phenomena ought to be gratified at the respect paid them, the more as no one knows what or *who* they are. The author coins the word diamondiferous, which shows that his philology is not well organized. On one page we read, of the conglomerate formation containing the diamond, "Its peculiar hue, together with the metallic fracture of its layers, has given rise to the belief that it was composed chiefly of a ferruginous oxide. Recent analysis, however, of the 'allios', has shown that this idea is partly erroneous, and that the *color and the substance* of the formation in reality arises from the juice and débris of plants loaded with tannin and other matter." And a page further on, the following: "But we do not regard their [quartz and itacolumite] presence as essential as that of a ferruginous oxide, which is one of the distinguishing features of all gem mines, etc." It does not appear that our author's geological views have taken a distinct formation yet; so he will excuse his readers if they do not adopt them, the more when he bases some of his conclusions on the discoveries of General di Cesnola in the "Phœnician tombs" of Cyprus.

"In searching for the mysterious in the gems," the author says of the sapphire, "the Assyrians discovered the cuneiform crystals in the interior of transparent sapphires, and adopted the forms for their own use, believing them to be the language of the genii. We have little doubt but that the cuneiform character which now reveals the history of the extinct Oriental Empires, had its origin from the wonderful crystallizations sometimes seen in the internal structure of the sapphire."

He need not, then, doubt of the use for which *this* gem was created, for, with so vivid an insight into causes and origins, he might see that it was sent into being to teach the Assyrians how to write. Only it would have been better to have some historical tradition or authority to show that the Assyrians got their ideas of writing from the observation of nature rather than from the analysis of speech. But Mr. Hamlin's science has curious roots of sympathy. Speaking of the opal, he says:

"The Turk believes that it falls from heaven in the lightning's flash, and it is often *regretted by the mineralogist* that the theory (!) cannot be sustained. Surely, a gem so beautiful, so delicate, and so pure ought to be of celestial origin and free from the impurities and imperfections of the earth. Alas! we have but one precious stone that comes to us from the far-off region of celestial space—olivine—and that as yet has been found only in minute grains."

In this chaos of facts, fancies, vague sentiments, and dislocated theories with only the semblance of order and not even that of proper construction, full of pleonasms, contradictions, and childish repetitions, one might, if he were cast on a desolate island with it, pass an hour or two over the historical allusions connected with gems; but certainly no one would care to make it a book of reference.

The Spanish and French Schools of Painting. [Illustrated Art Handbook Series.] By Gerard W. Smith, Exeter College, Oxford. New York: Scribner & Welford; London: Sampson Low & Co.

This compendium of information as to the Spanish and French schools (including a brief section on the Portuguese) comes down to Fortuny of the former, and Regnault and Courbet of the latter, and gives the needed information as to who "lived and labored" which a popular guide-book should possess; but there is no relative recognition of excellence, and no apparent individuality in the opinions, which seem to be those which newspaper opinion has made acceptable and accepted. "Ary Scheffer bears much resemblance to Delacroix, his fellow-pupil under Guérin," is one of the comparative judgments which show the futility of the author's opinion on matters of pure art, as does another that "Ingres was in aim and achievement one of the most *original* painters of the French school." The editing of this series is nominally performed by Mr. Poynter, whose classical art education is not to be put in doubt, so that we can only suppose that the editor's work has been purely nominal, for it is difficult to believe that Mr. Poynter could recognize the crudities of this book as sound art literature. The illustrations are wretched.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. A Study in Human Nature. Chautauqua Press. 50 cents.

Atkinson, J. Centennial History of American Methodism. Phillips & Hunt. $2.

Baldwin, Dr. J. The Book-Lover: a Guide to the Best Reading. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

Barnes, Rev. C. R. Hand-Book of Bible Biography. Phillips & Hunt. $2.25.

Boyle, F. A Good Hater: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 131-135 (close of vol. 9). New York: L. W. Schmidt.

Charnay, D. Les Anciennes Villes du Nouveau Monde. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.

Foster, Bishop R. S. Centenary Thoughts for the Pew and Pulpit of Methodism. Phillips & Hunt. $1.50.

Guernsey, F. R. A—B—C Spanish Phrase Book for Travellers in Spanish-speaking Countries. Boston: Edward P. Call. 50 cents.

Harland, Marion. Eve's Daughters; or, Common Sense for Maid, Wife, and Mother. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Heilprin, Prof. A. Contributions to the Tertiary Geology and Palæontology of the United States. Philadelphia.

Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache. Ware—z. Norden: Hermann Braams.

Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series. Vol. XLVIII. Boston: Littell & Co.

Lowrey, C. E. The Philosophy of Ralph Cudworth. A Study of the True Intellectual System of the Universe. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Martin, Prof. N. H. and Hetty Cary. The Human Body. A Beginner's Text-Book of Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
McCabe, Lida R. Don't You Remember? Columbus, O.: A. H. Smythe. $1.25.
McQuade, J. The Cruise of the Montauk to Bermuda, the West Indies, and Florida. Thomas R. Knox & Co.
Meylert, Dr. A. P. Notes on the Opium Habit. Third edition, revised. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Nutter, Rev. C. S. Hymn Studies. Annotated Methodist Hymnal. Phillips & Hunt. $2.50.
Oliphant, Mrs. Madam. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library, 25 cents.
Outlines of Psychology. Chautauqua Press. 50 cents.
Parton, J. Smoking and Drinking. Fowler & Wells Co.
Payn, J. The Talk of the Town: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Pittar, Mrs. Fanny Maria. A Protestant Converted to Catholicity by her Bible and Prayer Book. Buffalo: Catholic Publication Society. 50 cents.
Ponce de Leon, N. Diccionario Tecnológico Inglés-Español y Español-Inglés. Part 10.—Lamp-Nail. N. Ponce de Leon, 42 Broadway.
Porter, Noah. The Elements of Moral Science, Theoretical and Practical. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Puck. Campaign Series. April 16 to Nov. 19, 1884. Keppler & Schwarzmann, 23 Warren St.
Rawlinson, G. Egypt and Babylon, from Sacred and Profane Sources. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Redfield, Dr. J. W. Comparative Physiognomy; or, Resemblances Between Men and Animals. Illustrated. Fowler & Wells Co. $2.50.
Representative British Orations. With introductions and explanatory notes by Charles Kendall Adams. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 3 vols. $3.75.
Reynolds, C. B. Old Saint Augustine. St. Augustine, Fla.: E. H. Reynolds. $1.50.
Seymour, Mary H. Through the Darkness. E. P. Dutton & Co. 40 cents.
Simmons, F. J. Rural Lyrics, Elegies, and Other Short Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Smart, H. From Post to Finish. A Racing Romance. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Stormonth's English Dictionary. Parts 18-20.—Smoulder-Unread. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Taine, H. Les Origines de la France Contemporaine: La Révolution. Tome III. Le Gouvernement Révolutionnaire. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Taylor, J. M. Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus, with Examples and Applications. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.90.
Tennyson. A'Becket. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Terry, Prof. H. T. The Leading Principles of Anglo-American Law, Expounded with a View to its Arrangement and Codification. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.
The Buntling Ball: being a Poetical Satire of New York Society. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
The Encyclopædic Dictionary. Three Volumes. (Destructive—Interlink.) Cassell & Co.
Thomas, Edith M. A New Year's Masque and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Thorne, Rosella A. Treasury of Thought. Mother, Home, and Heaven. Selections from the Best English and American Authors. Illustrated. Bryan, Taylor & Co.
Venable, W. H. Melodies of the Heart, Songs of Freedom, and Other Poems. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Victor, W. German Pronunciation: Practice and Theory. B. Westermann & Co.
Webster, Augusta. Daffodil and the Croäxicans: a Romance of History. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 15, 1885.

The Week.

THERE are many reasons which often make it expedient for the Senate to discuss purely political treaties in secret session. But the secret discussion of commercial treaties involving very serious results to the commerce and taxation of the country, or treaties, like the Nicaragua treaty, providing for vast outlays of the public money on quasi-commercial enterprises, is something deserving of the strongest public reprobation, which ought to lead to an abandonment of all secret discussion of public affairs. There is no one in the Senate, no matter who he may be, who stands so high in public confidence as to be relieved from the necessity of letting the country know how he votes and why he votes on such questions as these. The matter is not quite as important in the present case as it might be in others, for the House will almost certainly not pass the necessary enabling acts before this Congress quits the scene. But the principle is important, and the Senate cannot be too often reminded of it. The principle is, that bargains of a commercial nature with foreign Powers are the concern of every taxpayer, may be discussed without danger, offence, or embarrassment, and ought to be so discussed as a matter of right.

"Must we ask Great Britain whether we can make a treaty with Nicaragua? Do we fear the lion's roar? Is that the reason why we hesitate to build an inter-oceanic canal?" These and similar appeals to national pride and national combativeness, which would be more appropriate to a country not entirely sure of its standing in the family of nations than to the United States of America, and more fitting to be addressed to a Fenian circle than to the Congress of the United States, form the staple of a large part of the argument in favor of the Nicaraguan treaty. Let us see what foundation there may be for the bellicose attitude which the *Herald* and some of its imitators have suddenly struck. On the 19th of April, 1850, we entered into a solemn agreement with Great Britain, engaging on our own part and accepting the pledge of Great Britain on her part, that neither the one nor the other would ever obtain or maintain for itself any exclusive control over any means of communication by ship canal which should be constructed between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, by way of the river San Juan de Nicaragua or either or both of the lakes of Nicaragua or Managua, or would ever erect or maintain any fortifications commanding the same. This treaty has been in force nearly thirty-five years. There is nothing in its language or subject-matter to distinguish it from any other treaty so far as its binding obligation goes, except that the concluding article recites that its purpose is "to establish a general principle." This general principle was set forth in unambiguous terms. It was to be a mutual guarantee of the neutrality of any canal which might be constructed to join the two oceans via Nicaragua, Tehuantepec, or Panama, to the end that the right of transit on equal terms should be extended to the citizens and subjects of the United States and Great Britain, and "of every other State which is willing to grant thereto such protection as the United States and Great Britain engage to afford."

All this is very clear, intelligible, and, we must insist, reasonable. It secures all the public purposes which the pending treaty seeks to secure, and without the expenditure of a dollar on our part for ships, forts, soldiers, or police. It was a wise and rational proceeding on our part, and its wisdom has lost nothing through the lapse of years. It is idle to say or pretend that other commercial countries have no concern in a means of communication which may revolutionize the world's traffic. It was for the very reason that they have concern in it that we made the treaty in the first instance, leaving a door open for all nations to join in the guarantee. If the treaty had never been made it would be desirable to make it now, if for no other reason than to save us the expense of enforcing, at our sole cost, the neutrality which we have declared our intention to guarantee and maintain. Treaties, of course, are not eternal. Time, which wears away the rocks and hills, and changes human institutions, may render treaties obsolete. But the requirements of national dignity remain the same from one generation to another. They grow with the nation's growth. *Noblesse oblige!* The more powerful the nation, the more careful should it be of the steps which it takes as a member of the family of nations, lest it should appear to presume upon its strength to do wrong. A country which is really strong can least of all afford to act the part of a bully. There is no reason to suppose that Great Britain would not receive in a friendly spirit any overtures from our Government to modify or annul the treaty of 1850, although it is hard to see why we should want to annul it. Probably the difficulty of finding excuses for desiring to annul it is the reason why overtures have not been made. It is very easy to ask, "Who's afraid of England?" Any dynamiter can say that. The proper question for sober-minded people to ask is, "Who is afraid to proceed in an orderly way to accomplish whatever the interests of the nation require?"

The news from the American delegates at the Congo Conference at Berlin grows more and more varied and entertaining. The Berlin *National Gazette* now announces that they "explicitly disavow any intention on the part of the United States to be responsible for the execution of the resolutions of the Conference on account of having taken part in the proceedings." The question then arises, What are they doing in the Conference? If the United States Government is not to be in any way responsible for the action of the Conference, Messrs. Kasson and Sanford are simply present as advisers. What are their qualifications for any such office? None under heaven that anybody knows of. Neither of them has, we believe, ever been in Africa. Nothing is known of them as geographers, explorers, soldiers, sailors, lawyers, or sages. Yet they have been showering resolutions and speeches on the Conference with a profusion which has impeded business. The State Department ought to disavow them promptly, unless it proposes that the United States should back up, if called on, the decrees of the Conference.

The cable on Friday informed us that Mr. Sanford considers the resolution of inquiry about his presence there, introduced in the House of Representatives, very "ridiculous." We are not surprised at this. Those may laugh, and generally do laugh, who win. The more he laughs, however, the more, in our opinion, should he be investigated. The reason why the Conference thought there was "money" in his Vivi-Stanley Pool railroad, and therefore fought shy of it, ought in particular to be looked into. The popular suspicion that he is in the employ of the King of the Belgians as well as in ours, ought also for his sake to be cleared up.

We cordially concur in the following paragraph from the Boston *Herald*. It is extraordinary that such observations should need to be made, and that Mr. Blaine's friends and admirers cannot be got to recognize and accept the situation which the late election has made for him, and cease, at least for the present, from obtruding him on the attention or patience of that immense body of American citizens who do not share their opinions about him. The American people emphatically demand a rest from Mr. Blaine and his belongings and doings:

> "The suggestion comes from the capital that Mr. Blaine be invited to deliver the oration at the dedication of the Washington monument. It is a preposterous idea. What a spectacle it would be to intrust the most conspicuous part in dedicating a monument to the man who could not tell a lie, to one who not only can tell a lie, but is self-convicted of having told several to save himself from the consequences of predatory speculations based upon his official influence! It would be monstrous."

Mr. Reagan, of Texas, when pushing his wonderful bill for the regulation of the railroads in the House the other day, caught a Tartar in Mr. William Walter Phelps. He accused Mr. Phelps of being rich and a friend of monopolies, which enabled the latter to say that he had lost the position of a rich man by investing half a million in the construction of a railroad past Mr. Reagan's door in Texas, for which he received stock at par, which has never paid any interest, and is never expected to pay any. The promoters were also to have got bonds from the State, but the State repudiated the obligation, and has never delivered the bonds. In fact, all the profit of the road has gone to those owning land along the line, of whom Reagan is one. Mr. Phelps finished off his remarks by a telling illustration of the way the Reagan bill would work in practice.

It prohibits railroads from making any discrimination in the despatch of goods. All classes must go at the same time. Therefore if fruit, flour, and grain were waiting on the platform of a station at the same time, and a freight train came along which had not room for all, the conductor could not take the fruit only, as perishable, or the coal only, as something for which iron works along the line were waiting. He would have to take all or none, and as he could not take all, he would, to avoid the penalties of Reagan's law, take none.

The Reagan Inter-State Commerce Bill now goes to the Senate, where it must be disposed of within the forty or fifty remaining days of the session, taking its chances of securing attention in competition with the appropriation bills, the treaties now pending, and the great crush of legislation which accumulates in the closing days of every Congress. There is very little chance of its passing in any shape. If it secures the attention of the Senate at all, it will be amended more or less and sent back to the House for concurrence or conference. It will probably be lost somewhere in the hurrying stages of an overburdened Congress. Surely nothing could be more easily spared. We doubt whether any measure has ever been passed by an American Congress fraught with such gigantic and unknown consequences, except possibly the legal-tender act. Its chief virtue consists in the impossibility of executing it. The forces of competition, ever varying, but always working silently and irresistibly, will thrust it aside or avoid it in countless ways, and while Congress is stopping up one hole a hundred others will be opened. Mr. Edward Atkinson rightly characterizes the bill as "another of the many examples of futile attempts to alter the nature of things; another effort to overcome what are considered hardships, which can only be remedied by the slow progress of events, and not by the enactment of what may be called meddlesome statutes." He points out the fact that the lowest rates of transportation are to be obtained only on lines where there is sufficient traffic of the bulkier products of commerce to keep men and machinery constantly employed, and that any attempt of the Legislature to prevent or curtail this constant employment—as, for instance, by prohibiting a lower charge for a long haul than for a shorter one—must necessitate a higher average rate for the total traffic moved. In other words, the trading and travelling community must, in the long run, pay for the services of men, locomotives, and cars, whether they are actually employed or not. It is, therefore, for the interest of the community that they should be employed at their fullest capacity, and if bare cost to the railroad can be obtained by carrying wheat from Dakota or cattle from Montana, it is better for everybody that the carrying should be done than that a rule should be established which would make it for the interest of the railroad to forego that portion of its traffic.

The speeches of Democratic statesmen at the various Jackson banquets on Thursday were not especially interesting. The most notable thing about them is the necessity under which all the speakers felt themselves to be to say something about civil-service reform. Mr. Cleveland's letter has made a deep impression upon them, and he is a very dull Democrat who has not an interpretation of his own of the policy which the new President will pursue. We note with considerable gratification signs of progress on the question of the reform in the mind of Senator-elect Payne of Ohio, who is to succeed Mr. Pendleton. Last year Mr. Payne made a speech which was almost totally devoid of sympathy with any reform that did not contemplate a complete "cleaning out of the Augean stables." He was in favor of having all the Republican office-holders and employees turned adrift and their places filled with cold-toed Democrats. Now he says, in a speech at Columbus, that "turning the rascals out" does not signify that honest incumbents, competent and faithful in the discharge of duty, and blameless in political action, shall be indiscriminately discharged. He even concedes that half the service may be filled with Republicans, for, in a passage in which "politics" and reform are curiously mixed, he says: "All admit that an unpartisan, stable service is desirable, but an attempt to accomplish it until a just and fair distribution is made between the parties in the ratio of their respective voters will be futile." A year hence we shall probably find him so far advanced that he will comprehend, even more clearly than he does now, just what happened when Mr. Cleveland was elected President.

Governor Hoadly, of Ohio, recommends in his message that the State cease to be "pivotal," or in other words that the State elections should cease to be held in October, inasmuch as this causes both parties, in Presidential years, to make it the scene of great corruption and disorder, in their efforts to secure what is called "the moral effect" of a victory. Other States, and notably Pennsylvania and Indiana, have had to give up the "pivotal" position for similar reasons. After what occurred last fall, Ohio will probably gladly give it up too, because it was a disappointment to both parties. The result of the October election cheered up the Democrats mightily, but the "moral effect" was apparently worthless, because Blaine got a large majority in November. Marshal Wright, who employed about 600 bad characters in Hamilton County as deputy marshals, to watch the polls and bully the Democrats, confesses before the Congressional Committee to have received from the National Republican Committee, before the October election, the very odd gift of 600 "bulldog" pistols, and he distributed about 300 of them among his deputies. It does not appear as yet proved that these deputies really prevented anybody from voting, but that many of them were non-residents and ruffians, unfit to be armed and charged with any official duty, especially on election day, seems to be admitted on all hands.

The truth is, that the United States statute giving marshals power to appoint an unlimited number of deputies to keep order at elections was passed, like all statutes, on a theory which has no foundation now in the practice of the Government: the theory that the Government occupies a non-partisan position at elections. If this were true, and United States marshals were selected in accordance with it, there would be no harm in leaving the number or character of their deputies on election day to their discretion. But it is not true. On election day all the officers of the Government appear as partisans, some of them as furious partisans, whose object is by no means to see fair play, but to see that their own side somehow comes off victorious. The reason why they play this part is, that they fear that they will be turned out and lose their living if there is a change of Administration. Consequently Wright, in collecting a large force of blackguards, and arming them with Jones's bulldog pistols, really felt himself defending his bread and butter. It will be President Cleveland's duty to help put an end to this state of things, and restore to the officers of the Government a correct notion of their position and duty. That Dudley, who passed two months in a corrupt and corrupting Blaine canvass in Ohio, while drawing pay from the United States Treasury, cannot be sued, and made to refund, shows a serious defect in the law, as his taking the money was, under the circumstances, really as great a fraud on the country as if he had run off with it or cooked his accounts.

Among the wise sayings of Mr. Samuel J. Randall in his recent Southern tour we find the following:

> "You may talk to me about free trade. There can be no free trade between the United States and any country successfully where the business rate of interest in one is different from the business rate of interest in the other; and where the wages for like work are different in the one from the other. The country which has the lower rate of interest and pays the lower rate of wages will exhaust the other."

This method of grouping the rate of interest and the rate of wages together was very happily conceived, if the intention of the speaker was to produce the same confusion in the minds of his hearers that there was in his own mind. He might have said with equal propriety that there can be no free trade between two countries where the average rainfall and the percentage of church-goers are different. How is it possible, according to the Randall theory, for England and India to trade without one or the other being ruined? India has a very low rate of wages—perhaps the lowest in the world. Yet England has free trade with India, and sends her vast quantities of cotton goods. India, on the other hand, has a higher rate of interest than England; nevertheless, India is increasing her cotton manufactures rapidly, and more rapidly since the repeal of her duties on cotton goods than before. Since 1880 the number of spindles in the Bombay Presidency alone has risen from 1,151,000 to 1,540,000, and the number of mills from 42 to 61. The consumption of raw cotton has doubled in seven years. Will not Mr. Randall tell us in some detail how the rate of interest and the rate of wages conspire to produce these results?

The Charleston *News and Courier* begins the new year with an earnest editorial appeal to

the ladies and gentlemen of South Carolina to make pistol-carrying odious by rigidly excluding from their society those known habitually to go armed, as they would those who possess burglars' "kits." It urges specific mention of murders by the press, and a faithful and detailed report of the evidence, that committing officers and jurors may not, when remiss, escape public censure, and calls earnestly for the conviction, as soon as the first opportunity offers, of some member of that peculiar class of "gentlemen" who are accustomed, because the pistol is always convenient, to turn what would commonly prove merely a slight altercation into a shocking homicide.

Governor Jarvis, in his recent message to the Legislature of North Carolina, having in mind the late lynching in that State, warmly recommends as an imperative necessity an increase in the number of Superior Court judges, reduced ten years ago from twelve to nine. The delay in the trial of criminals which now prevails in the State, he says, has put the law-abiding spirit of the people to a test which some communities have not been able to stand. He very justly intimates that legislators who refuse to provide a sufficient number of tribunals for the trial of criminals, deserve some of the condemnation heaped upon lynchers. Recommendations of this kind cannot be too frequently urged by Governors of Southern States. Others praying for the passage of a law abridging the right of criminals to new trials might with great propriety be added.

There is one notable fact about the dynamiters who had the bloody quarrel in O'Donovan Rossa's den last week which has not been sufficiently dwelt upon by our esteemed contemporaries, and especially by the *Tribune*. Captain Phelan, who was so nearly murdered, was a prominent Blaine advocate in the late campaign, and shared with the gifted Finerty, of Chicago, the honor of leading the Irish Blaine contingent in the West. Whether Short, the would-be assassin, was a Blaine man or not, does not appear, but the first man to call upon him in prison as his personal friend was one of the little band of Blaine Irishmen who used to meet once a week in the "Headquarters" in Fourteenth Street, furnished for the purpose by Elkins, and there denounce Great Britain and extol Blaine as the man who would bring England to her knees if he became President. The *Tribune* was wont to report these weekly proceedings with great respect, and always spoke of the assembled dynamiters as "Independent Irishmen." Now that they have leaped into wider fame, we do not think that the *Tribune* ought to show so much false modesty in concealing its former association with them.

The excitement produced in London, Short and Phelan will be glad to hear, by their encounter in O'Donovan Rossa's office, is intense. The cable despatches report that it has driven all political complications, both home and foreign, out of men's minds, and all eyes are fixed on New York. Great and very extraordinary results are expected to flow from the affray. The *Telegraph* thinks the United States will now "interfere with the operations of the murder colony," but does not explain how. The editor probably supposes that when an attempt at murder in New York is unusually serious or exasperating, the President orders the prisoner and a few of his friends to be taken out of the hands of the State authorities and tried by court-martial in Washington. The *St. James's Gazette* is still more obscure, for it "wishes it could be believed that American politicians could be seriously induced to think about extirpating Rossa and his crew; but there will be a Democratic President at the head of affairs, and there is the Irish vote to be considered." This is very mysterious, but if it means anything, it probably means that "American politicians" can, if they please, and whenever they please, "extirpate" any collection or gang of evil-disposed persons whose mode of life in any of our great cities they do not like; and that they would perhaps deal in this way with Rossa and his gang, but for the opposition which President Cleveland would offer to such a proceeding, owing to his fear of the "Irish vote," which, by the way, went to Blaine at the late election. The *Morning Post* is on the whole the most profound of the commentators. It foresees that the Mayor and the District Attorney, "having been elected as anti-Irish candidates," and the Mayor and Recorder, though both Irishmen, being of "the anti-agitation type," they will not only have Short brought to trial, but will extract from "the criminations of Captain Phelan, and the recriminations of his assailant, much respecting the methods, plans, and history of the dynamite league"; and then we are to have, based on these revelations, a new State law against dynamiters and a new Federal extradition act. This is all rather melancholy reading, because not only does it contain no hint or suggestion of a way in which the United States, or the State of New York, could act against the dynamiters, but it shows that the English daily press is so ignorant as to the American law and American political manners that it is incapable of making any suggestions. The blunders of the French press about English institutions and manners afford a great deal of amusement in England, but are they more absurd than those of most writers in the London press on points of American law and politics, whenever they have to go into detail?

The steady adhesion of the Irish to Parnell, and in fact obedience to him in all election matters, as recently illustrated in Tipperary, over which the London *Times* makes such gloomy comments, is one of the best signs of the times in Irish politics, because it shows the growth of sound political sense among the people. The two Irish politicians to whom the Irish have been most indebted since the Union are O'Connell and Parnell. They are the only men who accomplished anything for them in Parliament. All the others simply made motions in the House of Commons, which Englishmen hardly took the trouble to debate, and which never had any result. O'Connell compelled Catholic emancipation, and Parnell has compelled at last a serious attempt to solve the land question, in the teeth of the indifference of the English public and the hostility of the whole land-holding class. If the Irish failed to follow leaders who had done such things for them, and heed them implicitly in politics as long as the fight lasted, they would furnish a crowning proof of their political incapacity.

The view of Lord Wolseley's enemies in England of late has been that, if he ever reached Khartum at all, it would not be before March. He now announces, however, that he will be there by January 24. In fact, the road to Shendy from Korti seems to be completely open to him, and, since he obtained secure possession of the wells at Gakdul half way across, presents no difficulties. At Shendy Gordon's steamers are waiting for him, and there is then a comparatively easy trip of ninety miles up the river. It is, however, very likely that he will find it harder to get away from Khartum than to reach it, because he will have to convoy a large body of non-combatants. There is a considerable number of European traders in the place, besides Egyptians, with their families, who must be removed, and their transportation will be a work of considerable difficulty. In fact, it is hard to see how General Gordon can well refuse to carry off with him any inhabitant of the place who is not a native of the Sudan, and has stood by him during the siege.

One of the great perplexities into which the Gladstone Government finds itself plunged is due to the adoption of the Monroe doctrine by the Australian colonies. They some time ago made up their minds that all the islands, great and small, included under the term Australasia, should belong to men of the English race, and in view of this proposed to occupy as a beginning the immense island of New Guinea, then in the possession of savages. The Government at home, however, which is getting alarmed over the size of the empire, opposed this, and assured them that there was no danger of foreign meddling. However, as a partial satisfaction, possession was taken of the southern end of New Guinea. But now comes Bismarck and occupies northern New Guinea, besides the adjacent islands of New Britain, New Ireland, and others not a few. The Australians are furious over this, because they say the appearance of a foreign Power in these waters will force them to keep up an army and navy, and have a foreign policy and all the rest of it. At present there seems no way out of the difficulty short of a war with Germany. Of course nothing would be easier than to drive the Germans out of the South Pacific, and the German army would be of little consequence in the conflict; but German cruisers could inflict terrible damage on British commerce, and then Great Britain is already sufficiently isolated in European politics, and sufficiently embarrassed by the Egyptian trouble, not to wish to have a quarrel with a first-class Power on her hands. Nor is Bismarck the man to recede easily from a position he has once taken, and which flatters the national pride. On the other hand, he can hardly hope to occupy New Guinea and New Britain comfortably and prosperously in the teeth of the hostility of the British colonies; and something in the shape of a "deal" will probably be resorted to to get rid of him—that is, something nearer home will probably be offered him in its stead.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, January 6, to TUESDAY, January 13, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the U. S. Senate on Wednesday, the House joint resolution appropriating $50,000 to relieve the wants of the destitute Piegan Indians, was passed. The Nicaragua treaty was reported favorably from the Committee on Foreign Relations. It was voted on Thursday to discuss it in secret session.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday, the Consular and Diplomatic Appropriation Bill was introduced. It appropriates $1,190,885, a reduction under the appropriation for the present fiscal year of $34,255, and under the estimates of $432,291. The bill provides for an agent and Consul-General at Cairo, Egypt, at an annual salary of $5,000, and for a Consul-General at Madrid, Spain. The House passed the Reagan Inter-State Commerce Bill on Thursday—yeas 158, nays 65. The House on Friday afternoon adopted the resolution introduced by Mr. Belmont relative to the Congo question. His resolution was chosen instead of that of Mr. Herbert, as it contained no reflection upon the State Department. It is expected that the Department will make a speedy answer and will defend its policy.

Mr. Randall, Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, made the important statement in the House on Saturday, that unless the Committee shall be given the floor from now on continuously whenever an appropriation bill shall be ready, an extra session will be inevitable, and he did not regard an extra session as desirable either for Congress or the Democratic party. Mr. Randall was not given the floor for the appropriation bill that was ready. He was voted down by a combination of those who desired to bring up the public-building bills, and this combination was in its turn prevented from getting the floor. Later in the day, the public-buildings combination having been defeated, the House proceeded with the consideration of the new Naval Appropriation Bill.

The resolution appropriating $100,000 for the pedestal of the Bartholdi statue was reported favorably to the House on Saturday.

In the Senate on Monday there was a lively debate over Senator Hawley's resolution calling for a certain letter and documents filed by General Sherman with the War Department. This has reference to the allegation of General Sherman that Jefferson Davis at one time wrote a letter aiming at a dictatorship in the South. Mr. Vest (Dem., Mo.) objected to the resolution. He spoke of General Sherman as a friend and constituent of his. He then gave a history of the controversy from its inception, stating that it arose from a statement made by General Sherman at a meeting of a Grand Army post in St. Louis. Mr. Vest said that while he was in the Confederate Senate he felt called upon many times to oppose Mr. Davis in matters of policy, etc., but now that Davis is a poor old broken-down man, broken in health and fortune, he ought to be permitted to rest. Mr. Vest also protested against the resolution as tending to revive the animosities of the past which had better be permitted to sleep. Messrs. Morgan, George, Harris, and Lamar also objected. The latter made a positive denial that Mr. Davis ever wrote such a letter. Mr. Hawley said he wanted the Sherman letter printed because it contained matter valuable in an historical sense. He avowed his entire sympathy with General Sherman in the personal and political phases of the question, and asserted that there was a conspiracy on foot in Washington in 1861 to establish a Southern Confederacy, and that certain Senators were to remain there and prevent legislation that would interfere with the conspirators. No vote was taken, and the incident closed at the expiration of the morning hour, when the Senate went into executive session.

The debate was continued on Tuesday. Senator Vance, of N. C., asserted with great positiveness that he had never received such a letter from Jefferson Davis as was alleged by General Sherman. Senator Brown, of Ga., said that while he was Governor of that State he never disobeyed any legal order of President Davis. When the resolution was put to vote it was carried, ten Democrats voting in the negative.

A statement prepared by the United States Treasurer shows that there are now outstanding $26,523,144 in one-dollar notes, and $26,840,217 in two-dollar notes. The Treasurer says that there is now no scarcity of notes of small denominations, and he is prepared to supply all legal demands for them.

General Grant has declined in advance the offer of the fund which Cyrus W. Field, George W. Childs, A. J. Drexel, and other of his friends started a short time ago to raise by subscription, in order to release the property pledged by the ex-President for his debt of $150,000 to William H. Vanderbilt. In a letter to Mr. Field the General says: "I appreciate both the motive and the friendship which have dictated this course on your part, but on mature reflection I regard it as due to myself and family to decline this proffered generosity."

Mr. Vanderbilt has attempted to acquit General Grant of the above debt of honor, which was incurred in connection with the failure of the firm of Grant & Ward. Mr. Vanderbilt, having bought in all the personal property pledged by General Grant as security for the debt, on Saturday wrote to Mrs. Grant, presenting it, together with the judgments obtained at the request of General Grant, to Mrs. Grant, the only condition being that on the General's death, or sooner if she desired, the latter's trophies of war and peace having an historical interest should go to the national Government. This offer was declined with thanks so far as everything except the trophies was concerned. These, General Grant said, should go to Washington as soon as they could be transmitted. On Sunday Mr. Vanderbilt wrote a second letter, in which he modified his offer so as to create a trust fund out of the proceeds of the real-estate, the income for the fund to go to Mrs. Grant during her lifetime, and the principal to be at her disposal by will. This offer was at first accepted, but later was declined in a letter written by Mrs. Grant.

President-elect Cleveland went to Buffalo on Friday for a short visit. He attended the charity ball that evening.

A Leavenworth, Kan., despatch on Friday said: "The true inwardness of the St. John sell-out came to light to-day in the confession of James F. Legate, a prominent Kansas politician and Prohibitionist. Legate confesses that he attempted to sell out St. John to the Republican Committee."

The National Committee of Independent Republicans, at a meeting in this city on Monday, decided to continue its existence, to meet at the call of its proper officers, and to preserve its rolls and records.

The Connecticut Legislature elected Mr. Harrison, the Republican nominee, Governor, on Thursday, and he was installed in that office. At the November election no candidate for Governor received a majority of all the votes.

The Albany *Evening Journal* on Thursday printed a list of fifty-four members of the New York Legislature who, it asserted, were for Evarts for United States Senator as against Morton. The *Journal* added: "Unless the promises of men go for nothing, and written words fail to express their usual meaning, unless evil influences succeed in quarters where we have not believed it possible for them to find success, the next Senator from the State of New York will be William M. Evarts." The accuracy of this list has been seriously disputed.

An annual review of Southern industries shows that during the past year, in fourteen Southern States, there have been 1,865 new manufacturing and mining enterprises organized, with an aggregate capital of $105,269,500.

Captain Thomas Phelan, Superintendent of the Kansas City Workhouse, was desperately cut and slashed on Friday afternoon by a man named Richard Short, in O'Donovan Rossa's newspaper office in Chambers Street. Short is an Irishman. There are conflicting stories about the manner of the assault, but Phelan declares that a deliberate attempt was made to assassinate him, because he had talked about certain secrets of the dynamiters to a reporter of the *Kansas City Journal*. He came to New York in consequence of a letter from one Kearney, one of the dynamiters in question. This letter is in the possession of the police. Short was arrested as he was quietly walking across the City Hall Park after the stabbing. He was confronted with Phelan, who identified him as his assailant, and then suddenly drew a revolver and shot at him. The aim was good, but the bullet was stopped by a metal match case. Short was then locked up. Phelan is likely to recover.

Richard Short, who made the attack on Phelan, was suspected by the Irish police authorities to have been connected with the Cork dynamite conspiracy. When Featherstone was arrested in March, 1883, Short's house was searched. Short thereupon went to America. Phelan assisted Kearney to leave England when the latter was suspected of being a dynamite conspirator by the Glasgow police. Kearney used to be a signalman on the Caledonian Railway at Glasgow. He had attended dynamite meetings and had been associated with Featherstone. He left his position just before the railway company's works and the Corporation Gas Works were made the objects of dynamite outrages.

General George M. Wright, the State Treasurer of New Jersey, died at Bordentown on Thursday, aged sixty-seven years. Jonathan H. Blackwell, of Trenton, was appointed on Monday to succeed him.

Myra Clark Gaines, the famous litigant, died in New Orleans on Friday night, aged 78. Her suits to recover property valued at many millions of dollars have been in the courts for more than forty years. She was a brilliant woman, who gained her legal victories by persistency and acuteness.

Prof. Henry Lawrence Eustis, Dean of the Harvard Scientific School, died at his residence in Cambridge, Mass., on Sunday morning, aged sixty-six. He was graduated at Harvard in 1838. He then entered the Military Academy at West Point, and was graduated at the head of his class in 1842, among his classmates being Generals Grant, Sherman, and Halleck. In 1849 he became Professor of Engineering in the new Scientific School at Harvard. He reëntered the army in 1862 as Colonel of the Tenth Massachusetts Regiment, and was made a Brigadier-General in 1864; soon after which, his health failing, he resigned his command and resumed his professorship at Harvard. He was the author of technical books on engineering science.

Captain Charles W. Folger, only son of the late Secretary of the Treasury, died of consumption at his home in Geneva, on Sunday, at the age of forty. He leaves a widow and five children.

Schuyler Colfax dropped dead in the Union Depot at Mankato, Minn., on Tuesday, from heart disease. He was born in New York city, March 23, 1823, and removed to Indiana in 1838. He established a Whig paper at South Bend, Ind., in 1845, and edited it for ten years. In 1855 he entered Congress, and was a member until 1869, being Speaker of the House for the last six years of that time. On March 4, 1869, he became Vice-President under General Grant. Of late years he has lived in retirement, occasionally lecturing.

John B. Jervis, a noted American civil engineer, died on Tuesday at Rome, N. Y., aged ninety. He superintended the construction of

many of the most important railroads and canals in the country.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone's health is pronounced to be greatly improved.

Prince Albert Victor, of Wales, heir presumptive to the British throne, attained his majority on Thursday. This event was made the occasion of general rejoicings.

The British Government has decided to create a Minister of Education, and it is probable that Mr. Lyon Playfair will receive the appointment. The new Minister will have a seat in the Cabinet.

Mr. Parnell has been triumphant in the Tipperary County, Ireland, contest. At the second nominating convention, held on Wednesday, Mr. Parnell presiding, Mr. O'Ryan, who was nominated for member of Parliament several weeks ago, withdrew, and Mr. O'Conner, Mr. Parnell's candidate, who was rejected at the first convention, was unanimously chosen as the Parliamentary candidate.

Mr. Parnell addressed a meeting at Tipperary on Thursday. He promised the farmers the full fruits of their toil, and a much larger reduction than the pretended fair rents of the land court, which meant bankruptcy, would give them. Landlordism would soon disappear when really fair rents were obtained. He looked forward to the extension of the Laborers' Act to give laborers a share in their national heritage, and advised the tenant farmers, in justice to the laborers, to avoid coercion. It was impossible, he declared, for home rule to be long delayed.

It is officially announced in London that a messenger arrived at Khartum on December 27, bearing a letter from General Wolseley to General Gordon. He left Khartum on the 28th, but was captured and beaten. The papers intrusted to him by General Gordon were taken from him, with the exception of a small note, which was sewed in his clothes, and which said that General Gordon and the garrison were in good health and spirits, and that steamers were bringing cattle and grain from the North. Gordon attacks the rebels on every possible occasion. The messenger returned to Korti on foot, arriving on Sunday.

Lord Charles Beresford's naval brigade arrived at Korti on Wednesday. They made the journey up the Nile from Sarrass in twenty-seven days. They are in good health and spirits. They will accompany the expedition across the desert, and on their arrival at Metamneh will man General Gordon's steamers. Stores of provisions are being sent daily to Gakdul, where a depot is being formed. General Wolseley telegraphed from Korti, January 7, 4:10 P. M.: "A strong convoy is leaving camp for Gakdul. General Stewart will take another to-morrow for Metamneh, which we expect to occupy by the 15th instant. If a steamer is found there, we shall communicate with General Gordon without delay." The Black Watch Regiment started from Korti for Meraweh on Thursday. A messenger who left Gakdul on Sunday reached Korti on Friday with despatches for Lord Wolseley. He fell in with some armed natives at some wells on the way, who treated him in a friendly manner and gave him correct directions as to the way, his guide having proved false. The messenger reports that the country for eighty miles out from Korti is open, but beyond that point is dangerous from the caravans of the Mahdi.

General Lord Wolseley telegraphed the Prince of Wales on Friday that he would reach Khartum by January 24. He telegraphed the Government advising it immediately to despatch 3,000 picked troops to Suakim to operate against Osman Digna and open the Berber route. He recommended that General Graves be placed in command of the troops to go to Suakim, and asked that another battalion be sent to reinforce the Nile expedition. It is surmised that he expects heavy fighting after Khartum has been relieved. A detachment of General Gordon's troops is at Shendy.

All the members of the Egyptian Debt Commission at Cairo, with the exception of the English delegate, have signed a statement to the effect that the financial proposals of Earl Granville are unacceptable. It is understood that France desires the Powers to make a simultaneous answer to England's proposals for the settlement of the Egyptian question. Active negotiations are in progress between Germany, Austria, Russia, and France with the view of despatching an identical note in answer to the proposals. Italy has not been asked to join in the negotiations.

Protocol 39 was distributed among the delegates of the Congo Conference at Berlin on Wednesday. It provides that any Power annexing territory in the Congo country shall notify the other Powers taking part in the Conference of the fact, in order that they may recognize the protectorate or advance their own claims to the territory annexed. Any Power establishing such protectorate must agree to maintain peace in respect to the rights of nations as to commerce and transit.

At a meeting of the Conference on Wednesday the decision of the Committee on the slavery question, binding the Powers to adopt all possible means to prevent slave traffic in the Congo territory, was unanimously adopted. During the sitting of the Conference on Thursday Mr. Kasson repeatedly expressed the desire of America that the rights of the aborigines should be respected.

The London *Post's* Berlin despatch on Wednesday said the activity in the Congo Conference of the American delegates, Minister Kasson and General Sanford, seemed to indicate a wish to make clear that America will in the future be more concerned in European interests than has been the case heretofore.

It was reported from Berlin on Friday that General Sanford ridiculed the resolution offered in the United States Congress regarding the American representation in the Congo Conference. He expressed confidence that the negotiations of France with the African International Association would soon be completed. The Berlin *National Gazette* said on Friday that the American delegates to the Congo Conference explicitly disavowed any intention on the part of the United States to be responsible for the execution of the resolutions of the Conference on account of having taken part in its deliberations.

The framework of the new Congo State Constitution is based upon the principles of English colonial administration, there being a Governor, entitled *Chef d'État*, three Deputy Governors, and a full number of officials in the various districts. Brussels will be the headquarters of the Government. King Leopold, of Belgium, has already expended $5,000,000 in forwarding the work of the African International Association, and he still adheres to his promise to bestow upon it a yearly endowment of $200,000.

The German Reichstag reassembled on Thursday. During a debate Prince Bismarck said that the new tariff had resulted in a better condition of the people generally. He said that certain classes of poor native labor needed further protection, and that small proprietors emigrated because they were unable to profit by their labors. He proposed to alleviate their burdens by raising the duties on corn. This view of the matter, he said, was shared by the farmers; Germany was a nation of farmers and required duties on corn. On Friday Bismarck met with another rebuff. The Budget Committee moved that the proposed credit of 150,000 marks for African colonization be reduced by one-third. Prince Bismarck opposed the motion, and urged prompt action in regard to the colonization project of the Government in order to anticipate the other Powers. A motion to refer the credit back to the Budget Committee was adopted by a vote of 135 to 128, although both Prince Bismarck and the Minister of the Interior strongly opposed this action.

Commander Knorr, of the German squadron on the coast of West Africa, telegraphed on Friday that the corvettes *Olga* and *Bismarck* had suppressed the revolt among the negroes in Cameroons. Several chiefs and a number of natives were killed or captured, and many villages were destroyed.

The Madagascar Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies has prepared a report adverse to the extension of offensive operations in Madagascar. It recommends that the operations be limited to a maintenance of the posts already occupied.

The Paris *Événement* on Wednesday published an interview with General Campenon, late Minister of War. General Campenon says Prince Bismarck is luring M. Ferry on to unforeseen difficulties. He has already embroiled France with Italy and Spain, and now with England. France ought to conserve her energies for a struggle in Europe, and not be wasting them on colonization schemes. The present contest with China is likely to be far more formidable than that of 1860. M. Ferry's policy General Campenon pronounced "deceptive, and totally opposed to that pursued by Gambetta."

General Lewal, French Minister of War, has unfolded his plans for the French operations in Tonquin. Reinforcements will start for that country at the beginning of February. General Lewal has fixed the number at 6,400, which will make a total effective force of 31,500 men, not including the 4,000 men in the Formosa expedition. The *Figaro* says that the Government is convinced that the campaign must go further than operations in Tonquin, and that it intends to occupy Canton. Admiral Courbet has been ordered to occupy Tamsui before February, and, after garrisoning Kelung and Tamsui, to raise the blockade of Formosa. General Brière Delisle telegraphed from Tonquin on Sunday announcing the arrival of 3,200 reinforcements in the best of health and spirits, and stating that he is ready to march on Langson.

The French Government received news on Monday of a revolution in Cambodia headed by a brother of the King. Chinese emissaries fomented the trouble. Late despatches on Tuesday announced that quiet had been restored.

The business of exporting art products from France to America has suffered greatly from the American duty on pictures and other art creations. The American Consulate at Paris has just been compiling the statistics of the art exportation from France to the United States during the past three years. In 1882 the exports were of the value of $1,800,000; in 1883, $1,200,000, and in 1884 only $600,000.

The trial of Mme. Clovis-Hugues for the murder of her traducer, M. Morin, a private detective, took place in Paris on Thursday. The court-room was crowded, and many eminent and notorious persons were present. Mme. Clovis-Hugues displayed great nerve during the trial, and calmly admitted that the murder was premeditated, but dramatically narrated the insults she had been subjected to by M. Morin. The plaintiffs denied that M. Morin wrote the insulting post-cards. The jury, which was divided, returned a verdict acquitting Mme. Clovis-Hugues of murder, but awarding $400 damages to M. Morin's father, Mme. Clovis-Hugues to pay the costs of the trial. The verdict was received with applause.

Fresh earthquake shocks were felt in the Province of Malaga, Spain, on Saturday. King Alfonso has started on a tour of the afflicted districts. This has allayed the panic and added much to the King's popularity.

The proposed expedition by Professor Nordenskjöld to the South Pole has been postponed until 1887.

It is reported that China and Japan have agreed to submit the Corean question to the mediation of the representatives of England, Germany, and America.

THE DEMOCRATS AND THE SILVER COINAGE.

THE responsibility for the purchase and coinage of two millions of silver dollars per month from this time forward will rest upon the Democratic party. Whatever mischief it may bring upon the business of the country, whatever embarrassment it may entail upon the incoming Administration, the Democrats in Congress will be answerable for. They have sufficient votes in both houses to suspend the coinage. The Republicans dare not oppose such a measure. Except the Senators from Colorado and Nevada, no opposition need be looked for on that side of the House. If any other opposition should be met, it would have to reckon with all the great commercial interests of the country. These interests are mainly Republican in their political attachments, and they will not fail to visit with their indignation any Senator or Representative who shall stand in the way of a remedial measure which, in the belief of the great body of business men, is absolutely necessary to a restoration of confidence and a return of prosperity. It is only a few months since the commercial community was agitated by the apprehension of a gold crisis. The Treasury Department, alarmed by the running down of its gold balance, had asked the Clearing-house Committee what action it would take if silver were tendered in the settlement of the Government balances. The answer was returned (unofficially) that the banks would loyally acquiesce in whatever the Government should deem needful. The crisis passed away, however, and the situation remains as before, with only the difference that there are eight or ten millions more of silver dollars on hand than there were then, and that the present Administration will pull through, leaving the crisis, with all that it implies, to the Democratic party.

The economic reasons for discontinuing the silver coinage have no effect upon Mr. Bland and his followers, because, if the worst should happen which anybody can picture or imagine, it would be the very thing which they want to bring about. They are not bi-metallists at all. Their ears are closed to the arguments of the bi-metallists both at home and abroad as tightly as against those of the "gold bugs." What they want is the poorest money attainable. This happens to be silver; consequently they are silver mono-metallists. If anything less valuable could be found which public opinion would tolerate, they would be for that as against either silver or gold. When so resolute a bi-metallist as Judge Buckner urges the necessity of a suspension of the coinage in order to pave the way for another International Conference, they oppose him with a motion to remove the existing limitations upon silver coinage. An international agreement is exactly what they do not want, for if it should have the effect which the bi-metallists claim, it would defeat their main purpose, to depreciate the money standard of the country.

But the Democratic party cannot avoid the political consequences of a money crisis coming within President Cleveland's term of office. Nor can they escape the financial embarrassments involved in the expenditure of $2,000,000 per month for useless ingots to be buried in the vaults of the Treasury. When the crisis comes, as it will come, it will be no answer to say that the way for it was prepared beforehand, that the explosive material was collected during the years of Republican rule. The public will not draw fine distinctions. They will hold the party which shall be in power at the time responsible for the mischief. Even if they should take pains to weigh judicially the responsibility, they would find that the Democratic party has furnished the larger share of the votes which have fastened the silver misery upon the country and refused any measure of relief.

But this is not the whole of the trouble. The estimates of the Secretary of the Treasury for the coming fiscal year show a surplus of only $6,000,000 over the regular expenses of the Government and the sinking fund, as against a surplus of $57,000,000 the past year. If the revenue continues to fall off as rapidly as it has fallen off during the past four months, Mr. Cleveland's Secretary of the Treasury will have a deficit staring him in the face before he gets fairly settled in his office; and instead of announcing to the country in his monthly bulletins a decrease of the public debt, he will be forced to acknowledge an increase. Here again the public will fail to make careful distinctions. The Republicans could have no more trenchant and cutting argument for the next campaign than a comparison in the matter of debt-paying between Democratic and Republican rule. In the face of such a contrast and of the political consequences which it entails, every dollar which can be saved ought to be saved; and of all the opportunities for economy nothing is half so inviting as economy in the purchase of silver bullion. Twenty-four millions per annum is its exact measure, and now is the time to apply it. Twelve months hence may be—in all human probability will be—too late.

THE OUTLOOK FOR TARIFF REFORM.

ALTHOUGH the tariff question did not constitute as prominent a feature in the recent Presidential campaign as Mr. Blaine and his friends desired to have it, it did, nevertheless, enter into the canvass to a considerable extent; and as the results which followed may fairly be regarded as affording some indication of what would have happened had it constituted the main issue between the two great parties and been everywhere intelligently discussed—both which contingencies are likely to occur in the not distant future—it will be interesting and profitable to look about and see what these results really were.

In the first place, the protectionists may certainly claim credit for having carried Pennsylvania (the home of Mr. Randall) on this issue, by a greatly increased majority—an achievement, however, very closely akin to the taking of Holland by the Dutch. Then, one of the most distinguished free-trade leaders — Mr. Frank Hurd—failed to obtain a reëlection in Ohio; but it is now well understood that, although Mr. Hurd's outspoken antagonism to the protective policy occasioned much opposition, this would not have defeated him had it not been for other and wholly local and personal causes. In Louisiana, also, one or two Democrats failed to obtain renominations because they were believed to be not sufficiently identified with protection to the sugar interests; but other Democrats were chosen in their places. And this is all, we think, that the protectionists can fairly claim in the way of gain as the result of the recent Presidential canvass.

On the other side, the first item is that Mr. Blaine, the advocate of excessive duties, was defeated in spite of his attempt to represent protection as the one thing necessary to national prosperity, and his opponent, who, if he may not be classed as a free-trader, is certainly not known to be a protectionist, was elected. The second item is the reëlection of Mr. Morrison. Extraordinary efforts were made to defeat him. Pig-iron contributed liberally to this end. The Republican National Committee flooded his district with the speeches of Democratic Congressmen who favored protection and opposed the "Morison bill"—as those of Eaton and Ferrell—while the St. Louis *Post-Dispatch*, a Democratic newspaper which circulates largely in Morrison's district, gave its support to the Republican high-tariff candidate. Mr. Morrison was, however, reëlected by a larger majority than ever; and, as he made tariff reform the main issue of his canvass, it is not a little significant that the Democratic gain in his district, as compared with the vote of 1880, was greater than in any other district in Illinois.

The next most notable matter was the result in Indiana, and especially in the Indianapolis District. In the latter there is a strong revenue-reform organization; and through its influence the Democratic Congressional nomination was given to Mr. W. D. Bynum, a leading lawyer of Indianapolis, and as uncompromising an opponent of protection as Frank Hurd himself. As a consequence the tariff was intelligently discussed, and Mr. Bynum was elected by over 1,500 majority, in a district which gave Garfield 2,400 in 1880 and elected Peele, Republican protectionist, in 1882. A like policy of bringing the tariff to the front was also followed throughout the State. Governor Hendricks took the aggressive, and he did not waver at any time. Blaine entered the State and attempted to make headway by vigorously preaching the beauties and benefits of high protection, and very curiously his path was everywhere marked by Democratic gains. Thus, for example, he spoke at South Bend, a manufacturing centre, and the Democrats here gained 500 over the vote of 1880; at Fort Wayne, another manufacturing place, and they gained 1,500; at Terre Haute, 800; at Logansport, 400; at Lafayette, 300, while at Evansville, a hitherto Republican Gibraltar, the result of his efforts was that Cleveland carried the county by a handsome majority. Blaine very significantly avoided Jeffersonville and New Albany—the latter the seat of the De Paw Glass Works—for there the principal establishments were idle, and he could not well talk of the happy condition of the laboring man under the protective policy. In Iowa, where revenue reform has been steadily preached during recent years, a plurality for Garfield in 1880 of 78,059, with no anti-protection Congressmen, was changed to 19,801 Republican plurality. Although this result was largely due to the temperance issue, four revenue-reform Congressmen were elected in 1884; and in two districts anti-protection candidates

were only defeated by personal considerations, and barely defeated at that. Of seven Iowa Congressmen who voted against the Morrison bill, but four were reëlected. Michigan returned seven Democratic Congressmen (out of eleven) pledged to work for tariff reform, and defeated Roswell G. Horr, whose district has a heavy Republican majority, but who failed to recognize as serious the desire of his constituents for an abatement of tariff taxation. His Democratic opponent fought him and beat him squarely on the issue of revenue reform, and won the election by over fifteen hundred majority. In the Detroit district, Maybury, who sustained the Morrison bill, was reëlected by over 5,000 majority.

It is also worthy of note that the only four Republican members from Minnesota who voted against striking out the enacting clause of the Morrison bill—Messrs. Nelson, Strait, Wakefield, and White—were all reëlected by pronounced majorities, and yet the State they represent, with only five Congressional districts, gave Blaine and Logan nearly twice the majority received by them in Iowa, with eleven Congressional districts.

In Ohio, Mr. Converse, who, with Randall, led the opposition to the Morrison bill in the House, and who especially championed the cause of the distressed wool-growers of his State, failed to obtain a renomination; while his successor, Mr. Outhwait, who made an anti-protection contest, won his election by a majority of 500 more than Converse received two years ago, when the Democrats carried Ohio by 19,000.

In the Atlanta district of Georgia, where Mr. Randall had an enthusiastic reception some time since, Mr. Hammond, who voted for Carlisle and for the Morrison bill, beat his competitor for the nomination, although he had all the influential newspapers of his district against him; and also won his election. In the Sixth District of Massachusetts, which includes the well-known manufacturing towns of Lynn, Malden, Medford, Stoneham, Wakefield, and Reading, Mr. Cabot Lodge, Chairman of the Republican State Committee, and a man of high character and qualifications, after swallowing the nomination of Mr. Blaine, which he had vigorously opposed in the Chicago Convention, obtained the Republican Congressional nomination. His opponent was Mr. Lovering, a member of the present Congress, and as the weak point in the case of the latter was assumed to be his support of the Morrison bill, Mr. Lodge forced the fighting on the tariff issue, and went back on his former well-recognized position and sympathies on this matter with as little hesitation as he did on his ante-Convention ideas about Mr. Blaine. The result was, that Mr. Lodge found that the Massachusetts workmen could no longer be humbugged with protection arguments, and preferred that Mr. Lovering should continue to serve them as representative, and continue to favor tariff reductions. In Connecticut, the protectionist Democrats muzzled Professor Sumner and Mr. S. B. Sargent in great part, and Mr. Wells to such an extent as they could, for fear that Mr. Eaton would be defeated in the Hartford district. The result was that Mr. Eaton lost his election. If Mr. Wells had been cordially supported, Governor Waller would probably have been elected, and the State carried for Cleveland by a much larger majority, for there was no town in which Mr. Wells spoke in which the Democrats did not gain very considerably. Finally, the Republicans worked the protection theory in New Jersey, New York, and Connecticut, to the fullest extent, and confidently expected to rally the masses to their cause as effectually as they did in the last weeks of the Garfield campaign. The workshops and factories in all these States were deluged with cards, showing how much more could be earned under high than low tariffs, and with gorgeous chromos exhibiting the interiors of laboring men's houses shielded by the tariff, where the inmates were feasting sumptuously on roast turkey, and, in juxtaposition, the interiors of free-trade houses, where turnips and dry crackers were the "chief of their diet." But it was of no use. The people had come to see that high tariff is only another name for high taxation, and to realize, through hard experience, that only a few can get rich out of it, and that the many are necessarily impoverished by it. And the testimony is concurrent, from all parts of the country, that no speakers were received with more interest by the masses, or listened to more attentively, than those who were able to present intelligently the cause of freer trade and tariff reform.

THE COPYRIGHT AGITATION.

Senator Hawley, of Connecticut, introduced in the Senate on Tuesday week an international copyright bill, the passage of which is favored by the American Copyright League. Its provisions are as follows:

1. The citizens of foreign States and countries of which the laws, treaties, or conventions confer, or shall hereafter confer, upon citizens of the United States rights of copyright equal to those accorded to their own citizens, shall have in the United States rights of copyright equal to those enjoyed by citizens of the United States.
2. This Act shall not apply to any book or other subject of copyright published before the date hereof.
3. The laws now in force in regard to copyright shall be applicable to the copyright hereby created, except so far as the said laws are hereinafter amended or repealed.
4. Section 4971 of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby repealed. Section 4954 is amended by striking out the words "and a citizen of the United States or resident therein." Section 4967 is amended by striking out the words "if such author or proprietor is a citizen of the United States or resident therein."
5. The proclamation of the President of the United States that such equality of rights exists in any country shall be conclusive proof of such equality.

It will be seen that this bill gives foreigners copyright here only when their government gives us copyright in its own jurisdiction. Under its provisions we shall get rather more than we give, for the copyright laws of most foreign countries are more liberal than ours; but this arises from the different policies of different countries, and is no objection to the bill, which abolishes the distinction between citizens and foreigners, and gives, for instance, American and English authors in either country precisely equal rights.

The object to be accomplished by this measure is precisely the same as that of the Dorsheimer bill of last year. It is a more concise bill, and will no doubt have the support of all those who are in favor of international copyright. There is, we understand, no antagonism between the two measures, but as action in the House this winter seems out of the question, and as the present House passes out of existence in a few weeks, the bill has been introduced into the Senate, whose existence is continuous, to expedite matters, and not to have to begin the work of agitation entirely anew next winter.

Public opinion has within the past four years made great strides in favor of an author's international copyright bill. The President, in his annual message this year, commended the subject to the attention of Congress, and the Judiciary Committee of the House reported a year ago, through Mr. Dorsheimer, that the justice of such a bill was too manifest to make it necessary to enter into any discussion, and urged the passage of a measure which would "remove the just reproach which has so long rested upon American law and practice." Many people suppose that foreign governments foster piracy of American works, just as our laws encourage the pillage of foreign authors; but this is an entire mistake. In England, foreigners may secure copyright if they are within the British dominion at the time of publication; and a general law on the subject authorizes the Queen at any time to direct, by Order in Council, that foreign authors shall be entitled to English copyrights when the country of which the foreign author is a citizen has granted reciprocal rights. Neither France nor Italy makes any distinction between foreigners and natives; and Spain gives foreigners copyright privileges for the same time accorded them in their own country. It may thus fairly be said that the general policy of civilized modern States is to foster literature without regard to nationality, while it is reserved for the United States alone to foster the trade of piracy at the expense of literature.

Germany has a copyright law which protects the foreign author on condition that his work shall be published by a house having its place of business in Germany, but this seems to be the only State which has applied the protective principle in this way. The Copyright League takes the ground that any attempt to apply the protective system to copyrights between this and foreign countries will break down, because in the case of the country with which (on account of the identity of language) we most need to establish copyright and break up piracy—that is, England—the provisions of her international law recognize only author's rights, and the condition of publication or manufacture in this country would destroy the reciprocity and justice of the scheme.

Most of the publishers—to judge by their support of the Dorsheimer bill last year—have come to the conclusion that the choice lies between a simple author's-copyright bill and a continuance of the present unfortunate system, which even those most strenuous in their advocacy of protection to American manufactures may well object to. Piracy, of course, operates as a discrimination in favor of foreign cheap literary labor—cheap because it is not paid for. Supposing an English and American author to stand, for example, on about the same level, the English book can be produced and sold here for a sum which represents the cost of publication

and a small profit, while the price of the American book must also include a royalty for the author. Is this protection to American literary labor?

But it has always seemed to us that there was no reason here for introducing the question of free trade and protection at all. What the advocates of international copyright ask is merely the protection of a property right, a right of ownership, *between* countries, which is now recognized in the domestic law of all countries. We do not make it a condition of a foreigner's right to own his coat or his hat or even to sell coats and hats that they shall be manufactured in this country. And if he has patented coats or hats, or other objects, his right in them our law will protect by patent here. We provide that if he imports them they shall pay duties, and in the same way we have a tariff on books and on all the materials which enter into the manufacture of books. To go to the point of insisting that a foreign author shall be robbed of his property unless he manufactures it here, is hardly giving that encouragement to literature which is among the duties imposed by the Constitution on Congress.

CANDLES.

It is curious that at the very time when we are resorting to electricity to light our streets more effectively, we should for the interiors of our houses be falling back on oil and candles. We hear now and then of some rich man who has his house lighted by electricity; but for ordinary domestic life the social forces all tend, and have for some years tended, in the direction of replacing gas by lamp and candle light. Roughly speaking, down to the time of the surrender of Richmond, we all used gas in our parlors and dining-rooms. In that bygone time, gas seemed to have driven out oil and candles finally and for ever, and a prediction that they would return would have seemed like a prediction that Broadway would become a "dirt road," or that people would cross over Buttermilk Channel dry shod, or that we should again take to living on the Battery. Gas was a peculiarly American light in its social aspect; we were a go-ahead people and liked light and plenty of it, and although we knew that candles were still burnt in England, we felt that it was merely because the English were not emancipated from the prejudices of the past and the slavery of inherited custom.

The reason now generally given by society for going back to oil is that it is "so much cheaper," but there is good ground for believing that this is merely a specious pretext, because it clearly will not explain the contemporaneous reintroduction of candles. Candles are dear and hard to get good, and any family which habitually dines by candle-light will, we venture to say, at the end of the year find, at least, that the saving produced by the use of the large umbrella and other lamps in the parlor, is counterbalanced by the loss on candles in the dining-room. We do not wish to weary the reader with statistics on a matter in which accurate estimates are so difficult to get, but expert housekeepers who have studied the question, and tried all kinds of illumination, are just those who laugh most sardonically when they hear of a reduction of expenses effected by means of oil and candles. Besides this, the class which alleges economy as its reason is notoriously not an economical class. The great bulk of Americans still use gas; it is the lavish classes, the fashionable set—in a word, the families which constitute what is known as "society"—who are responsible for the change. In the ordinary American home gas still reigns supreme; people save money, not by using gas, candles, and oil, but by using less gas.

The real reasons which led to the change are closely connected with the causes that have led to the abolition of New Year's day, the decline of the bouquet nuisance, the disappearance of the once universal custom of "introducing," the introduction of a quiet style of dressing in public, and many another curious social change, each one of which is in itself insignificant, but all of which taken together make American society so strikingly different nowadays from what it was, and was becoming, a few years ago. Fashion, a generation ago, seemed mainly bent on exaggerating what was vulgar; now its chief object seems to be to avoid what has become vulgarized by a too general adoption. Considering in what sort of a direction we were going a generation ago, the new departure is not a bad one, and it has been greatly reinforced, and perhaps, in fact, greatly caused, by the Anglomania which has got such a remarkable hold upon society. The English idea that gas is vulgar has accordingly found a home in New York, and it may be regarded as an accomplished fact that it is, for social purposes, on the wane.

Against this, as social reformers, we have not one word to say. Candle-light is very becoming to women, and the associations connected with it are all pleasant. No religious prejudices against it exist in this country. It is impossible to imagine any condition of society in which it will ever become vulgarized by too general use. We need have no dread, for instance, that it will ever become popular in the kitchen, or that even the strictest cooks will shrink from accepting situations in families which have gas in that part of the house. The great safeguard in this direction is the amount of care and attention which all substitutes for gas require. The tradition has been handed down to us that our ancestors occupied a great deal of their time in snuffing candles; but this duty is now replaced by the care of the peculiar cover, collar, or top, without which no modern candle is complete. The object of this being to protect the eyes from the direct rays of the light, it is necessary that it should be kept in position from the time dinner begins until it is over. But as wax, spermaceti, composite, or whatever the substance is of which candles are made, melts under the influence of heat, the angle of this object tends continually to alter, and a large part of the time of the guest or the host or his servants must be taken up in managing it, especially as, if the top tilts over too far, it takes fire. No mechanical device seems yet to have been invented which wholly gets over this difficulty, and, therefore, we may confidently say that candles will never become popular with persons of small incomes, who are hard-worked during the day, and need a mind free from care at the end of it.

With regard to oil, some of our most experienced inventors are now at work on lamp-wicks; and the danger that threatened society from the "duplex burner," which seemed at one time likely to become dangerously common, promises to disappear. A wick has been invented which, we understand, is absolutely certain at the end of an hour, unless unremitting vigilance is exercised, to either exhaust the oil, smoke the chimney, break it, or go out. It has only thus far been introduced in a few houses; but it will obviously prove much more popular than the old wick, which any one could manage. For some time, at any rate, so far as illumination is concerned, society may be able to look forward to a secure future.

MEMORY.

Mr. Huxley, commenting on a singular letter of David Hume, written at sixteen, says: "Though few thoughtful, lonely, studious boys of sixteen give vent to their thoughts in such stately periods, it is probable that the brooding over an ideal is commoner at this age than fathers and mothers, busy with the cares of practical life, are apt to imagine." If, instead of "imagine," he had said *remember*, it would have allied the truth he was uttering with many other truths not more clearly nor more often recognized than this. It would be well, perhaps, if the despicable weakness of remembrance and admirable powers of forgetting, which are an essential part of human nature, were more taken into account by us than they are, for they connect themselves both with blessings and with curses. Forgetfulness, usually thought of as one of the minor vices, is sometimes one of the highest virtues; while in some relations it may have as tragic effects as sinfulness, in other relations it may be a sign of supreme strength. It is often only by forgetting the things that are behind that we can press on to the things that are before. It has been excellently said by Balzac, "To forget is the great secret of strong and creative existences. . . . Feeble natures live in their sorrows instead of converting them into experience: they are saturated with them, and they consume themselves by sinking back each day into the misfortunes of the past."

The doublefacedness of all truth especially belongs to this one that we are considering. It is only by forgetting our own sorrows that we become able to help others directly and personally; but it is only by remembering them that we know what help to give. And this brings us back to Huxley's remark about fathers and mothers, and shows us that this parental dulness is but a part of the deplorable forgetting of our own past emotions, which we give proof of every hour in our intercourse with our fellow-creatures. Lack of sympathy is at bottom a failure of memory.

But to what extent is the faculty of memory under our control? Montaigne, in an accidental passage in his defence of Raymond de Sebonde, opposes vehemently the belief that we can forget at will, that there is a "science de l'oubli." He quotes but to dispute Cicero's counsel "to impress on the memory only the happiness of the past, and to efface from it the afflictions we have suffered." He disputes it on the ground that it is both cowardly and ridiculous: cowardly, because we should master adversity, not escape from it; and ridiculous, because we cannot make a choice in what memory presents to us, "since in no way is a thing so vividly impressed on our minds as by the desire to forget it." When Cicero says, "It is in our power to bury our misfortunes in a perpetual forgetfulness, and to remember our prosperities," Montaigne declares it false; and "this is true," he

says, when Cicero just afterward admits—"I remember what I would not; I cannot forget what I would."

But Montaigne defends his assertions by no arguments, and perhaps they are not so secure as they seemed to him. A "science of forgetting" is perhaps not impossible, and it may be we can learn how to efface from our memory what we will. The late Mr. Chauncey Wright, than whom there could scarcely be a better guide in such investigations, was of the opinion that "For the most part we remember what we like [not what we "like" to remember, but what we enjoy], and are therefore grateful to memory—the indulgent, the kind, the illusive painter of the past, whose pictures are, on the whole, bright day scenes, or, at the worst, tender twilights. I say for the most part and on the whole, notwithstanding typical instances to the contrary. . . . Its black marks are more delible than the white. Pleasures last longer than pains in memory, or more of them last, because the will practises memory in the rehearsal of them."

In these last words we grasp the clue which carries us through the mazes where Montaigne went astray. Even though the desire to forget an impression only intensifies the idea of it, the will can master memory in the end. Therefore must Cicero's thought be enlarged and modified. We must counsel ourselves to will to forget for our own sakes, to will to remember for the sakes of others. It is suicide to remember, it is cruelty to forget.

LORD RIPON'S VICEROYALTY, AND ENGLISH RULE IN INDIA.

LONDON, December 29.

THE departure from India of Lord Ripon, the Viceroy who has governed it since the present Ministry entered power in 1880, is an event of more than merely formal interest; for while it is regarded with satisfaction by the Anglo-Indian community of Calcutta, which disliked and feared his policy, it has led to an unprecedented series of demonstrations on the part of the native population, who regarded him as their friend and advocate. Even in England, where Indian affairs rarely stir much interest, people have been set thinking about the peculiar and delicate position of our sovereignty over that country by this remarkable display of native feeling, and its contrast to the sentiments of the British residents.

Lord Ripon is not a statesman of the first order. Nobody ever regarded him as a leader of men, and his sudden conversion to the Roman Catholic Church disparaged his judgment in the eyes of many. He was liked in England by his colleagues, not disliked by the public, which really knew very little about him, accepted as one of those respectable and useful administrators of the second rank who, under our system, get office the first time because something is expected from them, and get it on the second and all successive occasions merely because they have had it before. When Mr. Gladstone appointed him Viceroy, the ultra-Protestants, especially among the English Evangelicals and in the Scottish Free Church, raised a cry of horror, because, forsooth, he was a Roman Catholic; but the ridicule with which their horror was received showed how little power religious prejudice now has against a public man.

Lord Ripon's conduct as Viceroy, so far as here in England one can judge of it, has been marked throughout by earnestness and a sincere wish to benefit the people of India. His intentions have been excellent, and they do not seem to have been tinged by vain-glory or the desire for popular applause. On the other hand, he has shown some want of foresight and prudence. He miscalculated the temper of the English community in Bengal when he introduced the Criminal Jurisdiction Bill, which their opposition forced him, after a long and angry agitation, to withdraw. He was over-hasty for reforms when he made that bill follow so quickly on the measure for extending and developing local self-government in India—a change not only large in itself, but important as necessarily foreshadowing a further committal of power to the hands of local bodies mainly composed of natives. Toward the end of his Viceroyalty he started a third and not less serious measure of change, the Bengal Rent Bill, which has excited the hostility of the Zemindars or landlords (if one may call them so) of Bengal, and may cause further trouble before it becomes law. He may have been right, and most of us here in England think he was right in all these projects; but it was a bold thing to crowd them into the space of four years. With less haste there might have been more speed. His educational policy, of which less has been heard in England than of these controversial matters, seems to have been enlightened, and was, of course, marked by the same desire to benefit and advance the native population.

It is the warmth with which he has expressed this desire by words and acts, and the reception it has found at the hands of the Anglo-Indians on the one hand and the native population on the other, that makes his Viceroyalty, quiet as regards external policy, seem likely to mark an epoch in the annals of English rule in India. For the last fifty years, ever since the power of the East India Company became consolidated and the era of oppression and private enrichment began to be forgotten, England has recognized the duty of spending Indian revenues upon India, and of using them and all her resources there for the purpose of raising the moral and intellectual level of the native races, as well as of improving their material condition. Upon this point there has been no difference of opinion either at home or among the Anglo-Indian administrators of the country. Even the Mutiny did not check this current of sentiment; indeed, the assumption by the Crown of direct sovereignty over the country, which followed the struggle of 1857, rather quickened the growth of philanthropic sentiment and beneficent legislation, for it made the English more sensible of their responsibilities. And it was about this time that another development of the same disinterested policy began to be heard of, viz.: the admission of natives to posts in the upper part of the civil service and in the judiciary. This was a legitimate consequence of the impulse given to the higher education, and became easier to effect by the abolition of the old system of patronage and introduction of competitive examination for civil-service appointments. Before long, natives of India came to England to enter at the annual competition, though of course their numbers were small compared with those of the English candidates. Several natives have obtained judgeships; several have risen to good, although none to the highest places in the civil service; while another avenue to public life has been opened in the municipal councils of some of the Indian cities. Lord Ripon's Local Government Bill and Criminal Jurisdiction Bill were intended to extend the attributions of native bodies and the jurisdiction of native magistrates.

The Anglo-Indian community, when it took alarm at these measures, began to ask, and its friends in England to urge upon home opinion, the question, how far we mean to go in this direction. Does England really propose to extend self-government in any large measure to races like those which inhabit India? Does she believe that they are now, or can within any assignable period become, fit for it? What would be the first use to which self-government would be turned? Would it not be to overturn the edifice of English power, and throw the peninsula back into that chaos of petty and mutually hostile states for which England substituted her present strong and well-ordered dominion? Is there any use in blinking the fact that, as the English won India by the sword, so they must hold it by the sword? To expect native races, differing from us in customs, ideas, religion, wounded by our constant assumptions of social superiority, which the meaner sort of Englishmen display in the most offensive ways, not to dislike foreign rule and not to seek to get rid of it on the first possible occasion, is to misread history and human nature. It may be quite true that India and all classes in India, except the warlike retainers of some native potentates, are better off under English government than they would be under any native government, whether Mohammedan or Hindu. Life and property are secure, the Hindu is not suffered to rise against the Mohammedan, nor the Mohammedan to oppress the Hindu. Trade is far more prosperous than it ever was before, communication easier. Famines are averted or relieved. Industrial enterprises are promoted; education is beginning to be provided; the frontiers are guarded against invasion. Nevertheless, all these benefits have not really conciliated the affection of the people, and would not prevent an insurrection, should one break out, from spreading far, nor Russia, should she attempt an invasion, from finding a great deal of support. It becomes necessary, therefore (so these Anglo-Indians argue), not only to maintain the full military establishment of India, but to let the people clearly understand that England means to keep the government absolutely in her own hands, neither encouraging natives to aspire to high posts in her service, nor intrusting to them any but the most routine and unimportant departments of local government.

These doctrines are not popular in England, for they run counter to the popular view about India, which is sympathetic and even sentimental. A singular illustration of this was afforded the other day by the acceptance of a Hindu from Bengal as candidate for the borough of Greenwich, one of the divisions of London. Mr. Lal Mohun Ghose is a speaker of much fluency and even eloquence, who has been sent to England by a native association in Calcutta to plead on English platforms for certain legislative and administrative changes which these natives desire. His able addresses have made him popular, and the Liberal "nominating convention," if we may call it so, for the Parliamentary district of Greenwich adopted him by a large majority. As the Redistribution Bill will alter the constituency, no one can tell what are his chances of getting in; but that he should be run at all is a new and significant phenomenon. The Anglo-Indians' contempt for natives does not exist at all here, and their wish to keep the natives down finds no echo in the English democracy, which is quite capable of passing resolutions in favor of extending political rights to its Indian subjects.

However, the English democracy has so far thought very little about India—even less than does the House of Commons, in which an Indian debate is a rare event and gathers a very thin attendance. Indian affairs are left almost entirely to the Government on the spot and the Indian Secretary in London, whose policy is largely influenced by the Council of old Indian officials which sits to advise him. There is no likelihood that any sudden step will be taken to develop a sentimental policy, still less to recede from the promises already made. But among the retired Indians who have not joined in the attack on Lord Ripon, there are sages who

nevertheless hold the situation in India to be one of increasing difficulty. They point out that our educational system, especially the universities founded in India, are raising up a class of persons who will have ambitions to be satisfied, and who will make leaders for their fellow-subjects. We are breaking down caste, and thereby removing the greatest barrier which kept each group of the Hindu population aloof from the others. The rapid extension of the English tongue, which will soon be understood by the richer class all over India, will supply a means of intercourse between different races and parts of the country such as has never been seen before. Railways and telegraphs are covering British possessions and entering the native States; they, too, will contribute to fuse the native races together, and to make more manifest the scantiness of the European force that holds an empire peopled by two hundred and forty millions. It does not follow that in conferring these benefits on India, you really acquire the friendship and gratitude of her people; one may do great things for others and be no better liked by them. Nor does it follow that even if the intelligent class perceive the value of your rule and desire to maintain it, they will be able. The position of two hundred thousand Europeans (which is about our full number in India) among subjects twelve hundred times more numerous, can never be a safe one.

These alarms may be well founded, but what practical course do they suggest? Certainly not the closing of the universities and the stoppage of the railways, nor cessation of the promotion of natives in the civil service. It is too late to do any of these things, for even if English opinion permitted them, which no persuasion could bring it to, it would be deemed a sign of fear in India, and would excite legitimate discontent there. We must, therefore, persevere in the present path, watching the signs of the times as carefully as may be, and avoiding all secondary sources of danger. One good forward step would be to mollify the minds and mend the manners of the Anglo-Indians. The scorn which they habitually—and especially, of course, the non-official part of them, for the civil service has always had a sense of its duties in this respect—display toward even the well-born and well-educated natives, rankles in the hearts of the latter. Many of them now come to England, and express astonishment at the courtesy which meets them there, the equal footing on which they are at once placed. It was the sense that Lord Ripon meant well by them, that he represented the good intentions of the English people and not the haughty exclusiveness of the Anglo-Indian community, that he had incurred abuse and dislike on their account, that has made his departing journey through India a sort of triumphal progress. Never before has the native population expressed its feelings so unanimously, so forcibly, or in such marked opposition to the European residents. Far off as we are from anything like Indian nationality, or even from local political life among any section of the natives, the phenomenon is a remarkable sign of the changes that are in progress and the development one may live to see—all the more remarkable because they coincide with a great step forward toward democracy in the ruling country.

Lord Dufferin, who has taken over the reins of government from Lord Ripon, is doubtless well known to your readers as the most popular of the recent Governors of Canada. His duties in India will be far more delicate and difficult than those of a mainly ornamental position such as he held at Ottawa, but there is no reason to think that he will prove unequal to them, for he is believed to have plenty of ability under his courteous manners and graceful eloquence. The Anglo-Indians have received him the more gladly because they think that his knowledge of Russia and her designs, acquired as Ambassador at Petersburg and Constantinople, will enable him to deal successfully with those Afghan and Central Asian questions which form their constant disquietude. Y.

Correspondence.

ITALIAN DISLIKE OF FOREIGNERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, "S. K.," writing from Alassio, disputes the conclusion formed by many foreigners in Italy, and expressed by Mr. James, "that Italians at bottom despise strangers and regard them as barbarians." I do not know what facilities for forming a judgment "S. K." may have had, but, from the experience of ten years' life in various parts of Italy, I am invincibly of the opinion that said conclusion is absolutely true. There are exceptions to all rules, but not enough to this to invalidate it—the Italian has, as a rule, "less national pride" but more national vanity and contempt of a foreigner than any other people in Europe. It is very rarely, indeed, that Italians are really and unreservedly cordial to any foreigner. They are polite and sympathetic in manner as a habit, but as a rule detest the strangers who come to Italy, and only welcome them for the money they spend there. The debauched and effeminate sons of the old nobility condescend to ask in marriage the rich Inglesine and Americane, and, when they have got possession of the pecuniary advantages arising therefrom, return to their Italian *liaisons* and habits, and the poor fools who have sold themselves for a title in a country where titles have grown contemptible, find that they have made a wreck of life to grasp a mere shadow.

With my experience, I should say to anybody thinking of buying property in Italy, *Don't*, unless you are willing to be vexed by unequal taxes, unjust imposition of all property obligations, with no recourse; for the chances are that all these will come to you if you are induced to buy an estate or even a residence. You have no refuge at the tribunals, for a foreigner will scarcely ever get a judgment against an Italian, no matter how just may be his case.—Yours truly,

Forestiero.

THE PRESIDENT AS A LEGISLATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of January 8, speaking of the course of the *Sun* and *Tribune* in suppressing ex-Governor Cleveland's letter on civil-service reform (p. 22), among other things you state that: "When he [the President] talks about the tariff, . . . what he says is hardly more interesting than what any other man says. . . . These are the things which lie within the domain of legislation, and the President does not legislate."

Allow me to differ with you, for this reason, that, whereas the duties of the President are chiefly executive in their character, there are times when his action is and must be purely legislative. The Constitution requires that every bill, after having passed the Senate and House of Representatives, shall, before becoming a law, receive the signature of the President, or, if vetoed, be repassed by a two-thirds vote. When the President signs or vetoes a bill he is acting in the capacity of a legislator just as much as he who votes aye or no on its passage through Congress. With respect to all bills which are not likely to command a two-thirds vote (for instance, those relating to the tariff), the President not only exercises the functions of a legislator in signing or vetoing a measure, but his influence as such is equal to that of the difference between the two-thirds necessary in case of a veto and the majority by which it had previously passed Congress. This being the case, are not the President's views on the tariff "interesting"?

If it is expected of a Presidential candidate that he let the people know his views on civil-service reform, is it not reasonable to demand some intimation as to how he should vote in case a tariff bill was presented him for action thereon?—Yours truly, W. H. R.

New York, January 12, 1885.

[The President's veto enables him not to legislate, but to prevent legislation. A legislator says there shall be such and such a law. The President, at best, can only say there shall be no such law. Of course, under the Constitution, he plays some part in bringing legislation to pass, but not the kind which makes his views supremely interesting or instructive. As regards the tariff, for instance, what tariff, of the many passed, has owed anything whatever to Presidential initiative or recommendation?—Ed. Nation.]

THE TREASURY WHISKEY CIRCULAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Please permit me to call your attention to the circular issued on January 6 by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, which, although in its direct bearing of no great interest, deserves much more discussion than it generally seems to have received from the press. The circular is published by the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* justly under the headline: "Seven Months' Extension Will be Given to Bonded Whiskey." The gist of the circular is contained in the following sentence:

"The regulation series No. 7 now are hereby amended by striking out the words 'thirty days' in the condition of the bonds prescribed in articles 10 and 11 thereof, and collectors are directed to substitute therefor such time, *not exceeding seven months*, as in their opinion may be reasonably required in the process of the exportation, etc."

The efforts and events which led to the promulgation of this order are not without interest. In the years 1881 and 1882 the manufacture of whiskey, that is, such spirits as require age to become fit for consumption, had received such encouragement from Congressional legislation and the then prevailing spirit of speculation, that the production became much greater than the consumption of that class of spirits. When the tax of ninety cents per gallon became due on these spirits, everything was tried to induce Congress to change the law so as to extend the time during which whiskey might remain in the bonded distillery warehouses. In the late Congress a law to that effect passed the House, but failed in the Senate. In the first session of the present Congress the House refused by an emphatic majority to extend the bonded period, although no compromise was left untried, and every influence which the whiskey trade could command was brought to bear upon Congress. Congress refused extension in any form and under any circumstance. Thus defeated in Washington, the whiskey men gave up lobbying, attended again to their proper affairs, and, by exporting the surplus stock as it matured in bond, had apparently accommodated themselves to what seemed to be the inevitable, when, some weeks ago, it became known that three gentlemen from Kentucky were at work in

the Treasury Department endeavoring to obtain, through a change in the regulations, what Congress had so unmistakably refused to grant to them.

On December 27th a letter from the Solicitor-General, approved by the Attorney-General, was telegraphed from Washington, in which certain questions, asked by the Secretary of the Treasury, are answered. The letter is a curious document and the following is the real point:

"There is, therefore, no statutory reason why it [whiskey] may not, for a period reasonably [?] required in process of exportation, remain in the same custody as before [the distillery warehouse] even after three years."

On January 3d the Secretary of the Treasury and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue listened to arguments of the aforesaid gentlemen from Kentucky, who recited a long list of imaginary hardships to which distillers were subjected by alleged tyrannical regulations of the Department. The briefs are long, and some passages cannot fail to stir the heart of the loyal distiller because of the eloquent allusion to his constitutional rights; but as I have not been able to find anybody acquainted with the subject who is not willing to admit that the whole is simply a tissue of sophisms, it is difficult to understand how it made any impression upon the Secretary of the Treasury, while it seems almost impossible that the Commissioner, who is necessarily familiar with the details of exportation, should have been deceived.

The facts are, that about forty-five days after the bonded period of three years has expired, the District Collector sends a notice to the distiller that unless within ten days the conditions of the warehousing bond be satisfied, the Government will hold the whiskey for an additional assessment. This practically gives about sixty days more time than the law intends either to pay the tax or file the export bond. The export (or transportation) bond so far required demanded that the spirits should be delivered within thirty days after filing of the bond on board the foreign-bound vessel; and from sixty days' to eighteen months' time was given to produce the foreign landing certificate, according to distance of foreign port of destination. In the event of any fair reason for delay, the time could under old regulations be prolonged 50 per cent.

184,692 barrels whiskey had been exported under the regulations from 1883, when these exports began, to December 1, 1884, and I feel safe to say that not even a murmur was heard from anybody actively engaged in the exportation of these whiskeys against any regulation, or against the spirit in which the Government met any innocent deviation from its rules. No great delay need ever have occurred, nor will any irregularity be avoided by the new rules. There occurred a case where whiskey was shipped to a port of export from which no shipping facilities to the foreign port of destination could be expected, unless provided by the shipper. For a reason, satisfactory to the Government, this was not provided, and as no suspicion of any kind rested against the shipper, the Department treated this case leniently, and assisted the shipper in every way; the difficulty was overcome, and nobody suffered any hardship. Nevertheless, this very case is cited to show that a change was necessary.

It has even been the practice of the Department, upon proper application, to accept the taxes due on whiskey bonded for export, in liquidation of the bond, no matter whether the whiskey remained still at the distillery or had already reached the port of export. There was a great deal of disappointment when Congress refused to change the law, but nobody has ever complained about the manner in which the Government supervised the export of whiskey.

This new order is simply intended to give owners of whiskey nine months more time than the law intends to give for either the payment of the tax or the exportation in bond; and whether the Department will admit the intention or not, the effect is just the same, for it will not be difficult to produce good causes why whiskey, which the owner expects never to export, cannot find shipping facilities in less than nine months, during which time it will be optional with the owner to cancel the bond by paying the tax.

Many good reasons were brought forth a year ago for an extension of the bonded period by Congress, the proper authority. Some of these are still good, but can anything be said in extenuation of this act of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, approved by the Secretary of the Treasury, which sets aside the deliberately expressed will of Congress? The law says that a bond be given to be further prescribed by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury. If the Commissioner holds that it requires, reasonably, nine months to ship from the interior of Kentucky to the seaport, why may he not rule that nine years is a time reasonably necessary? It must not be forgotten that, the Secretary having discretion, all cases where extraordinary delays had to occur have been satisfactorily treated, and could be so treated in the future.

Had Congress not voted upon this question of extension, were the law in any manner obscure, the step would seem less violent. As it is, it must be considered an unprovoked usurpation on the part of an executive officer; and as it comes with the approval of a Cabinet officer who enjoys the greatest respect of the best part of our business community, the precedent is all the more to be deplored by all friends of good government.

You will please pardon me for this intrusion upon your time, but I hope that you will not let this extraordinary ruling pass without an earnest protest in your columns. A MUGWUMP.

CINCINNATI, O., January 9.

A BOSTON GRIEVANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a well-known fact that the water which is supplied to the inhabitants of Boston is as bad as that which is supplied by any water works in the United States. The sewerage of the town of Natick empties into a pond separated by a sand bank from one of the reservoirs that feed the city. In making one of these reservoirs the earth of the field which had been manured and cultivated, was not removed, and everything that could be dissolved, and the mud itself, went into the drinking water.

Three years ago the water was filled with decaying sponge and was made unfit to drink, so that a great number of people had to buy their drinking water, and even at present, though the water is better than it has been for some time, the purchase of drinking water is still kept up. In some restaurants the notice that the water drunk in the establishment comes from some well-known spring in the country, is put up as an advertisement. As far as water goes, the inhabitants are completely in the hands of the Water Board, the individual members of which are irresponsible, and their corporate body intangible. This year, to the astonishment of everybody, the water rates were enormously increased. This produced an outburst of indignation, and some of the abuses of the present system became apparent. One gentleman, who spent most of the year out of the country, is charged with twice the quantity of water he used the year before. A gentleman and his wife without children, with three servants, in an old-fashioned house, are charged with 300,000 gallons of water. "Why am I taxed for twice the amount of water I was last year?" said a West End gentleman to an intelligent clerk at the City Hall. "Because," said the clerk, "we must raise the money somehow."

"Why," said another, "do you make me pay for water I do not use?" "Because," said the clerk, "we should otherwise have to raise the water rate." "Can I have a water meter put into my house?" "No, sir," was the answer; "there is a law against putting meters into the houses of private families." "I shall be gone most of the year," said another one; "why must I pay in advance for 150,000 gallons of water I shall not use?" "Because we estimate your house as twice as valuable as it was last year." "I do not see the connection," says the householder. "Well, that is the reason," answers the clerk. "Why am I to pay for water I do not take?" said another victim. "Because we must have water in the city." "If that is so, why do you not, on the same principle, take my watch out of my pocket and sell it to supply the city?"

Mr. George M. Hobbs, of the Water Board, who was interviewed on the subject, defended it by a novel theory of political economy. He wanted to lower the taxes of the large manufacturers, so he increased the taxes of individual householders. The Standard Sugar Refinery employed 600 men. To enable them to do this and compete with Brooklyn and St. Louis, it was necessary to lower their taxes, and therefore it became necessary to raise those of 600 other householders, who are not interested in sugar refinery. In closing, he remarked that the taxpayers would be at first excited, but would get over it and pay up. His theory of taxation leaves out the fact that if a man is obliged to pay $30 more for the benefit of sugar refinery, he will spend that amount less for the benefit of the butcher, the baker, the bootmaker, the dry-goods dealer, and so forth. R. D.

BOSTON, January 8, 1885.

BEN JONSON AND PHILOSTRATUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article by Charles Mackay, in the *Nineteenth Century*, on "English Songs, Ancient and Modern," there occurs the following statement:

"Some of Ben Jonson's songs are exquisite in their delicacy and grace. Every one has read (or heard sung) the delicious song—better than anything attributed to Anacreon or any Greek or Roman writer whatsoever—'Drink to me only with thine eyes,' a paraphrase from the Low Latin of a nameless poet in the Middle Ages, and a great improvement on its original—a song sufficient for fame, if its author had written nothing else."

Now, without assuming to hold a general brief for the "Greek and Roman writers," I would venture to suggest that, before pronouncing the song "a great improvement on its original," it would have been well for Mr. Mackay to take the trouble to read the original. So long ago as 1786 Richard Cumberland, in the seventy-fourth number of the *Observer*, let out the secret of this neat little bit of poaching on the part of "learned Ben," by copying the song and comparing it, stanza by stanza, with passages from the love-letters of the sophist Philostratus. He quotes the original by the numbers of Olearius, but I will add those (and the pages) of Kayser, as more convenient for readers now. Stanza 1 is from Letter 24 (33, p. 355 K.); the second is from Letter 25 (32 K.); the third from Letter 30 (2, p. 343 K.); and the fourth from Letter 31 (46, p. 358 K.).

I feel bound to add that a perusal of the original has not led me to form a different opinion from Mr. Mackay as to Ben's improvement upon it; but, on the other hand, I cannot agree with Cumberland in his disparagement of it as "a parcel of unnatural, far-fetched conceits." The learning displayed in the Lives of Apollonius of Tyana and of the Sophists, and the taste and judgment shown in the 'Images,' merit for their author a better title than that of "a despicable sophist." Nor are these love-letters, and the similar productions of Aristænetus and Antiphon, by any means such flimsy and worthless trifling as Cumberland supposes. They possess a great deal of value for us on account of the glimpses they give of the social life and manners of the ancients. Certainly they have afforded entertainment to numbers, and they have been often translated—Aristænetus by a man of no less taste than Sheridan. My own copy of Alciphron bears the autographs of two former leaders of the bar in this State, eminent for their learning and love of the classics—Judge Davis and Rufus Choate.

In trying to make out whom Mr. Mackay could have had in mind in speaking of "the Low Latin of a nameless poet of the Middle Ages," it has occurred to me that possibly he may have had an indistinct recollection of the 'Kisses' (Basia) of Joannes Secundus (John Everard), a famous Dutch poet, who died in 1536, in his twenty-fifth year, who, according to Hallam, "found the doves of Venus in the dab-chicks of Dutch marshes."—I am very truly yours,

HENRY W. HAYNES.

BOSTON, January 6, 1885.

TELEPATHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a contribution to the numerous well-authenticated cases of telepathy published in your valuable paper, I mention the following incident:

Several years ago an officer of the United States navy, while on the Pacific Ocean at the hour of midnight, was walking to and fro on his vessel. Suddenly he heard a splash in the water, and, rushing to the side of the vessel, he saw the form of his father struggling in the waves. He immediately consulted his watch, noted the hour, and reported the circumstance to his commanding officer.

The next mail brought him the sad intelligence that his father, who was a professor at West Point, had committed suicide by drowning, on the very night and about the same hour that the apparition had been seen by him.—Very truly yours, W. D. MORGAN.

LUTHERVILLE, MD.

AN EXPLANATION OF TELEPATHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg to offer some hypotheses in explanation of telepathy:

(*a.*) Suppose that the fact of telepathy has been established substantially according to the results reached by the London Society for Psychic Research, viz.: that one person can know what another person is thinking of without any known physical means of communication;

(*b.*) Suppose that consciousness and memory, will, understanding, etc., do not depend upon matter for their existence, but only for their manifestation; *i. e.*, are spiritually self-existent, but require a physical basis whence to effect any knowable result, *i. e.*, to become efficient causes or "forces";

(*c.*) Suppose there is an ubiquitous, imponderable, frictionless, tomic (*i. e.*, not atomic) or any other state of matter, ordinarily inappreciable to the physical senses, having modes of motion peculiar to itself and appropriate to the support and primary manifestation of consciousness; and that we agree to call this kind of matter "akasa," or "od," or "biogen," or anything else;

(*d.*) Suppose akasa susceptible of being set in sundry modes of motion by the consciousness, will, etc., of some person, and that such modes of motion are respectively the expression of such and such thoughts, in the form of thought-waves;

(*e.*) Suppose biogen capable of continuing for some time a particular mode of motion impressed upon it by the will, and of propagating this motion to some distance from the point of its origination, just as light-waves, etc., are propagated—both the matter and its motion being ordinarily imperceptible to the physical senses;

(*f.*) Suppose a person at some distance to be affected by the impacts of these waves in a way that causes in him waves identical in all respects with those proceeding from the originator of the motion;

Obviously, then, the consciousness of the two individuals would coincide; *i. e.*, one would have come to think the same thing the other thought; *i. e.*, one would have "read the mind" of the other; and the operation of the one mind upon the other would not have been cognized by the physical senses of anybody; *i. e.*, it would have been the action of one mind upon another at a distance, without any known physical means of communication; *i. e.*, it would constitute telepathy—just what the London S. P. R. would appear to have established.

Assuming the truth of this hypothesis, it accounts for the facts, is not incompatible with any of them, and is, therefore, an available working hypothesis to explain telepathy.

The biogen-theory derives some confirmation from the fact (not generally known or accepted, and contrary to some of what are called "laws of matter"), that some persons, in certain states of mind, can *see* the biogen-waves proceed in a ray or pencil from the agent and impinge upon the object.

It derives additional confirmation from the fact, that biogen, in some of its states and modes of motion, may be smelled, heard, seen, and handled by any one; *i. e.*, comes under the ordinary observation of the physical senses.

It may relieve the minds of some to be assured that no *Deus ex machina* need be invoked to lay some of the "ghosts" that haunt the séances of the spiritualists. I have nothing to say here of those alleged ghosts supposed to be apparitions of dead persons. But I will give a new name to what are called "veridical phantoms." I will call them *telepathic automata.* With this hint, and the reminder that the substance which composes the visible and tangible bodies of telepathic automata is that which I have elsewhere described and named biogen I remain,

Very truly yours,

ELLIOTT COUES.

1726 N St., WASHINGTON, D. C., December 28, 1884.

[The American Society for Psychical Research was very judiciously organized last week in Boston, with Prof. Simon Newcomb, of Washington, for its President, and Mr. N. D. C. Hodges, of Cambridge, Mass., for its Secretary. It is announced that the Society will for the present confine itself exclusively to experiments in thought transference, and will not attempt to collect other evidence. Nevertheless, we venture to think that it would put on file such communications as we have already published under the head of Telepathy, and which our space will not allow us to continue.—ED. NATION.]

THE NIGHT-GOWN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: 1. *Night-gown* used to mean 'dressing-gown,' or else 'coat unfit for occasions of ceremony,' I am not certain which; perhaps it had both senses. It now means *night-shirt.* 2. *Bed-gown* has been used as the name of some garment—unknown to me—worn by Welsh women out of doors. 3. *Bed-shoes* are shoes worn, not in bed, but in the bedroom. 4. The German *Schlafrock* (sleep-dress) means 'dressing-gown.'

It is easy enough to theorize from these facts, provided we disregard the last third of Professor Sophocles's dictum that "Sound etymology is founded on (1) sound, (2) sense, (3) history." But is it historically true that our ancestors went to bed at night in dressing-gowns and soft slippers?

INQUIRER.

January 9, 1885.

Notes.

AN *American Journal of Archæology* is to be published quarterly in Baltimore. It will embrace "the whole field of archæology—Oriental, Classical, Early Christian, Mediæval, and American"—and will be the official organ of the Archæological Institute of America. Communications, contributions, and subscriptions should be addressed to the Managing Editor, Dr. A. L. Frothingham, of Johns Hopkins University (whose address is No. 29 Cathedral Street, Baltimore). Prof. C. E. Norton will be Advisory Editor, and special editorial assistance will be rendered by T. W. Ludlow, New York; Prof. Allan Marquand, Princeton; A. R. Marsh, Harvard; and C. C. Perkins, Boston. Contributions to a reserve guarantee fund are solicited, and may be sent to the Safe Deposit Company of Baltimore, as trustees.

'Personal Traits of British Authors' will shortly be published by Charles Scribner's Sons, as will also 'The Rescue of Greely,' by Captain Schley and Prof. J. Russell Soley, of the Navy Department.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have nearly ready Dolby's 'Charles Dickens as I Knew Him.' They announce also 'Women of the Day,' a biographical dictionary by Frances Hays; and 'Geonomy: Creation of the Continents by the Ocean Currents,' by J. Stanley Grimes.

'The Religion of Philosophy,' by Raymond S. Perrin, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Under the title of 'Literary Landmarks of London,' Mr. Lawrence Hutton has prepared a handbook to those spots in the British capital which are hallowed by association with distinguished authors. The arrangement of the book is alphabetical, and under each author's name are given exact particulars of his London homes and haunts, with precise indications of their present condition. It has been the labor of years, both here in New York in libraries and in London in the streets. It will have the elaborate and careful indexes to which Mr. Hutton has accustomed us in his "American Actor Series." It will be published in March by J. R. Osgood & Co.

Mr. Austin Dobson's new volume of poems, 'At the Sign of the Lyre,' will be published here by Henry Holt & Co. about the first of March. In it will be included most of the poems which Mr. Dobson has written since the American edition of 'Vignettes in Rhyme' was published, and also certain of the poems which appeared in the English edition of 'Vignettes in Rhyme,' and in the later 'Proverbs in Porcelain,' but which were not included in the American collection. The forthcoming volume has been prepared expressly for America; it will not appear in England for several months.

Mr. George E. Woodberry's 'Edgar Allan Poe,' the next volume in the series of "American Men of Letters," will appear the last of January. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will also soon have ready 'Congressional Government: a Study in American Politics,' by Woodrow Wilson.

Rowel's 'Letters from Hell,' to which reference was made in No. 1011 of the *Nation*, as having had a great run in a German version, will now be brought out in English by Funk & Wagnalls. George McDonald contributes a preface. The same firm is to issue 'A Brief History of Mormonism,' by Mrs. Ellen E. Dickinson.

It is thirty years since Charles Kingsley's 'Heroes' was first given to the infant world. Macmillan & Co. now publish a new edition of it as a supplementary text-book in their series of "Globe Readings." The original illustrations are retained, but this is of less moment than the exceptional beauty of the typography. The public at large will be glad to take advantage of the very low price which this educational edition bears.

The same house has brought out a volume of 'Daily Thoughts,' selected from Kingsley's writings by his wife, and cast in the form of a diary, with blanks for each day in the year, facing the passages selected not alone from the author's printed works, but from his MS. note-books, sermons, and letters. At the close of each month excerpts for saints' days, fasts, and festivals are added. The rubricated rules and titles give a very pretty effect to this handsomely-printed volume, which is well calculated for a gift-book.

The intelligent care of the sick by trained nurses is one of the blessings of the age, but the blessing is not yet universal. From their excellent presentation of this important subject, the 'Lectures on General Nursing' by Mrs. Eva C. E. Lückes (Scribner & Welford) deserve special commendation. They are eminently practical, they cover both details and principles, and they are well written.

The infinitesimal vital agents that modify life have a copious and ever-increasing literature devoted to them. One of the latest and most intelligible works is Dr. Klein's 'Micro-organisms and Disease' (Macmillan & Co.), which may be read with satisfaction by most intelligent laymen and with profit by most microscopists, whether physicians or not.

The tenth volume of the Tenth Census has been issued from the Government Printing Office. It binds together, each with its own pagination, monographs on Petroleum and its Products, the Manufacture of Coke, and on the Building Stones of the United States—the first two by S. F. Peckham and Jos. D. Weeks respectively. The information thus compacted is of great practical value. The illustrations are numerous, and those of the various stones (microscopical sections and superficies) are of great beauty.

We have received a copy of a memorial paper read by Hampton L. Carson before the American Philosophical Society on December 5, 1884, concerning the life and works of the late General A. A. Humphreys.

The *Literary World* of January 10 contains a long defence of Margaret Fuller against the judgment passed upon her by Nathaniel Hawthorne, and lately put in print by his son Julian. We may return to it hereafter. The writer, Mr. Frederick T. Fuller, of Boston, is a nephew of Margaret Fuller.

The January number of the *Auk* is replete with valuable information for the specialist in ornithology, and contains much that is curious for the general reader. The West is particularly well looked after, and here we remark Dr. W. J. Hoffman's "Bird Names of the Selish, Pah-Ute, and Shoshoni Indians," and F. M. Drew's "Vertical Range of Birds in Colorado." But the central interest of the number lies in the preliminary report of the Committee on Migration. It appears that nearly 700 observers (including twenty-five women) have been secured with stations in every State and Territory in the Union except Nevada. So vast is the amount of material thus gathered by the Committee that they despair of elaborating it fully unless pecuniary assistance is forthcoming. The northward movements of the martin, and of the Baltimore oriole in the Mississippi Valley, are summarized here. In addition to the observers enumerated, the light-house-keepers of North and South America have contributed their invaluable testimony, having now a motive for precise records of birds destroyed by dashing against the lantern or (still more) the structure of the lighthouses. In this instance, as in the case of telegraph wires, civilization is fatal to bird life to a very large extent, though relatively the destruction must be insignificant.

Science for January 2 copies Chavanne's map of the lower Congo, which will be found handy for legislators and others. The "almanac" number of this weekly has been enlarged and more fully illustrated, and given an independent cover and title, and the 'Science Almanac' will doubtless find many admirers.

The *Phrenological Journal* for January begins the thirty-first volume of its new series, and is a phenomenon in periodical literature well worth considering by any one who regards the difference, say between the Boston of 1832 and of 1885 on the subject of phrenology. The editor passes in review fifty years of this semi-science or pseudo-science, and his article is illustrated by a series of portraits of its chief apostles—Gall, Spurzheim, Combe, Sylvester Graham, the Fowlers, Doctor Trall, etc., etc.—and an early view of Clinton Hall, which formerly stood on the corner of Nassau and Beekman Streets, the present site of Temple Court.

We note the appearance of the first number of the *Army and Navy Quarterly*, published by L. R. Hamersly & Co., Philadelphia.

The *Library Journal* announces that hereafter the Coöperative Index to Periodicals, which has been published monthly in connection with it for the past two years, will give way to a quarterly issued during the present year, and extended so as to include all the periodicals admitted to Poole's Index.

The *pièce de résistance* of the December number of *Le Livre* is an essay at enumerating the works of the late Paul Lacroix as a bibliographer—only one of the many sides of this extraordinarily prolific writer, perhaps the most so of the present century. M. Fernand Drujon mentions no fewer than 279. A fine engraving of Paul Lacroix is also the sole illustration of the number. It appears from his will that he leaves nothing to the library of the Arsenal over which he presided, but that, with a few exceptions (in favor of the public library of Montpellier, for instance), his private collection will be sold during the present winter.

Spemann's ever attractive magazine, *Vom Fels zum Meer* (New York: F. W. Christern), is resplendent with color and gold in its Christmas issue. The opening article sketches the life of that genial artist, Albert Hendschel, specimens of whose graceful and humorous designs (partly derived from drawings left by the deceased) are interspersed with the text.

The exceedingly interesting letters of the explorer of Phrygia, W. M. Ramsey, to the *Athenæum*, recording his researches and discoveries, excite the hope and the belief that they will appear in a more convenient and complete form. It would seem that we are thus far only very incompletely furnished with the data requisite for a satisfactory understanding of the history of Asia Minor, and such explorations as Mr. Ramsey's, undertaken with as much patience as courage, and recorded in the purely scientific spirit, deserve the largest encouragement they can receive. The grateful modesty of Mr. Ramsey's letters will not desert his book, and his frank confession of mistakes in conclusions or observations shows that he will not strain either to strengthen a theory—the most common danger in archæological research.

Herr Theodor Gomperz has discovered, in a puzzling inscription lately found at Athens, a system of Greek stenography. It will form an addition to the bibliography of that subject lately published by Mr. J. E. Rockwell, under the auspices of the Bureau of Education, and it will carry the history of the art back some centuries; for the Romans were the earliest stenographers previously known. Herr Gomperz is inclined to think that the inventor of the system, who inscribed it on stone and sent it to a temple, just as he would nowadays have published it in a scientific journal or read it before some learned academy, did not intend it merely for a system of shorthand, but as a substitute, devised on philosophical principles, for the unscientific and inconvenient alphabet which the Greeks derived from the Phœnicians—that he was, in fact, an ante-Christian Mr. Pitman. The spelling reformers will be glad to learn that they mount to so respectable an antiquity, and sorry on the other hand to reflect that their efforts have continued so long with so little result; that, after struggling with prescription more than twenty centuries, the language which has the best chance of becoming universal has a very much worse orthography than the language on which their first attempts at reform were made.

Mr. Francis Parkman has presented to the library of the Massachusetts Historical Society a part of his invaluable manuscript material for his series of histories of the French in North America. It consists of thirty-five bound volumes, quartos and folios, and three unbound volumes, copied expressly from French and English archives and from private collections, and for the most part unprinted. Three volumes are filled with Montcalm's private correspondence.

The historian, Paul Lacombe, is preparing, says *Polybiblion*, a 'Parisian Bibliography'—"Tableaux de Paris, et documents pour servir à l'histoire des mœurs de la fin du XVIe siècle jusqu' à nos jours."

M. Guyau has published a book whose title fifty years ago would have raised a storm—'Esquisse d'une morale sans obligation ni sanction.' And even now many will think that it treats of an impossibility. But M. Guyau does not propose to substitute his voluntary and unsanctioned morality for that of the best accredited teachers; he would merely add his to theirs. In his scheme the moving force is the desire to increase the intensity of life, material and intellectual—not a bad motive to have as an assistant. Duty with him proceeds from capacity. One should not say, "I ought, therefore I can," but "I can, therefore I ought." In other words, M. Guyau has brought forward more forcibly a side of morality which had by no means been overlooked by the older moralists.

The recent bi-centenary of the death of Corneille (1606-1684) has called forth in Paris the usual throng of new editions, pamphlets, studies, and criticisms. Among these, one of the most interesting is a little pamphlet by M. Arthur Heulhard on 'Pierre Corneille, ses dernières années, sa mort, ses descendants' (Paris: Jules Rouam; New York: F. W. Christern). Upon one point in the accepted account of Corneille's career M. Heulhard is a heretic: he does not believe that Corneille spent his last days in penury. He maintains that he was always in modest circumstances, and that he never sank

into want; and makes out a strong case against the legend.

Mark Twain's new book, the 'Adventures of Huckleberry Finn,' extracts from which have been printed in the *Century* and have been read by the author on his tour with Mr. Cable, is to be published (by subscription only) on February 16. Huckleberry Finn first appeared in Mr. Clemens's 'Tom Sawyer,' and we see announced a French version of 'Les Aventures de Tom Sawyer,' by William L. Hughes (Paris· Hennuyer; New York: F. W. Christern), with seventy illustrations by M. Achille Sirouy. If we remember aright, Mark Twain made fun of the French translation of the 'Jumping Frog.' What would he say to French illustrations of that Missouri idyl 'Tom Sawyer'?

A recent French book likely to be welcome in American households is a volume of 'Contes Choisis, à l'usage de la jeunesse,' selected from the works of M. Alphonse Daudet and illustrated by MM. Émile Bayard and Adrien Marie (Paris: Hetzel; New York: F. W. Christern).

The great illustrated edition of Cooper's novels, published in Paris by Firmin-Didot & Co., uniform with their illustrated Scott, includes the 'Last of the Mohicans' and the 'Pioneers,' and these will be followed soon by the 'Prairie' and the 'Spy.'

—Professor Baskervill writes us from Nashville:

"In my letter about the study of English in Southern colleges, I seemed to assert that not *one-third* of the graduates from *each* of the schools named could enter the Freshman Class of Harvard College. This assertion I did not intend to make. By so doing I should have done Mr. McCabe's 'University School' a wrong. His school I have known for eleven years, and the standard is high, I think, and the work as thorough as in any school of like kind in the United States. Especially in English Mr. McCabe is doing good work."

—Mr. Cable's article in the January *Century*, on "The Freedman's Case in Equity," has occasioned no indignation in the South. There are naturally but few who sympathize with him, but we have heard of no abuse being heaped upon him. Those who oppose his views and who have attempted to answer them, are two classes. The first is represented by the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which frankly admits both that race prejudice exists, and that it alone accounts for the withholding from the negro of those social privileges to which Mr. Cable thinks him, as an American citizen, entitled. It argues that this race prejudice cannot, however, be removed by any amount of rhetoric, nor, indeed, of legislation, and that all attempts like Mr. Cable's are, therefore, absurdly Quixotic. The second is represented by the humorist "Bill Arp," who maintains that "the trouble with Mr. Cable is that he does not consider the negro as a race, but lets his large philanthropy consider them individually. He finds a case where a negro became an expert from having the advantage of a high degree of culture, and he makes him a type of the race, and puts a demand upon us for a like civilization to all." This class of people knows that the "black negro" was "by nature and nature's God" created only for manual labor. The negro of any note is sure to have Caucasian blood in his veins. That some of these have shown a capacity for learning, is no reason why the race should be highly educated. Because one hog was educated to play cards, it does not follow, says Bill Arp, that we should educate all the hogs in the country. As a race, they do not desire to "mix." Nature's God has given them an instinct which is against it. Mr. Cable has, in advocating their admittance on equal terms with the whites to schools, hotels, and theatres, shown an utter ignorance of the race as a race. They would tell him almost uniformly that they do not desire such privileges. It is useless to argue with people like Bill Arp, as they already understand the negro more completely than does any philosopher or philanthropist, and they see no reason why any importance should be attached to the race question, since "we are getting on very well now." But the other class should bear in mind that Mr. Cable is endeavoring only to stir up inquiry concerning the nature and extent of the race prejudice which exists in the South, and, if possible, to increase that sense of justice which will eventually soften, if not remove it.

—A few months since we gave some interesting statistics concerning the literary profession in Germany, derived from the current issue of Kürschner's 'Litteratur-Kalender,' which is in fact, though not in name, a directory of authors of the German-speaking world. We now have before us a little book intended to serve the same purpose, though on a very much smaller scale, for the "Writers for the Literary Press in the United States." Kürschner's scheme, it may be remarked, embraces writers in every field of literary activity, from theologians to playwrights, and includes 6,000 names. We should expect to find a much smaller number in an American directory, even if it attempted to cover as large a field as the German work, and, in this respect, some allowance is to be made, as is hinted by the compiler in his preface, for the difficulties in procuring information not to be overcome in the case of the first issue of a work which, to some of the persons concerned, perhaps, was suspicious from its novelty. Of the statistical information the most curious is that showing the parts of the country from which the literary profession is drawn. It appears that of the 350 persons represented, no fewer than 125, or 35 per cent., are natives of New England, and of these 76, or 21 per cent. of the whole, are derived from Massachusetts. It should be observed that about 10 per cent. of the writers named have failed to give their birthplace, so that these percentages should probably be slightly increased. Next to Massachusetts naturally comes New York, with 49 (14 per cent.), Connecticut with 18, Pennsylvania with 14, and Maine with 13. The quotas of the other States are trifling. As regards educational information, we learn that of the 350, 131 are graduates of American colleges, divided as follows: Harvard 56, Yale 19, Williams 14, West Point 6, Amherst, Michigan, and New York City College 5 each, Princeton, Brown, Columbia, and New York City University 3 each, Dartmouth, Union, and University of Virginia 2 each, Cornell, Lafayette, and Rochester 1 each. Singularly enough, Bowdoin, the college of Hawthorne and Longfellow, is not represented either by graduates or by instructors. The intellectual centre of gravity appears to be New York, as 66 writers live there, to 35 in Boston, 24 in Cambridge, 22 in Washington, 16 in Philadelphia, 11 in Baltimore, etc. A feature of the Index to the 'Directory,' which might be very useful but which we have found disappointing, is the references to the topics treated—most of the answers given being so vague as to be of little value. Thus 26 writers are referred to under Literary Criticism, 30 under History, etc.

—Under the title 'Contributions to the Tertiary Geology and Palæontology of the United States,' Prof. Angelo Heilprin has endeavored to embody a succinct statement of the geology of the tertiary formation in the Atlantic and Gulf States, together with a review and analysis of the formation and its invertebrate contents taken as a whole. To this he has added a comparison of certain allied European and American fossil shells of this formation, and a chapter on the age of the Tejon rocks in California. The work is in quarto, and illustrated by a geological map and several figures in the text. The literature of this formation is scattered in numerous papers, some of which are not easy of access. In summarizing and reviewing the information they contain, the author has performed a task for which he will receive the thanks of geologists. In doing this he brings out more clearly than ever the imperfection of our knowledge of the details upon which generalizations on this subject have been founded. If the conclusions reached have been, as in many cases they were, accurate, it has come about as much by happy guesses as otherwise. The determination of the nummulitic deposits of Florida by Professor Heilprin is one of the recent steps toward a better knowledge, and important as definitively sweeping away the mud-and-coral hypothesis by which the formation of that peninsula was so long explained. It is true that the development of the adjacent sea-bed by the Coast Survey had irretrievably damaged this hypothesis, but a discovery such as that above mentioned was much needed to complete its overthrow. Most geologists will find Professor Heilprin's book a necessary addition to their libraries.

—The superiority of modern musical form over that of what is absurdly called the "classical" period, is gradually meeting with general recognition. One of the most artificial and reprehensible things in the sonata form is the frequent repetition of the first part (or even both parts) of an extended allegro movement. When Rubinstein printed the first edition of his first 'cello sonata, there were repetition marks in the first and last movements. In accordance with the superior taste of the present day, he removed these marks in the new edition of the same sonata. Hans von Bülow, in his notes to Beethoven's C sharp minor sonata, remarks, with reference to the third movement: "The repetition of this part, prescribed according to custom, we look upon as a chilling tautology." Mr. Theodore Thomas, it is well known, generally omits the repetition marks in Schubert's ninth symphony and some other long-drawn-out works. This whole question is discussed in detail in recent numbers of the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*, by Carl Richter. He thinks that when Beethoven wrote repetition marks to every one of his "thirty-three variations on an air by Diabelli," he simply, without reflection, followed an old custom, which in a waltz, considered as a dance piece, originally had a certain justification. But in the sonata it is difficult to find any rational ground for this proceeding. Perhaps, he suggests, the first part, which contains the principal themes or ideas, was repeated in order to impress these ideas on the hearer's memory, so that he might be able more readily to follow their development in the succeeding movement. From a didactic point of view there may be an advantage in this, but a work of art must be based on æsthetic, not on didactic, principles. Mozart, in his Jupiter symphony, repeats even the second part in the final movement, and Herr Richter justly observes that "certainly no conductor can be blamed for ignoring the repetition mark in this and similar cases." The repetitions of the parts of slow movements are still less relished in these days when audiences no longer delight in a sort of musical *dolce far niente*, but prefer to have their music, like their literature, served up in a crisp, concise, and condensed form.

—We have received Part I. of a 'Manual of International Law for the Use of Navies, Colonies, and Consulates,' by Jan Helenus Ferguson, Minister of the Netherlands in China. It is published at the Hague by Martinus Nyhoff, and at Hongkong by Noronha & Co. The present in-

stalment deals with general principles, and shows that Mr. Ferguson belongs to the school of jurists which insists, as disciples of Austin would maintain, on confusing the boundaries of Law and Morals; but he introduces a new factor into the problem by treating Law as being in some way dependent on "Common Sense." Common Sense, he says, "is that plain, practical logic, suitable to common intelligence as formed by the actual composition of the human mind, under the influence of the Moral Law of Nature, of which it is the logic (*sic*), and as such the language of Conscience and Sympathy combined, by the harmony of which its arguments are proved." The reply to this is, of course, that though common sense plays a part in the development of law, common sense will never enable us to know what law is, nor can we assume even that the law is founded upon common sense, for it may be founded upon the exact opposite. For purposes of analysis, therefore, common sense does not help us at all. The strange part of all this is that Mr. Ferguson, like most other Continental law-writers, does not seem to know of the existence of the writings of the English school. No one familiar with Bentham and Austin could possibly write about International Law without at least attempting to reply to their systems. It is very much like writing about metaphysics in ignorance of the fact that Kant also wrote about them.

— Thinkers addicted to brooding in solitude must beware of hallucinations. Luther dashed his inkstand at the devil, Loyola saw Christ in the garb of a recruiting officer, Hobbes believed he had discovered the quadrature of the circle, and Eduard von Hartmann, the father of the philosophy of the unconscious, is unconsciously haunted by the vision of Israel pressing on toward the rule of all the nations. Had Schopenhauer, that older master of philosophical pessimism, lived in seclusion like Hartmann, he might have been equally tormented by the imaginary sight of Woman, the object of his abhorrence, ascending in might the steep flank of the Capitoline Hill, bent on hurling Man down the Tarpeian rock, and dictating feminine laws *urbi et orbi*. Authors of works on such subjects as 'Das Ding-an-sich und seine Beschaffenheit,' 'Neukantianismus, Schopenhauerianismus und Hegelianismus,' or 'Erkenntnisstheoretischer Realismus,' ought to abstain, or perhaps to be restrained, from writing on the vexed questions of the day; but Hartmann has the precedents of Hobbes, Leibnitz, Fichte, and other metaphysicians who dabbled in politics, in his favor, and as long as his own suggestions for curbing the political press—as ruinous to reason, heart, and character, and prone to oppose Bismarck—are not carried out, he can surely not be expected to remain an idle spectator of the fray between Antisemites and Philosemites. With his 'Das Judenthum in Gegenwart und Zukunft' (Leipzig and Berlin, 1884), an eloquent and vehement appeal, he rushes in between the two parties—for, "a philosopher who joins a party," these are his first words, "at that very moment ceases to be a philosopher"—and calls to the Antisemites to relax their onslaughts, and to the Jews to disarm, repent, and renounce their nefarious schemes. He sees Germany's national and intellectual welfare imperilled by the unbroken onward march of her Jewish citizens, though they comprise only "1 1-3 per cent." of her population, and in spite (or rather because) of their "frugality, temperance, patience, tenacity, elasticity in misfortune, laboriousness, activity, industriousness, thriftiness, economical habits, domesticity, family-spirit, parental love, esteem and reverence for women, filial piety, thirst for knowledge, desire of culture, and zeal for study." (The objurgations are equally redundant.)

— For "all these qualities serve the practical realism" of the Jews, in their struggle for world-rule with nations steeped in intemperance, sloth, and discord, while among the dispersed Semites—such is their crowning virtue, eclipsing the civic greatness of Spartans or Romans, not to speak of the Biblical Hebrews—"the individual instinctively subordinates his private ends to the general interests, and, repressing his personal will, feels and serves as a member of the whole." Yet the philosopher gently advises the Antisemites to be patient under provocation and declare their readiness for peace, on condition that the Jews of Germany henceforward use all their virtues, abilities, and money for the weal of the Fatherland alone, formally abjure all communion with "das Judenthum," pluck from their hearts all special sympathy for their kin and fellow-sufferers beyond the German frontiers, and deaden the last spark of Jewish national sentiment. The word *Judenthum* Hartmann uses—to the total exclusion of *Judenheit*, which holds the same relation to the term employed which, in English, *Christendom* holds to *Christianity*—in a most elastic un-German sense, so as to make it cover in the same breath the meanings of *Jewish faith*, *Jewish spirit*, *Jewish people*, *Jewdom*, *Jews*, etc. By this process of perhaps unconscious jugglery the Laskers and Bambergers are made responsible for the Messianic dreams of Polish rabbis; the teachers of the Synagogue for the flippancy of Heine; Jewish poets and theologians, for the scribblings of journalistic hirelings; and all these for the success of the Rothschilds, and with the latter for the Chatham Street of Vienna or Frankfort. Being thus responsible each for all and all for each, the Jews are warned and threatened with the irrepressible and deadly wrath of the nations for whose enslavement they work with such wonderful harmoniousness—all of them, whether calling themselves Cohn or Caro, Levy or Halévy, Deutsch or Franck, Fürst or Geiger, Jacoby or Joachim, Mendelssohn or Philippson, Montefiore or Crémieux, Lady Rosebery or Sarah Bernhardt.

MR. BLAINE AS AN HISTORIAN.

Twenty Years of Congress. From Lincoln to Garfield. With a Review of the Events which led to the Political Revolution of 1860. By James G. Blaine. Volume I. Norwich, Conn.: The Henry Bill Publishing Co. 1884.

THIS work, which is sold by subscription, was not offered us for review till after the election. We lacked the ordinary inducements to procure it for that purpose, being well aware that it was not composed by or in the spirit of an historian, and that only by courtesy could it be said to belong to literature. For those who take a serious view of politics, or history, or biography, or political economy, or the law of nations, there is something almost ludicrous about Mr. Blaine's masquerade as an historian. For those who have not yet made up their minds whether Mr. Blaine is a great publicist or a great impostor, we will single out a few of the leading proofs of his disqualifications for his task.

In the first place, in his estimate of men of the period he covers, he differs from all previous historians in giving every one he introduces a genial puff or advertisement. The contrary method, of attacking reputations, once in vogue, has been superseded in our day by that of analysis or criticism; but of any powers in this direction Mr. Blaine does not show a trace. We get the impression of Washington having been literally packed in our time with statesmen. There was, for instance, Thaddeus Stevens, "an authority" upon "all political questions," gifted with "a style somewhat resembling the crisp, clear sententiousness of Dean Swift"—the latter, it should in fairness have been added, not himself a member of the House at any time. Among Mr. Stevens's colleagues there were the "distinguished" John Hickman, William D. Kelley, noted for his "ability, fidelity, and usefulness"; Reuben E. Fenton, "prominent, popular, and strong"; James K. Moorhead, John Covode, Edward McPherson, and John W. Killinger, all "active and influential"; and "ablest and most brilliant of all," Roscoe Conkling, never surpassed "in affluent and exuberant diction" in either branch of Congress, "unless perhaps by Rufus Choate." Several pages are devoted to puffs of this sort, and, as we plod our weary way through the volume, we cannot help coming to the conclusion that Mr. Blaine believes the main object of historical writing to be to make friends for the historian.

Again, Mr. Blaine devotes a considerable portion of his book to the economical history of the country, and to the question of Free Trade and Protection. As to this, he begins with the profound remark that "the difficulty in reaching a satisfactory and impartial conclusion arises from the inability or unwillingness of the disputants to agree upon a common basis of fact"—a difficulty unquestionably inherent in this as in many other controversies; and then throws out the suggestion that, "in the absence of an agreement as to the points established, it is the part of fairness to give a succinct statement of the grounds maintained by the two parties to the prolonged controversy." He then innocently proceeds to put in the mouth of both the free-trader and the protectionist one of the greatest pieces of nonsense ever attributed by one human being to another—the idea that the tariff controversy can be settled by a comparison of the prosperity of the country "under" protective and moderate tariffs. The silliness of an argument of this kind has long been known to all educated men, and a controversy between a free-trader who undertook to prove to a protectionist that the country was prosperous in 1850 because of the tariff of 1846, while his antagonist contented himself with observing that it was still more prosperous under the Morrill tariff, would be a "symposium" to make any real historian guffaw.

But Mr. Blaine is not only entirely unaware that a high or low tariff is but one among a multitude of causes which affect the prosperity of a country, and therefore that we cannot, as soon as the country is prosperous, at once attribute it to the tariff; he apparently thinks that the facts on which the controversy turns are not only unascertainable by the free-trader and protectionist, but are not within his own province. He makes the free-trader "maintain," for instance, that the country was prosperous under the "moderate tariff" prevailing "from the origin of the Government to the war of 1812"; but to meet this the protectionist "avers" that the influence of this tariff was "demonstrably protective," and "effectually did its work in establishing the foundation of the American system." Again, between 1846 and 1857 the free-traders point with complacency to the tariff of 1846:

"They challenge a comparison of the years of its operation, between 1846 and 1857, with any other equal period in the history of the country. Manufacturing, they say, was not forced by a hot-house process to produce high-priced goods for popular consumption, but was gradually encouraged and developed on a healthful and self-sustaining basis, not to be shaken as a reed in the wind by every change in the financial world. Commerce, as they point out, made great advances, and our carrying-trade grew so rapidly that in ten years from the day the tariff of 1846 was passed, our tonnage exceeded the tonnage of England. The free-traders refer with especial emphasis to what they term the symmetrical development of all the great interests of the country under this liberal tariff. Manufactures were

not stimulated at the expense of the commercial interest. Both were developed in harmony, while agriculture, the indispensable basis of all, was never more flourishing. The farmers and planters at no other period of our history were in receipt of such good prices, steadily paid to them in gold coin, for their surplus product, which they could send to the domestic market over our own railways, and to the foreign market in our own ships.

"Assertions as to the progress of manufactures in the period under discussion are denied by the protectionists. While admitting the general correctness of the free-traders' statements as to the prosperous condition of the country, they call attention to the fact that, directly after the enactment of the tariff of 1846, the great famine occurred in Ireland, followed in the ensuing years by short crops in Europe. The prosperity which came to the American agriculturist was, therefore, from causes beyond the sea and not at home—causes which were transient, indeed almost accidental. Moreover, an exceptional condition of affairs existed in the United States in consequence of our large acquisition of territory from Mexico at the close of the war; and the subsequent and almost immediate discovery of gold in California. A new and extended field of trade was thus opened in which we had the monopoly, and an enormous surplus of money was speedily created from the products of the rich mines on the Pacific coast. At the same time Europe was in convulsion from the revolutions of 1848, and production was materially hindered over a large part of the continent. This disturbance had scarcely subsided when three leading nations of Europe, England, France, and Russia, engaged in the wasteful and expensive war of the Crimea. This struggle began in 1853 and ended in 1856, and during these years it increased consumption and decreased production abroad, and totally closed the grain fields of Russia from any competition with the United States. The protectionists, therefore, hold that the boasted prosperity of the country under the tariff of 1846 was abnormal in origin and in character."

It would be difficult to find anywhere a better *reductio ad absurdum* of this species of argument. But what has the Historian to say about it? Instead of knocking the heads of his maundering free-trader and protectionist together, and passing on to a real exposition of the matter, he makes a little incursion into English history, and shows Great Britain to be one of the strangest economical fields ever explored. It appears that England had at one time more than four hundred acts regulating the tax on imports; that by the aid of these she "brought her fabrics to perfection"; that she then craftily adopted free trade in order "to invade the domestic markets of other countries, and undersell the fabrics produced by struggling artisans who were sustained by weaker capital and by less advanced skill." At the same time, she was "not candid in her advocacy and establishment of free trade"; for she basely stimulated the growth of her steam marine by "the most enormous bounties ever paid by any nation to any enterprise," thus creating for herself a practical monopoly of the ocean traffic. With her usual craft, as soon as the work was done, she stopped the subsidies, and "proceeded to inveigh, through all her organs of public opinion, against the discarded and condemned policy of granting subsidies to ocean steamers. . . . Even now there is good reason for believing that many lines of English steamers, in their effort to seize the trade to the exclusion of rivals, are paid such extravagant rates for the carrying of letters as practically to amount to a bounty," etc. Now all this, as Mr. Blaine says, would, if true, show that England was not a "candid" country at all; but it would also show, as she has prospered, that her nefarious behavior was economically wise. And as the historian (p. 208) declares that the old English protective system "clogged and embarrassed trade for a long period by the most unreasonable and tyrannical restrictions," we are left in doubt as to what his own views may ultimately turn out to be, especially as we find him (p. 210) rejoicing that the United States has, internally, "a freedom of trade beyond that enjoyed by any other nation," and finally summing up the controversy by declaring that "it is the enjoyment of free trade and protection *at the same time* which has contributed to the unexampled development and marvellous prosperity of the United States" (p. 211).

A shabbier piece of historical work than this chapter we have never met with. It is a stump speech, and a very ignorant stump speech, from first to last. Precisely the same ignorance is apparent in the treatment of the important question of the English recognition of belligerency in our war (pp. 591-595). The objection to the recognition was that it was premature. Mr. Blaine's objection is that the South was recognized as a maritime belligerent, when it ought to have been recognized only as a land belligerent. "The Southern Confederacy," he says, "had an organized Government and great armies. To that extent its power was a fact. But when foreign governments recognized in the insurgents the rights of ocean belligerency, they went beyond the fact." A recognition of terrestrial, combined with a denial of maritime belligerency, would produce a curious state of affairs, because all acts of war by sea would be acts of piracy, while similar proceedings by the same belligerent on land would be legitimate. A denial of ocean belligerency to the Southern Confederacy would have been particularly curious in our war, when we were actually blockading all their ports because we dreaded their maritime operations so much. As a matter of fact, England recognized the belligerency May 13, 1861; France, on June 10, 1861; and between April 19 and July 13 we captured several neutral vessels, and the validity of the captures was passed upon afterward in some pretty notorious cases in the Supreme Court of the United States, which tribunal decided that the blockade was an act of war, and that the captures were valid. We presume that our Historian is the only living man who has had the audacity to touch this question in a serious work without even taking the trouble to inform himself of the facts. And having prepared himself in this way, he illuminates the subject still further by introducing it with a private brand-new theory of international law. The whole "arraignment" of England is evidently a stump speech for the Irish vote.

The dense ignorance pervading this book will reflect, we must say in conclusion, great discredit on American intelligence wherever it is read. That its author should have held the Secretaryship of Foreign Affairs for a considerable period of time, and still be masquerading before the public alternately as a Statesman and an Historian, will, we are satisfied, fill our descendants with amazement.

RECENT NOVELS.

Dark Days. By Hugh Conway (F. J. Fargus). [Leisure Hour Series]. Henry Holt & Co.

My Friends and I. Edited by Julian Sturgis. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

An American Politician. By F. Marion Crawford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Matter of Taste. By George H. Picard. White, Stokes & Allen.

Choy Susan, and Other Stories. By W. H. Bishop. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Otillie. An Eighteenth Century Idyl. By Vernon Lee. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribner & Welford.

At the World's Mercy. By the author of 'The House on the Marsh.' D. Appleton & Co.

Jack's Courtship. By W. C. Russell. Harper & Bros.

'Dark Days' will have the same success as 'Called Back,' and for the same reasons. Both books are of the kind in which the average public delights. Hugh Conway has taken Wilkie Collins, or perhaps more exactly Miss Braddon, as pattern, and then just blocked out his stories and thrown them together rough-hewn. Or, to compare from another point of view, both stories would have been accepted as spirited syllabi of forthcoming novels by either of the authors above mentioned. A crowd of incidents so rapid and so startling as to do away with any need of logic will content five-sixths of the world, whether it be in a novel or in a play upon the stage; so 'Dark Days' is sold far into the second hundred thousand, 'Called Back' draws full houses for weeks, and both will next year be forgotten.

The careful elaboration which Mr. Julian Sturgis has bestowed upon 'My Friends and I' deserved a more fortunate subject. In the form of three autobiographical sketches there is given what may be called the theory of life of a man to whom tangible worldly success is the only good, human or divine. Of course it is the man himself who is wholly evil, the embodiment of superlative egotism. The hero of his boyish fancy has made no mark in the world; the comrade of his first struggles in political life has been alienated from him; she whom he chose to be closer than a friend has been to him the greatest disappointment of all. Not even Mr. Sturgis's agreeable style can make of such arrant selfishness and abject meanness an attractive tale. It is not seldom difficult to account for an author's choice of subject. Permanent fame was never yet won by any book which did not tempt to a second reading. That is not saying that the story may not be sad or even painful—all the greatest work rises before us to prove the contrary. The thrill of excitement, the sympathetic pang, are the very emotions for which a novel is read over and over; but that which inspires only cold disgust will never be opened again.

Whoever has been obliged to describe or to rank Mr. Marion Crawford's work must be grateful to him for the opening paragraph of the second chapter of 'The American Politician.' The most practised hand could not have hit off more exactly the construction and the style of the whole set—from 'Mr. Isaacs' down:

"Fate, the artist, mixes her own colors, . . . but now and then she takes a palette loaded with strong paint, and a great brush, and splashes a startling full-length portrait upon the canvas, without much regard for drawing or general composition, but with very startling effect. To paint well needs life-long study; to paint so as merely to attract attention needs courage and a heart hardened against artistic sensitiveness."

Unluckily for Mr. Crawford, his last portrait comes between the delicate incisiveness of Mr. James's 'New England Winter' and the fine shading of 'Silas Lapham,' which make its crudeness only the more staring. It will not do to say that political life is a rough affair, demanding broad coarse strokes. Compare Crawford with Trollope in the Plantagenet Palliser series; and should the comparison be made by one who does not specially like Trollope, the superiority of the latter's workmanship will be only the more apparent.

The hero, John Harrington, as we are informed from different sources, is "endowed with unbounded courage and an extraordinary command of language—he is immensely honest—he has the strong oratorical temperament"; all which sounds very well, but, unhappily for himself, the author does not leave it to faith, but proceeds to practical illustration. It is possible to do some very heroic fighting over a subject so prosaic as civil-service reform; but to intermingle the politician's very humdrum platitudes with poetic flourishes about "the surging crowd" and the ladies "pale with excitement," reduces

it to bathos. The hero is "the strongest man in this part of the world" (Boston, be it noticed), and his views on the tariff, if discreetly left to fancy, might have been worth something; but his interview with Mr. Ballymolloy permits no misconception as to their originality and practical wisdom. He fails of election as Senator, and receives from the heroine a note expressing her regret. Though too childish for a well-trained English girl, and lacking the impulsiveness of passion, it is natural enough to deserve something better than fatuous priggishness in reply: "It is the privilege of elective bodies to choose as they please, and, indeed, that is the object of their existence." Mr. Harrington calmly folds up the note, "convinced he had said what he meant to say, which was always the principal consideration in such matters." The reader, however, is not to suppose that the politician's love-making is a calm affair. There is no difficulty about it beyond the delays usual in the novelist's world, and in any other hands the catastrophe would come in the customary well-bred way. Not so Mr. Crawford. At the decisive moment, "every feature of his strong face seemed changed in the convulsive fight that rent his heart and soul to their very depths; . . . in his words the deep agony of a mortal struggle rang strangely."

Of other matters than politics, there is little of worth in a composition so careless. "When the heat begins, Boston goes to New York," may be a trifling inaccuracy, but nothing worth talking about as a picture of society can be drawn in that way. All the men except the Irishman talk like women, and all the women talk alike. The supply of stock quotations and literary small-talk must be pretty well exhausted. How poor is the best of it all may be seen in the remark by a lady whom Mr. Crawford wanted to make the type of the fine, old-fashioned, well-read gentlewoman. Her "Goethe must be a good deal amused, I expect, when people write books to prove that Byron was Euphorion," sounds like a schoolgirl in the pride of her first note-book. Mr. Crawford is nothing if not grandiose and darkly mysterious. There are three men, fitly named X, Y, and Z, who, from their secret chamber in London, guide the course of American politics. Will it not be the duty of those who are on guard against British gold to discover and expose their plots? We will not delay the reader by any analysis of the political views in the book. Ideas at once so crude and so trite are below the level upon which discussion is possible.

There will be no difference of taste as to the dainty dress in which the publishers have sent forth Mr. Picard's little sketch. We call it sketch, for it is nothing more. Pretty and not very probable will be the general verdict, while the reviewer counts it as another study "after Henry James," though this time it is not 'Daisy Miller,' but the 'Portrait of a Lady,' which furnishes the model. The connection between title and story is slight enough to admit of any sort of interpretation.

Mr. Bishop's stories have already entertained a good many readers, and we are sure few will take them up in their present shape without finishing them. He sees clearly his object, and goes very straight to it. He fails of marked literary success, however, because he does not understand the limitations of the short story. Every one of these now before us has material enough for a full novel. What seems clumsy handling, violent compression, or awkward blanks is simply the result of the necessities of the case. If, for instance, he had worked out "The Battle of Bunkerloo" solely as the boys' affair, it would have gone very well. He has not room now to make the lovers anything but commonplace.

In the preface to 'Otillie' Vernon Lee makes a graceful plea in behalf of the essayist who is tempted to enter the field of the novelist. "He possesses, inasmuch as he is an essayist, some of the instincts of the superior creature called a novelist: a certain half-imaginative perception of the past, a certain love of character and incident and description, a certain tendency to weave fancies about realities." Her story of Otillie certainly vindicates her own claim to the privilege of presenting "imaginary lives in a quiet imaginary German town." They are sad and solitary folk, leading shadowed lives, but the remoteness of that still calm life out of the eighteenth century is a restful picture amidst the hurry of our own.

Since the days of Jane Eyre the governess has blossomed in fiction, faded, and died. The author of 'The House on the Marsh' has initiated a revival, and her last book, 'At the World's Mercy,' may be regarded as the second instalment of an educational epic. The epic, so far, explodes several well-established notions about the status of the governess in an English household. Traditionally she is a discreet and feebly accomplished person, who spreads the schoolroom butter very thin, who plays for carpet-dances automatically, and who accepts a kind attention or a snub with exactly the same kind of a smile. To-day, according to the epic, she is a phantom of delight, who, in answer to an advertisement, descends upon an aristocratic but Heaven-abandoned family, and proceeds forthwith to make the wilderness blossom as the rose. Just here it is well to anticipate a popular error, which may credit Girton or Newnham with this change, which is, out of all hooping, wonderful. It does not appear that graduates of those institutions have anything to look forward to but hard grind from term to term, and a slight recognition of their parchment in salary. It is in her merely human capacity that the governess is great, moulds order out of mad disorder, and compels from the men of the family "all homage short of worship." The heroine of 'The House on the Marsh' subdued a burglar; the heroine of 'At the World's Mercy' conquers a host of what she is pleased to call dipsomaniacs. Miss Guinevere Verney has all the seductiveness of her forerunner, and she is fully as pious, though not so ingenuous. She knows her world, and, having fallen among the terrible Godfreys of Hawkstone, she determines to accept the risk of their depravity. The record of her achievements is dull and repulsive, with so many incoherent passages that the author's vagueness of conception is painfully evident. There is something naïf in the way she drops Eugene Barach, the character who first excites interest, and who offered opportunities for clever drawing. His reappearance at the end, in the guise of protector to Hubert Godfrey, the dipsomaniac whom Guinevere has favored with inexpressible passion, is grotesque—a lame step to a most impotent conclusion.

No story ever needed a plea for mercy more than 'Jack's Courtship,' and Mr. Russell enters it in the repeated assurance that the narrator is not an artist. According all leniency to a tar's loquacity, it is human to resent an abuse of privilege. The interesting features of Jack Seymour's courtship could be revealed in a short story, and that would allow ample margin for apostrophe to sea and sky, and for dazzling professional metaphor. Mr. Russell's work has hitherto been distinguished by his vigorous conduct of sufficiently interesting people through a series of exciting adventures, and by a fresh and vivid style. Here the central situation, the shipwreck of Jack and his sweetheart, is old, while the numerous incidents before and after the sinking of the *Strathmore* are told in a perfunctory manner, contrasting unfortunately with the author's earlier spontaneity and vivacity. The coincidences are too pat, the catastrophes too orderly, and even the behavior of the weather is exasperatingly genteel.

The volume of sea stories entitled 'Old Sailors' Yarns' is probably intended to entertain old shipmates. A landsman might swallow the narrator's somewhat inconsistent illiteracy, but he could scarcely be expected to struggle with the nautical phraseology. In the face of such difficulties of manner more than ordinary patience is required to discover that some of the anecdotes—they are hardly stories—are novel and worth telling.

RECENT ASTRONOMICAL ANNALS.

Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College. Vol. xiv, part 1. Cambridge. 1884.

Publications of the Washburn Observatory of the University of Wisconsin. Vol. ii. Madison, Wisconsin. 1884.

Astronomical and Meteorological Observations Made during the Year 1880 *at the United States Naval Observatory.* Washington. 1884.

Professor Edward C. Pickering, who assumed the directorship of the Harvard College Observatory about seven years ago, in reviewing the fields of possible astronomical activity of that institution for the future, concluded that its energies might, in view of the character of the work already appropriated by other observatories, be largely expended with the best advantage in the neglected field of astronomical photometry. This was a determination carefully considered and very wise. In the autumn of 1878 effort was made to secure for the maintenance of the Observatory and its work for the term of five years, an annual subscription of $5,000; and about seventy ladies and gentlemen of Boston and vicinity, by their generous response to this call, have placed the Observatory in its present improved condition, and secured for the science of astronomy an immense deal of research of high value. The Observatory's most important contribution to astronomy is the fourteenth volume of its annals, the first part of which was lately issued.

An extensive and systematic inquiry by photometric methods into the comparative brightness of the stars has long been regarded among astronomers as highly desirable. The undertaking has been greatly delayed by doubts with regard to the instruments best adapted to the work. The observations now brought to completion by Professor Pickering were planned with the view of obtaining a satisfactory determination of the comparative brightness of all stars not fainter than the sixth magnitude, and which could be conveniently observed at the latitude of the Cambridge Observatory. An entirely new instrument was contrived by Professor Pickering with the utmost care in every detail to eliminate the errors of every sort which had embarrassed all similar work in the past. The introductory chapter of the volume describes minutely, with accompanying plates, the *meridian photometer*, and deals with the methods of its use and the reduction of the observations made with it. The nearly constant altitude of the pole star indicated the use of this object as a standard of comparison for all the other stars. Professor Pickering enters into a thorough discussion of the constancy of the light of Polaris during so large a part of the period of the star-comparisons as was necessary to show its practical invariability, and this is followed by a chapter which deals in a very satisfactory way with the absorption of the light of the stars by the atmosphere. We have, subsequently, the general catalogue of results of the measured magnitude of all stars not fainter

than the sixth magnitude, and contained between the north pole of the heavens and the thirtieth degree parallel of south declination. The actual measures on which this admirable catalogue was based were begun in October, 1879, and completed in a little less than three years. The number of stars included in the catalogue was 4,260. The photometric observations were comprised in seven hundred series, and the entire work embraced a total number of light comparisons which exceeds one hundred thousand. The publication of this catalogue removes the subject of stellar magnitudes from the hazy region of approximate eye-estimates (where it has always hitherto been) to the domain of accurate scientific measurement; and may properly be regarded as forming an epoch in the history of stellar astronomy. The new meridian photometer is competent to the accurate measurement of the light of all stars brighter than the ninth or tenth magnitude, and there will thus be an abounding field for its employment for an indefinite period of years to come. If the importance and character of work well done, and its bearing on astronomy in general, are conceded to be the criterion, the observatory of Harvard College will now be accepted as second to none on the Western Continent; its position in the first rank with the observatories of Europe is already fully justified.

Another establishment, rapidly rising to the first rank among the astronomical institutions of America, is the Washburn Observatory of the University of Wisconsin at Madison. The initial volume of its publications was issued about two years ago, and the second, more than twice the size of the first, is now distributed. It will be remembered that the late Professor Watson was its first director, and that he was succeeded in 1881 by the present director, Professor Edward S. Holden. The observatory may now be regarded as entirely completed, with a full and admirable instrumental equipment. The instrument last added is a large meridian circle, from the shops of the celebrated Repsolds, of Hamburg; and a large part of the present volume is devoted to a detailed description of it, together with the methods of observation and reduction.

Professor Holden is directing the work of this observatory largely in the line of star-gauging, and about one-third of the present volume of its publications is occupied with a reduction of two series of star-gauges of Sir William Herschel (the second series never before published, and for a copy of which from the original records Professor Holden is indebted to Lieut.-Col. John Herschel, R.E.), and with counts of stars from the celestial charts of Peters, Watson, Chacornac, and Palisa. The tabular exhibit of these counts suffices to furnish several simple proofs that the stars cannot be regarded as equally distributed in space, and is suggestive of more general methods of investigating that distribution than have heretofore been employed. An independent series of star-gauges with the great telescope of fifteen inches aperture is now in progress at the Washburn Observatory.

The annual volume of observations made at the Naval Observatory, Washington, which was issued two years behindhand, contains the results of the customary routine work of the establishment for the year 1880, presented in the usual form. The fundamental instrument, or transit circle, was used with great regularity throughout the year. The great equatorial, of twenty-six inches aperture, was occupied exclusively with micrometric observations of double-stars, and of the satellites of the outer planets. All observation with the old transit instrument and the mural circle—with which a large share of the best work published by the observatory has hitherto been done—appears to be now discontinued. If the late annual volumes issued by this observatory are conspicuous for any one thing more than another, it is the growing absence of the appendixes—also issued in monograph form—which have always constituted the best index of the vigor of the establishment, and have, more than anything else, given character to the institution, and contributed to its recognition abroad. This is traceable, not so much to the publication elsewhere of the work of the observatory-staff, as to the removal from the observatory of a number of those whose inclination and capabilities led them in the direction of original research of a high order.

In the Lena Delta, etc. By Geo. W. Melville. Edited by Melville Philips. Maps and illustrations. 8vo, pp. xvi, 497. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

THE latest contribution to the literature of the *Jeannette* expedition comes to us in unexceptionable dress as regards binding and typography, and with maps and illustrations which, if not of the highest class, are at least tasteful and sufficiently good for the purposes intended. The book opens with about eighty pages devoted to a sketch of the *Jeannette* voyage and the retreat to the Siberian coast. About 300 pages treat of the experiences of the Melville party in the Lena delta, while retreating and during the subsequent search for De Long and Chipp. A short chapter is devoted to the journey home, and four to the Greely relief expedition of 1884. The work closes with a proposition for reaching the North Pole and getting home again, together with an appendix on equipment, and an index.

A prominent characteristic of the work is the straightforward earnestness of the narrative, devoid alike of literary style and of those pretensions to it which so often repel the reader in works of travel. The personality of the author is unconsciously revealed to us in his pages, and in a manner which commands our respect and admiration. The difficult task of describing endeavors which may be fairly called heroic, without degenerating into brag, has been well performed. For those who have followed all the literature of the expedition, the long record of cold, hunger, privation, and endurance in the Lena delta will not have the charm of novelty. For others the present book, with that of Lieutenant Danenhower on the voyage preceding the search, may be recommended as the best of the whole *Jeannette* series. But two criticisms of importance are suggested by the perusal of the work before us. One is due to the utter failure of the editor to rectify the spelling of proper names, geographical and other, which are frequently so far from accurate as to be unrecognizable except to experts, *e. g.*, Oceansk (Ustiansk), Tuamen (Tiumen); while "*Thegetoff*" for Weyprecht and Payer's renowned vessel is even less excusable. The second exception must be taken to the insertion, in perfect good faith of course, of several extraordinary "yarns," related by alleged political exiles, which the ready sympathy of the author seems to have accepted without question as true. Whatever the sins of the Russian administration may be in the matter of punishing political offenders, and they are plentiful enough, it is hardly fair to condemn them in particular instances without investigating both sides of the question. The individual who asserted that he was, with his family, "exiled to the Yenisei country simply because he was a Jew" (p. 402), unquestionably took a biassed view of his own case, and, like the littérateur referred to in another place (p. 269) as kept in captivity while the "authorities" grew rich by stealing and selling his poetry, must be regarded as a contributor to fiction.

The account of the Greely search is the best part of the book. The race between the whalers and the naval vessels, related with a dash and frankness equally attractive, can hardly fail to stir the blood of the most sluggish reader. The plan for reaching the Pole is an application of Weyprecht's proposed stations to Franz Josef Land, with retreat either to Novaia Zemlia or the Seven Islands north of Spitzbergen. The comments on the details of such an expedition are judicious, though not particularly novel. It is with little doubt the most available route poleward yet remaining, and, a fact more important, it offers the best remaining field for exploration in the high north apart from pole-hunting. In conclusion, we heartily commend the volume to our readers.

The Literary Remains of the Late Henry James. Edited, with an introduction, by William James. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1885.

THE substance of this volume is metaphysical in thought and mystical in religion. Henry James's opinions were few, and were many times expressed in his successive books, as his son admits; in what is now published there is consequently nothing new, so far as dogma and faith are concerned. Nevertheless, the peculiar form of Swedenborgian thought that Mr. James elaborated in his own original handling, was never in any of his works stated by himself in such apprehensible terms as in the Introduction, in which his son has summarized and defined the radical parts of the system. Except for students of philosophy, this essay does away with the necessity, if there ever was any, of reading Mr. James; and even in it the humanly interesting thing is the too slight account of the individuality and religious experience of the thinker, whose views his son seems to regard as apocalyptic. It appears from Mr. James's own papers that while busily engaged in a study of the Scriptures, concerning the interpretation of which he had made "an interesting discovery" as he thought, he suddenly, "in a lightning flash, as it were"—just after having eaten "a comfortable dinner"—was struck with a paralysis of will and hope, forsook his work, and, failing to find relief at a water-cure, at last began to recover by resorting to Swedenborg's volumes. From this and other autobiographical fragments, as well as from the tenor of his writings, it is clear that Mr. James was peculiarly subject to what in old times was called "conviction of sin." Out of his real and violent moral experience (and apparently under peculiar vital conditions) came the curious speculations and beliefs of which we have now the last expression in "Spiritual Creation"—perhaps as composite a metaphysical illusion as ever "rose to upper air." To the student of human nature in its spiritual aspects this system has a kind of experimental interest, as an exorcism of the evil principle from the life of an exceptionally strong nature; but no one should attack it without a strong taste for intellectual castle-building of a ponderous sort, and a "realizing sense" of the wickedness of his own heart.

In his life, as well as in his works, Mr. James was engaged with the riddle of evil; and this gives a quite exceptional value to his criticism of so optimistic a thinker and believer as was Emerson, his intimate friend. He brings this in without rhyme or reason as a chapter of "Spiritual Creation," and, notwithstanding the author's known frankness and breadth of style, it has a piquancy surprising in Emersonian literature, and wholly delightful:

"The actual truth, at any rate, was that he never felt a movement of the life of conscience from the day of his birth till that of his death. . . . He did not know the inward difference between good and evil, so far as he was himself

concerned, . . . I found, in fact, before I had been with him a week, that the immense superiority I ascribed to him was altogether personal or practical—by no means intellectual; that it came to him by birth or genius, like a woman's beauty or charm of manners; that no other account was to be given of it, in truth, than that Emerson himself was an unsexed woman. . . . He seemed to me unmistakably virgin-born whenever I looked at him. . . . In short, he was, as I have said before, fundamentally treacherous to civilization, without being at all aware himself of the fact. He appeared to me utterly unconscious of himself as either good or evil. He had no conscience, in fact, and lived by perception, which is an altogether lower and less spiritual faculty."

This is extraordinarily fresh and genuine, and gives a stranger a notion of the more than geographical distance that intervenes between Cambridge and Concord. Except for these reminiscences, and those of Carlyle, which were widely noticed on their first appearance in the *Atlantic*, the volume has no literary interest.

From Opitz to Lessing: A Study of Pseudo-Classicism in Literature. By Thomas Sergeant Perry. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1884. Pp. 207.

The aim of Mr. Perry's volume, as stated in his preface, is "to give some few of the many available proofs that the different nations of modern Europe have passed through very nearly the same experience in literature." To this end he takes up the dreariest century in the history of German poetry, and shows how its jejuneness corresponds *en gros et en détail* to the contemporary jejuneness of poetry in England and France. He contends that although the great days of German literature begin with Lessing, yet neither Lessing nor what came in his wake can be understood without a careful study of that which had gone before. He distinguishes three stages in that spurious classicism which intervenes between the Renaissance and the upspringing of a new European literature in the latter part of the eighteenth century. In the first stage the new formal knowledge of the classics became the main foundation of literature, and the "history, mythology, manner of thought of Rome and of Greece, as seen by the Romans, were substituted for the natural past of each nation." The characteristic work of this era lay in translations of classical masterpieces, and in the domestication of classical standards, forms, epithets, and literary apparatus generally. The second stage was a "form of writing of which elegance and conceits were the most admired constituents"; and the third was French classicism as interpreted in England by Dryden and Pope, and in Germany by Canitz and Gottsched.

Following up this scheme, the author proceeds to discuss various German poets whom, as he says, it would be high praise to speak of as second-class. Numerous quotations are given from Harsdörfer, Günther, Canitz, Brockes, and others, and analogies are pointed out between these and English poets of corresponding grade. (These quotations, by the way, are disfigured by a score or so of misprints.) An account is then given of Gottsched as leader of the French school in Germany, and of the various agencies by which his authority was broken. The Swiss "poets," Bodmer and Breitinger, come in for discussion, as do also Haller, Klopstock, and Wieland. Finally, the latter half of the book, or very nearly half, is devoted to Lessing, the stress falling mainly upon Lessing's efforts, both critical and creative, in behalf of the drama.

There is in English no good and comprehensive history of German literature, and careful studies of particular authors or of limited periods ought to be all the more welcome for that reason. It is, therefore, with regret that we find ourselves compelled to give to Mr. Perry's volume anything short of high praise; but the fact is that two careful readings of it have left us with the impression of a somewhat sketchy and desultory book. It is not quite obvious, in the first place, for whom the author writes. His quotations are left without translation or comment, and he has next to no biography. One who has not a pretty good knowledge of the German language and literature could hardly read him at all; and one who has, would do well to go for enlightenment to that very Hettner who has evidently been favorite reading with Mr. Perry. What the former goes into with German thoroughness and with a fine critical tact and insight, the latter touches in a light excursive manner that seems in comparison almost journalistic. Any one who wishes to test this judgment of ours should compare the treatment of Lessing by the two authors. The American book is written for the express purpose of making Lessing intelligible, and perhaps does contribute somewhat to that end; but one who had read it, and it alone, would hardly guess that he had been dealing with one of the master minds of the eighteenth century, or be able to surmise in what Lessing's greatness consisted.

The difficulty is, that Mr. Perry cares everything for light and not at all for warmth. His hobby, using that word in no opprobrious sense, is the necessity of studying literature in a perfectly dispassionate temper. Again and again he admonishes us that praise and blame have no place in criticism. He forbids us to laugh at the puerilities of Brockes or of Gottsched, and insists that we try rather to understand the great process of which these were necessary parts. "The highest quality in human nature is comprehension, and that is a placid quality." "Truth is the only thing that makes life valuable." "Our study will be of little profit if it does not teach us how much greater are the long and silently-prepared movements than any brilliant performance; how the most striking thing about any genius is its inevitableness, and that we cannot understand it without the comprehension of the whole spirit of the time." This, in one form or another, is the thread upon which all of our author's beads are strung.

Now it is with no intention of belittling the value of the historical method in criticism (we should as soon think of throwing contempt upon science in general), that we record a suspicion that Mr. Perry's admiration of that method has played him, upon the whole, an evil turn. For the truth is, the most striking thing about genius is not its inevitableness at all. Inevitableness is a quality that belongs to stupidity and impotence just as much as to genius. Furthermore, it would never have occurred to any one to say such a thing but for the fact that, during many centuries, men talked and wrote as if the thing they called genius were a thing outside of or above the ordinary range of cause and effect. We now know that this is not so. We feel sure that if we had before us literally *all* the antecedents of a Shakspere or a Lessing, we could show with the precision of a mathematical demonstration that he must have been thus and not otherwise. But the trouble is, that, with our best efforts, we cannot make a perfect map. We can examine the meat upon which our Cæsar fed, the stupidities he had to explode, the malaria into which he drove his ozone. But when we have done all this what have we got? We have got a plexus of causes which operated on a thousand other minds as well as his, and we have missed the invisible chemistry which created in him and him alone the personal endowment that enabled him to do his work. Explain and analyze as we will, there is always in the greatest men an unexplained residuum of personal power which has the appearance of being *urplötzlich*. We do not say that it is so, or that it must for ever be inexplicable. We only say that it is thus far unexplained, and is pretty likely to remain so until the fundamental riddle of psychology is solved.

Meanwhile, it is precisely this unexplained residuum to which we give the name of genius. We say, therefore, that the most striking thing about genius is not its inevitableness, but its power. But power, when upborne by good will to humanity, is a beneficent thing that calls for admiration. Our hope for the future lies in the prospect we have of making such power more and more coveted and admired. We may, then, anatomize our Hercules as much as we choose; we may examine the marshy habitat of his monsters, and survey the forest from which he got his club; but we need not forget in doing that that there is, after all, between Hercules and Cacus a difference worth accenting, and that the only way of accenting it to any purpose is by means of the old-fashioned *Bravo, Hercules!* Salvation lies not in an enthusiasm for inevitableness, but in an enthusiasm for men.

History of the Netherlands (Holland and Belgium). By Alexander Young. Fully illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1884. 8vo, pp. 672.

Mr. Young's history is a scholarly and able work. Its chief fault is a lack of proportion, which is apologized for in the preface, but which none the less makes the title something of a misnomer. When the middle ages are dismissed in forty pages, and the two centuries and a half since the death of Maurice in less than one hundred, it is hardly fair to call it a "history of the Netherlands." It is in reality a compendious history of the period covered by Mr. Motley's three works. This period has been the subject of patient and thorough investigations by Netherland historians, and Mr. Young has attempted the useful task of laying the results of these investigations before the American people.

This he has done faithfully and thoroughly, and his book will form a desirable supplement to Mr. Motley's works. He enumerates in the preface the several points on which this recent evidence has thrown new light, and they are numerous, and extend over a large field—even as late as the stadtholderate of Frederick Henry, and the death of the De Witts. While emphasizing the patriotism, integrity, and toleration of William the Silent, he insists upon his "profound dissimulation" quite as strongly as is done by his enemies, and attributes to this, indeed, the failure of the Pacification of Ghent, at least in large part. "It was his dependence upon political artifice that led the Prince to encourage those desperate ventures of Ryhove and Imbize which helped to destroy the union of the Netherlands. It was his repute for double dealing that made it impossible for William the Silent to restore confidence to the Walloons and prevent them from resuming allegiance to Spain" (p. 319). Mr. Young has described, much more fully than Mr. Motley was able to do, the outrages committed by the Protestant fanatics in Ghent and Bruges at this period, which led directly to the withdrawal of the Walloon provinces. These outrages, which William in vain attempted to control, included the burning of six monks at Ghent and two at Bruges. He expresses wonder that this fact is not mentioned by Motley.

Mr. Young's estimate of St. Aldegonde in the latter part of his career is more favorable than Mr. Motley's. Of the execution of Barneveldt he says:

"The researches of Dutch scholars have given an entirely new aspect to the execution of Barneveldt, which is still held up by foreign writers, in ignorance of the facts, as due to Maurice's ambition for sovereignty. It is now known that the

Prince engaged reluctantly in the work of subjecting the provincial governments to the control of the States-General, and that . . . he yielded to the earnest appeals of his adviser and friend, Count William Louis, the Stadtholder of Friesland, from a solemn sense of duty to the country, and to preserve it from ruin. The execution of Barneveldt was not then thought of, but the pressure of popular feeling and the sense of public peril compelled it" (p. 529).

Two or three pages follow containing a careful estimate of Barneveldt, which is one of the most interesting parts of the book. Mr. Young rates him not very high as a statesman.

One meets here and there with a clumsy or inaccurate expression, as (p. 293) where mention is made of the soldiers "whom Anjou had expected would capture Antwerp." The illustrations are very unequal in merit. There are some excellent portraits and views, and, along with them, some of very inferior quality, and some that do not appear to have anything to do with the text.

The Law in Shakespeare. By Cushman K. Davis. 2d ed. 12mo, pp. 303. St. Paul: West Publishing Company.

THE second edition of Mr. Davis's little work, with its long list of legal phrases from the plays of Shakspere, shows how much a specialist can find in them on a topic as dry as the common law; and shows, too, how aptly and how frequently the poet converted the dullest and dryest matter into sparkling stage effect. He was not always successful. Mr. Davis does not pause to criticise, but there are times when Shakspere's work suffers from his fondness for verbal conceits, and his use of law terms is sometimes of this kind. When we find Venus and Lucrece and Cleopatra versed in the subtleties of the English common law, we can hardly help feeling that the mighty artist stooped too far to those quibbling fashions which, however much admired by the more learned part of his audience, were really artificial and false. It was not done in the careless haste of hurrying off copy to a waiting actor. Mr. Davis points out that in the revision of "Hamlet," in which the play received some of its most splendid passages, the number of legal phrases was very much increased; and the change was not always an improvement.

Mr. Davis's long list of legal terms from the poet's pages is a new proof of the wonderful wealth and precision of his vocabulary. Of the profounder legal conceptions which underlay the phraseology, Shakspere's knowledge is not so clear. He never used words amiss, but he showed no sympathy with those great conceptions of human rights which were being moulded by legal struggles into shapes to which civil war was soon to give a permanent impress. Shakspere liked to enliven his lines with legal suggestions, but when the law came in his way he pushed it easily and indifferently aside. Mr. Davis might have pointed out how, in the celebrated trial in the "Merchant of Venice," the law was subordinated to stage effect. A bond which violated the law of Venice, as the later ruling of *Portia* showed that this did, could not possibly have been binding, as she began by ruling it to be; and the points about the drops of blood and the exact size of the pound of flesh were mere quibbles, which no court would hesitate over if the bond were valid. But if the poet had displayed his legal knowledge, it would have been at the expense of the delight of the civilized world over a scene that is true to nature if not to law.

The Admission Registers of St. Paul's School, from 1748 to 1876. Edited, with Biographical Notices and Notes on the Earlier Masters and Scholars of the School, by Rev. Robert Barlow Gardiner, Fourth Master. London: Geo. Bell & Sons. 1884. Large 8vo, pp. 515.

WHEN Dean Colet founded in 1509 his free grammar school in honor of "Christ Jesu *in puericia* and of his blessyd Mother Mary," he was the pioneer in reviving English scholarship in Greek and in giving a scholarly tone to the education of the children of the substantial citizens of London. Although a free school, it was not a charity school, the scholars receiving nothing but daily instruction. Its management was in the hands of the Mercers' Company, one of the richest guilds of the city, and by the liberality of its friends there has never been any lack of opportunities to send the most deserving graduates to the universities.

That the school has been of great and continuing service is undeniable, and in this handsome volume are preserved all the fragments of the records of its graduates. As the authentic lists do not begin until 1748, Mr. Gardiner is to be praised for his industry in hunting out the evidences of preceding classes. The lists, of course, like all similar ones, are of interest chiefly to the alumni, presenting hundreds of utterly obscure names, animated only by those of successful scholars who have attained a brief advancement. But a school can be congratulated whose rolls bear the names of John Milton, Samuel Pepys, John Strype, Benjamin Calamy, Edmund Halley, Philip Francis, Thomas Clarkson, and John Bowyer Nichols. The great Duke of Marlborough and Major John André here received the rudiments of knowledge, as have lawyers innumerable, from Chief Justice Jeffreys to Sir Charles Wetherell, Chancellor Wilde (Lord Truro), and Chief Baron Pollock. Richard Harris Barham is perhaps the best-known author herein graduated, but a few bishops and many minor lights of the Church are piously commemorated for much-forgotten divinity.

American Comments on European Questions, International and Religious. By Joseph P. Thompson, formerly of New York and afterward of Berlin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. 341.

THESE papers, by an intelligent and patriotic American residing in Berlin, will be found a useful commentary upon the course of European politics during the last few years. The author was a careful student of international law, and took an active part in the movements for its amelioration. All the eight papers that treat of international relations are worth reading; we have been especially pleased with that entitled "The Intercourse of Christian with non-Christian Peoples." Most of these are, as would be expected, written from the German point of view; and the fact that their author was a resident of Germany during the whole period in which that country made such rapid progress toward unity and power, gives them peculiar value. The last five papers treat of Science and Religion, final causes, and other theological and philosophical topics.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allgemeine Weltgeschichte. Parts 1-3. Berlin. New York: E. Westermann & Co.
Atkinson, E. The Distribution of Products; or, The Mechanism and the Metaphysics of Exchange. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Colombi, La Marchesa. The Wane of an Ideal. W. S. Gottsberger.
Converse, Harriet M. Sheaves: a Collection of Poems. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Davidson, Dr. A. B. The Book of Job. With Notes, Introduction, and Appendix. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press.
Delevan, D. B. Eighth International Medical Congress, held in Copenhagen, August, 1884. D. Appleton & Co.
Ellacombe, Rev. H. N. The Plant-Lore and Garden-Craft of Shakespeare. 2d ed. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.
Footman, Rev. H. Reasonable Apprehensions and Reassuring Hints. James Pott & Co.
Fouillée, A. La Propriété Sociale et la Démocratie. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Gréville, H. Mam'zelle Eugénie: a Russian Love Story. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 50 cents.
Jaques, Lieut. W. H. Heavy Ordnance for National Defence. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 22, 1885.

The Week.

MR. EVARTS has been elected Senator by the unanimous vote of the members of his party in the Legislature. He is very much pleased with his victory, and he has great reason to be. All the intriguers of his party—Platt, Conkling, Cornell, and other faction-workers—were against him, but he has won because the masses of the party made themselves felt in his behalf. In fact, his selection is the result of one of those uprisings of popular sentiment for which New York State is peculiar. The Republicans of the State saw in the efforts to secure Mr. Morton's nomination a combined movement to fasten upon the party management the grip of a new machine, which should control the nomination for Governor next November, and "run" the organization in the interest of a clique of politicians until the next Presidential campaign; and they no sooner saw this than they resolved to thwart it by the election of Mr. Evarts. Their action is a fresh and most gratifying assurance that the day for "bosses" has passed in New York. There is nothing for Messrs. Platt, Cornell & Co. to do but retire from politics. Our opinion of Mr. Evarts's qualifications for the Senatorship is well known, and has not been changed by his success. The non-factional aspect of his election is ample compensation for all defects in his temperament and character, and we rejoice in believing that in nominating him his party has taken a long step away from threatening dissolution. The nomination of Mr. Morton, if it had come after the discreditable outcome of the Speakership contest, would have been an almost fatal blow to the prospects of the party in the next election. It would have driven away the Independent voters and made the State surely Democratic.

The prompt and almost unanimous passage of the bill in the Senate to put General Grant on the retired list of the army, was an act of public justice, gratifying to national pride and commensurate with the national dignity. Recent events have revealed General Grant to the hearts of his countrymen in a condition of mental and physical distress brought about by a trusting and over-credulous nature, and bearing a load grievous and humiliating in the last degree. Mr. Vanderbilt's generosity, while it might relieve General Grant's pecuniary embarrassment, could not make him in the estimation of himself or others anything but a pensioner upon a private individual. Such a position, for one who had commanded the Union armies in the greatest crisis of our history, would have been intolerable to himself, to his contemporaries, and to posterity. It would have been as shameful to the nation as it was creditable to the individual who had voluntarily assumed the entire burden. Mr. Vanderbilt's act would have linked his own name with that of General Grant in the pages of history, but at the expense of the American people. It was and is necessary that the public should assume this burden, if it can be called a burden; but it ought to be esteemed rather a privilege to rescue General Grant from the position in which the unexampled frauds of one man and the unexampled liberality of another have placed him. The action of the Southern Senators upon this bill, following so closely upon the Jeff Davis debate, was nothing less than a grand political stroke.

The bill seems likely to fail in the House through President Arthur's extraordinary conduct in vetoing the Fitz-John Porter bill, on constitutional grounds, when the truth was that he had signed many similar bills, and only vetoed this one because he did not like it. For this the Democrats are now revenging themselves. It is human, but it is bad politics. There is no greater mistake in party warfare in the long run than to give tit for tat. Temporary success is sometimes achieved in this way, but to win popular confidence, there is nothing like doing the right thing every time, no matter how often the other side does the wrong thing.

The letter of Mr. Charles Francis Adams, President of the Union Pacific Railroad, to the Government directors of that corporation, tells us that the company has made no proposition to the Government for a modification of the Thurman Act, but is merely an interested spectator of the proceedings which may be instituted by Congress, in obedience to the suggestions of the executive branch of the Government, to change the requirements of that act. It is a great relief to those charged with the duty of looking after the Government's interests to know that there are no sinister influences at work, and that they are dealing with a man whose word can be relied on. Nobody can really believe that Mr. Adams means anything different from what he says, or that he conceals anything which it is important that the public should know in order to arrive at an intelligent understanding of the business. It is safe to say that the company will get much better terms through square dealing than could possibly be obtained if chicanery and duplicity were lurking in the background. When Mr. Adams says that the company are proposing nothing, but are waiting the action of the Government, not omitting to give their own views, but yet intending to pay the Government what is justly due to it in the way which may be determined by lawful authority, there is no room for suspicions of any sort. Mr. Adams is bound to do the best for his company within the limitations of honor. His name is sufficient assurance that these limitations will be observed. The policy which Mr. Adams would like to have adopted by the Government is that of allowing the company to acquire its natural growth by applying its surplus earnings to the building of branch lines, and taking these branch lines as additional security for the existing debt. This is the best thing for the company, and it may be the best thing for the Government, but it is open to the objection that it makes the Government a partner in a new railroad enterprise of undefined extent.

This has a political as well as a financial aspect. The question is not merely one of dollars and cents. It involves a policy which can only be defended upon the ground that something worse may happen. Taking the existing branch lines so far as the title to them is still in the Union Pacific Company—that is, so far as the bonds have not passed into the hands of private investors—is one thing. Laying out new lines to be treated in the same way is a different thing, and is not the kind of work for which our Government was intended, or is at present equipped. Very substantial reasons should be given for making such a precedent. The important question for Congress to ask is this: Within what period can the Union Pacific Company repay the money which it owes the Government without impairing the original security and without impairing the property? Impairment of the property is impairment of the security, and it is quite certain that the property would be impaired if the stockholders should lose all interest in it through failure to receive any returns from it. It is for the Government's interest that it should not become a mere football of speculation. The debt will be collected, if at all, by securing the most diligent attention and the best talent and the highest integrity that can be obtained for its management and operation. These requisites are not usually obtainable by broken-down railroads, and the class of speculators who commonly pick up such properties do not always seek such qualifications in their managers. There being no fund from which the debt can be paid except the property itself and what it can be made to yield, the policy of conservation is indispensable, and we think that Mr. Adams is right in holding that conservation implies necessarily some return to the shareholders upon their investments. What this shall be in amount must be determined by the net earnings and the other facts of detail in the case.

The Rev. Dr. Van Dyke and Henry Ward Beecher discuss the question whether "clergymen shall be politicians" in the new number of the *North American Review*. Dr. Van Dyke answers decidedly not. He says that the clergyman in politics—as a clergyman, be it understood—is "injurious"; that "when he attempts to lead the church, as a religious organization, into the train of any candidate for office, he is doing a great and irreparable harm to the cause of religion." He intimates, moreover, very broadly that there were too many clergymen in politics in the late campaign, and that, as their numbers increase, "party discipline will teach them to condone immoralities on their own side and repeat slanders against the other side. A lack of worldly experience, combined with a professional habit of rhetorical statement, will produce an *odium politicum*, compared with which the traditions of the extinct *odium theologicum* will seem like the stories of the golden age."

Mr. Beecher makes a distinction between Catholic and Protestant Episcopal ministers on the one hand, and ministers of the other denominations on the other. The former should keep out of politics because they cannot divest

themselves in the eyes of their parishioners of their sacerdotal character. But the clergy of other denominations, having no sacerdotal character, and being simply citizens with a teaching function, should teach good politics as well as other good things from the pulpit. But he prudently adds, that "as a general thing instruction from the pulpit on political duty should not be given on the eve of an election." For our part we think that as political duty for the citizen consists almost wholly in the choice of candidates at election, political duty can hardly be taught from the pulpit at all. Political duty is really not distinguishable in the forum of morals from other duty. It is every man's moral duty to vote for the candidate whom he honestly thinks the best; but the considerations which determine which is the best candidate are often not moral considerations at all, but historical or economical, or purely political, and a minister in nine cases out of ten is no better judge of them than anybody else. The two articles in the *Review* are interesting, but they skim very lightly over the question under discussion.

A flood of light is thrown upon the queer condition of journalistic morality in Cincinnati by a furious quarrel over the Sheriff's advertising. One of the lesser fruits of the great Blaine victory in Ohio in October was the election of the Republican candidate for Sheriff in Hamilton County, or Cincinnati. He was supported with great fervor by the *Commercial Gazette*. On taking office, however, the Sheriff bestowed the advertising in his gift upon the Democratic organ, the *Enquirer*. The *Commercial Gazette* says that in doing this he has "betrayed his friends," and "sold his office to the *Enquirer* gang," and "has received a little dirty money for doing it." In order to reveal the extent of his "perfidy," the *Commercial Gazette* publishes a formal contract signed by the Sheriff on the eve of election, promising, in case he is elected, to give the advertising to the *Commercial Gazette;* it publishes also a formal affidavit by the Sheriff, made a few days before election, denying as an "unmitigated lie" a rumor that he had made a similar contract with the *Enquirer*. The *Commercial Gazette* admits that its faith in its own contract with the Sheriff was so strong that it "disbelieved the charges which he has proven were true," and supported him, though "he could have been beaten with a paragraph." Aside from the revelation that both these organs of public opinion were supporting a candidate, not on account of his fitness for office, but because of private contracts, for benefits to be bestowed after election, the Sheriff's "perfidy" is instructive as furnishing additional evidence of the peculiar attitude of the *Enquirer* toward the Democratic party in the late Presidential campaign. The general belief that it had a "contract" of some kind with the Blaine managers for the defeat of Cleveland, will be strengthened by this evidence of its relation to the Republican ticket in October.

The late Mr. Colfax filled a very considerable place during the most stirring period of our history. He was not a strong, but an exceedingly nimble man. He attained to the Speakership and the Vice-Presidency by virtue of remarkable alertness of intellect, joined to indefatigable industry and an accommodating nature which made neither enemies nor lasting friends, but which fitted him to receive blows without emotion, and to return them without animosity. Among the members of the House during his Speakership there were many abler men than himself—Stevens, Winter Davis, Garfield, Conkling, Blaine, Washburne. He was the senior in service of most of these, and he had acquired a mastery of parliamentary law which often gives to second-rate men a first-rate importance. His seniority caused him to be deferred to, his knowledge of procedure made him useful, and his suppleness, nimbleness, and unvarying good nature made him popular with his fellow-members. Mr. Washburne, of Illinois, his competitor for the Speakership after Mr. Grow's term had expired, had no more chance than a Spanish galleon of the Armada against an English gunboat. What Mr. Colfax lacked in calibre he more than made up in rapidity of action, and his victory in that contest was never doubtful. The same resources availed him in his next considerable encounter, with Senator Wade, of Ohio, for the Vice-Presidency in the Chicago Convention of 1868. As the colleague of General Grant, he brought his full measure of popularity and his full share of resources to the campaign of that year. In 1872 he allowed himself to be flattered with the idea that he might receive the nomination for the Presidency, and thus allowed the second place on the ticket to be taken by Henry Wilson. Then the Crédit-Mobilier investigation came on, and he retired to private life. Dropping the veil over this episode, it may be said that Mr. Colfax held the foremost rank among the second-rate men of his time. He did not rank with Lincoln, Seward, Sumner, or with certain of his contemporaries still living, but he outranked the multitude who served with him, and secured a distinct place in history.

Mr. Clarkson has been shown Mr. St. John's last denial of the charge of seeking to sell out to the Republicans, and pronounces it "more a confession than a contradiction," and says he "deals in quibbles, and craftily evades the main facts," and challenges him to bring a libel suit in an earthly tribunal, where the whole affair can be thoroughly sifted. This is a reference to Mr. St. John's expressed desire to have the matter investigated at the judgment day. We regret to see, however, that Mr. Clarkson is unconscious of the figure which he and Mr. Elkins cut in the matter, according to his own story. They seem to have entered into bona-fide negotiations with St. John, to pay him for perpetrating in the Blaine interest a gross fraud, both on the Prohibitionists and Republicans. He was, for instance, to be paid for inserting the following bit of cant and hypocrisy in his Ohio speeches:

> "It is now evident to every one that either Blaine or Cleveland is sure to be elected President. It is time for every lover of his country to stop and ask himself what his duty is in such a situation. Blaine represents whiskey and loyalty; Cleveland, whiskey and disloyalty. As between whiskey and loyalty and whiskey and disloyalty, I am for whiskey and loyalty every time."

Of course, the Prohibitionist who would utter such stuff for pay would be a degraded person, but what kind of men would they be who would pay him for doing it, while maintaining a champion at their heaquarters to keep them "in line with the religious sentiment of the country"?

It appears to be a part of the regular business of the protectionists in the United States to attempt to frighten people by circulating the most ridiculous stories respecting the doings of the Cobden Club. The last one that is travelling the rounds of the press is, that the Club issued, during the recent Presidential campaign, in aid of the Democratic party, 1,000,000 leaflets entitled "New York Campaign Documents." We stand ready to pay a handsome reward to any one who will produce *one* copy of any such leaflet issued by or bearing the imprint of the Club. This yarn would seem to be the natural growth, acquired in time and by travelling, of a statement made by the Hon. Thos. H. Dudley, in a lecture on the Cobden Club, delivered at Astoria, L. I., "to a large assemblage of farmers and artisans," in October last, and reported in the *Tribune*. As reported, the statement was as follows: "That foreign club cannot rest until the United States are subdued, and they are at work subduing us. I repeat, they have their agents all over this country, and that they have distributed 700,000 copies of their circulars here." At this meeting Mr. Dudley read for the edification of his hearers (according to the *Tribune's* report) from a book entitled 'Special Report from the Club for the Members Alone.' As no such book or report was ever made or published, we should be pleased if Mr. Dudley would rise and explain. And if he is an honest man, he will make haste to do so.

Mr. Abram S. Hewitt said very truly, in the debate on the McPherson Bank Bill, that there had really been no contraction of the currency during the past year. What has really contracted during the period of depression has been the demand for currency. To all intents and purposes the currency has been enlarged rather than diminished in volume since the beginning of 1882. Everybody knows that when prices are declining, less and less money is needed to do business with than when prices are advancing. It is true, also, that when business is dull and profits are unsatisfactory, money accumulates in the banks and lies there, either unused or loaned at very low rates of interest, as is the case now. It is entirely misleading to infer at such times that currency contraction is going on, merely because the statistics of the Treasury Department show that more bank notes have been surrendered for cancellation than have been taken out for circulation. The McPherson bill, allowing the issue of notes up to the par value of the security bonds, is in our view unobjectionable, but it is not now necessary to pass any measure to prevent contraction of the currency. The only contraction which hurts anybody at present is the contraction of business, and this is not to be cured by swapping bonds or by multiplying bits of paper.

A correspondence between Bishops Lee and Potter contains an interesting discussion of the

vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience taken before the latter by two members of the so-called "Order of the Holy Cross." Nobody who reads it will doubt that Bishop Potter has by far the best of the argument, and has in fact produced a very masterly vindication of his action. In fact, we never could see what objection there was to any man's taking such a vow as an assistance to him in work among the poor, except that similar vows have been taken and are now taken by persons in the Catholic Church who lead lives which Protestants consider idle or trivial, or for the simple purpose of what is called "saving their souls." The practical view of the matter in our day would seem to be that any man who thinks that he can do good work better by taking a vow of some sort of self-denial, does well to take it, with whatever solemnities he thinks necessary. Any one, on the contrary, who thinks he can do good work without a vow, had better let it alone. The hostility excited by the vows in the present case is the odder because there are many Protestant sisterhoods under vows. All ministers, soldiers, and married men, too, are under public vows, and so are a great number of abstainers from alcoholic drinks. Doubtless the number of persons who are living under some kind of secret vows is very large. In fact, no vows of self-denial have thus far proved dangerous to society that were not perpetual, that did not involve complete abandonment of all share in the work of the world, and that did not help to build up rich corporations.

Mr. Bangs delivered a severe tirade on Monday in court on the obstruction offered to the administration of justice by the press, which he accused of terrorizing both witnesses and counsel, sometimes by eulogy and sometimes by caricature and abuse. Part of what he said appeared to be intended to be humorous, but there is some truth behind it all. The press has become a terror to a great many unoffending people, and has made publicity of any kind a fearful thing for the nervous or timid, mainly through the immense development of what we may call the irresponsibility of reporters. A generation ago, editorial attacks on or ridicule of private individuals were far commoner than they are now. At present few respectable papers ever indulge in them. The editorial page has become much more sober and self-restrained than it used to be. But during the last twenty years the rôle of the reporter has been greatly enlarged. He does a great deal of purely descriptive writing, and makes a great deal of interesting discussion pass through his mind in the shape of interviews. But the editorial hold on him has apparently grown weaker as his function has grown wider. There appears to be but little editorial censorship exercised over his contributions in any city paper as long as he manages to be amusing. Accordingly he distorts, caricatures, invents, and colors almost at pleasure. He is hardly ever called to account unless he brings on a libel suit. Much of this enormous power over the comfort of individuals, too, is put into the hands of very young men, who are allowed to cultivate freely, wherever they go, the art, not of amusing description, but of amusing caricature. Everything called reporting now takes or tends to take this form. The proceedings in important law cases are served up in the same kind of burlesque as a street fight or a row at a ward meeting. The evil is great, and tends to become greater, and ought to be checked.

The Legislature of Georgia during its past session provided employment for women for which they are quite as well fitted as men, and in so doing has set an example which, we predict, will be promptly followed by other Southern States. Heretofore the clerk of the Lower House of the Legislature of Georgia (who, it should be said, does all of its clerical work at a contract price, and employs his own assistants), has at every session engaged about eight or ten male clerks at a salary of $2 50 or $3 a day, to do the necessary engrossing. He was directed by a resolution passed at the late session to employ women for this work. As the movement was one which he favored, he doubtless took pains to secure as clerks not only deserving women, but skilful copyists, and the result is that Governor McDaniel is much pleased with the appearance of the bills engrossed by them, sent to him to be signed, and finds in them fewer clerical errors than in any heretofore submitted to him. It is not improbable that this may be the means by which women in the South, compelled to earn a living, and having hitherto only a choice between school teaching and keeping a boarding-house, may obtain an abundant admission to places of profit under State governments. There has been little or no demand made by them, it is true, for situations of this kind. The resolution referred to was passed by the Georgia Legislature purely on its own motion. It had received no petitions from women, it had not been appealed to by the press, and it had no instances laid before it of a similar step having been taken by other States.

The increasing radicalism of Mr. Chamberlain's speeches on the land question makes it plain that he is looking to Mr. Gladstone's retirement in the near future, and a reorganization of parties when the next Parliament, elected by the new voters, meets, which will be probably in the spring of 1886. The Redistribution Bill will be finally passed when Parliament meets in February, and then the work of registration and of fixing the boundaries of the new constituencies will be begun, in preparation for a general election in the fall of this year. The most powerful element in the new vote will be the agricultural laborers, whose condition has for centuries been the disgrace of English society, and Mr. Chamberlain is evidently determined to secure their adhesion in advance for a party which perhaps has as yet no name, but of which he will be the head. In listening to Chamberlain, the Tories who used to abuse Gladstone so bitterly are probably beginning to look on the latter as a strong tower of defence.

We have not received for a good while an odder piece of news than the cable story that Schotz, the German sculptor, who was the principal witness in the libel suit brought by an English sculptor, Belt, last winter, against another named Lawes, has confessed perjury. The case occupied the courts for many weeks, and ended in a verdict of £5,000 against Lawes for having said that Belt's works were not his own, but were done for him. There was a fearful amount of directly contradictory testimony. Lawes, to avoid payment of the damages, had himself declared a bankrupt, and during the bankruptcy proceedings Schotz has confessed that he and Belt and another man had entered into a conspiracy to bring the suit for the sake of the damages, and that he (Schotz) was the real author of Belt's works. Lawes was well known not to have money, but he had a rich father, who, it was thought, would pay. This confession is the oddest part of the affair, because it was apparently unnecessary, and Schotz will now be prosecuted and punished. He is evidently venal, but it is hard to see where he would get sufficient compensation for a term of penal servitude. As an illustration of the condition of morals in "art circles" in London, it is an extraordinary affair. If Schotz's confession be true, it shows that a man may enjoy considerable reputation and extensive patronage for years as a sculptor in one of the greatest "art centres" in the world, while in reality nothing but a fraudulent vender of other men's work.

Edmund Yates's appeal against his sentence was on a technicality, his point being that he was prosecuted for criminal libel without the consent of the Attorney-General, which a recent act of Parliament has made necessary. The question before the Court was whether this consent was necessary for a criminal information filed in the Queen's Bench, as well as for an indictment by the Grand Jury. The decision has gone against him, and so he has gone to jail. There appears to be more or less sympathy for him among his brethren of the press, but none at all in "society," which suffers from papers like his, but nevertheless feeds on them greedily, and in fact maintains them. He gave up the writer of the libel, Lady Stradbroke, whom the exposure has ruined, and made all the atonement in his power in the way of apology; so that he is really suffering rather as a warning and example to society papers than as a real culprit. As he is to be a "first-class misdemeanant"—that is, deprived of nothing but his liberty—the punishment is not severe, and will be considerably mitigated by the service it will render his paper as an advertisement.

The cable despatch from London about the excitement in English official circles over a threat of Turkey to send troops to occupy Suakim, is absurd on its face. Turkey has no troops, and no money, and no ships for any foreign expedition. Moreover, the notion that reinforcements are being despatched to Egypt to resist her, is ridiculous. In case Turkey announced any such plan as is ascribed to her, and England were determined to oppose it, the British Ambassador at Constantinople would simply inform the Porte that the despatch of an expedition to Egypt would not be permitted, and there the matter would end. The reason it would end there is, that the British fleet would capture or sink it before it left Turkish waters.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 14, to TUESDAY, January 20, 1885 inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the United States Senate on Wednesday, Senator Edmunds called up his bill by which General Grant is to be appointed by the President to the retired list of the army, with full rank and pay of General or General-in-Chief ($13,500). Warm tributes to General Grant were paid by the Southern Senators Maxey, Jonas, George, Jones, of Florida, and Voorhees. Senator Cockrell (Dem., Mo.) spoke against the bill. Mr. Edmunds was the only Senator on the Republican side who found it necessary to speak on the measure. It was passed by a vote of 49 to 9, the negative votes being Democratic.

The House Committee on Military Affairs on Friday voted to call up in the House the Grant Retirement Bill first introduced in the Senate, and not the one which passed it on January 14. This was done to put President Arthur in an inconsistent light on the Fitz-John Porter veto if he should sign the Grant Bill, which is open to the same technical objection

During the debate on the Inter-State Commerce Bill in the Senate on Friday, Senator Van Wyck (Rep., Neb.) made a long speech in which he severely criticised Messrs. Allison, Ingalls, Sewell, and Morgan, for their kindly feeling toward railway corporations. A running debate followed, in which Messrs. Ingalls, Allison, and Brown replied to Mr. Van Wyck's criticisms. An adjournment was then taken without a vote on the bill.

In the House on Thursday the McPherson Funding Bill, by which national banks are to be allowed to issue notes to the full amount of their bond reserve, came up under a special order. In the midst of the discussion an adjournment was taken by a vote of 130 to 112. While this was in no sense a test vote on the McPherson bill, it operated as a virtual defeat of that measure, as the special order for discussion on a fixed day is not a continuing order. Congressman Potter has issued a card asserting that the onus of preventing remedial national bank legislation must rest upon the friends of the McPherson bill, who, when it became evident that their bill could not pass, refused to consent to a consideration of the Potter Refunding Bill.

The bill referring the French Spoliation Claims to the Court of Claims has passed both houses of Congress and will be approved by the President. These claims have been before Congress for many years, and in 2,563 cases amount to $7,300,000.

Secretary McCulloch on Friday transmitted to the House of Representatives a draft of a bill prepared by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue to amend the law relating to the entry of distilled spirits, in distillery and special bonded warehouses, and the withdrawal of the same therefrom. The bill provides that the tax on all distilled spirits hereafter entered for deposit in distillery warehouses, or in special bonded warehouses, or remaining in such warehouses at the time of the passage of the act, shall be payable before and at the time the same are withdrawn therefrom, except in cases of withdrawals without the payment of tax as now or hereafter authorized by law. The Secretary recommends the immediate passage of the bill as tending to relieve the present business depression.

The House Committee on Rivers and Harbors on Wednesday completed its bill, with the exception of the item making an appropriation for the Hennepin Canal and one or two items for small rivers. The sum appropriated is over $6,000,000.

Judge William A. Richardson, of the Court of Claims, was on Thursday nominated by President Arthur to be Chief Justice of the court in place of Mr. Drake, resigned. To fill the place made vacant by Mr. Richardson's promotion the President has named Mr. John Davis, Assistant Secretary of State, and son-in-law of Secretary Frelinghuysen.

President Arthur has nominated Carroll D. Wright, of Massachusetts, to be Commissioner of Labor.

The Senatorial canvass at Albany assumed a new phase on Wednesday, when the politicians began seriously to consider the make-up of Speaker Erwin's committees which had been announced on the previous evening. It was found that they had been made entirely in the interests of Mr. Morton, and with utter disregard to propriety or efficiency. A number of members of the Legislature, who had previously been for Morton for Senator, came out for Mr. Evarts. The appearance of ex-Governor Cornell at Albany personally to further the Morton campaign added to the unpopularity of that candidate. Mr. Evarts's friends were elated, and confidently predicted his nomination by the Republican caucus.

At midnight of Thursday the withdrawal of Congressman Hiscock, of this State, from the Senatorial contest was formally announced at Albany, and caused additional uneasiness to the Morton managers, who saw that the eight supporters of Mr. Hiscock would go to Mr. Evarts. In Mr. Hiscock's letter of withdrawal, he expressed the opinion that for him to continue in the canvass would be unprofitable for New York and the Republican party. Floods of Evarts petitions were presented in both houses of the Legislature on Friday, and the tide was strongly setting in his favor. Both houses adjourned early in the day until Monday. A little after noon the Morton men were again startled by the announcement that Gen. Leslie W. Russell had withdrawn from the contest in favor of Mr. Evarts.

The Republican legislative caucus on Monday night voted for an open ballot, 64 to 28. It then nominated William M. Evarts for United States Senator by a vote of 61 for him to 28 for L. P. Morton and 3 for Chauncey M. Depew. The Democrats held a caucus on Tuesday morning, and nominated as their candidate for Senator ex-Mayor Edward Cooper, of this city, the vote being: Cooper 28, Pulitzer 21, William E. Smith 2, Hewitt 3, Jacobs 1. At noon the Senate took the first formal steps toward the election of a successor to Senator E. G. Lapham. Each Senator rose in his place as the roll was called and announced his choice. Nineteen Republicans voted for William M. Evarts, and thirteen Democrats voted for Edward Cooper. At the same hour the Assembly balloted for United States Senator with the following result: William M. Evarts 73, Edward Cooper 52. Mr. Evarts was thus elected. The result is announced at a joint session of both houses.

At a caucus of the Republican members of the Pennsylvania Legislature on Thursday night, in Harrisburg, after a session of four hours, J. Donald Cameron was renominated for United States Senator. There were fifty opposition votes.

The Republican members of the Connecticut Legislature have renominated United States Senator Platt, and as they are in the majority he will be elected. Senator Vance has been renominated by the Democrats of North Carolina, and Senator Ingalls by the Republicans of Kansas. Both will be elected.

The first annual report of the New York State Dairy Commissioner was sent to the Senate on Thursday. It says that, owing to the prosecutions instituted by the Commissioner and his assistant, 75 per cent. of the sales of spurious butter in this State, as compared with 1883, have been suppressed. Sixty arrests have been made, eleven convictions secured, forty persons are under indictment or have elected to be tried by special session.

The Court of Appeals of this State handed down a decision on Tuesday declaring the Tenement-house Cigar Bill unconstitutional.

Mayor Grace, of this city, has appointed E. Henry Lacombe Corporation Counsel for the term expiring May 1, 1889.

There was great excitement in the iron trade on Thursday afternoon when it became known that the prominent Pittsburgh firms of Oliver Bros. & Phillips and the Oliver & Roberts Wire Company had issued the following card to their creditors: "We are to-day compelled to suspend payments, and purpose calling immediately a meeting of those interested, to whom we believe we can show assets amply sufficient, with some indulgence, to pay every dollar of our liabilities." H. W. Oliver, the head of the firm, is noted in the iron trade for his business ability and energy. He was a member of the Tariff Commission. His firm owned three iron mills employing 1,500 men. The explanation of the failure is that the firm attempted to do too much business for the amount of their capital, and when a dull season came they had no reserve to fall back on. Their liabilities are estimated at $5,000,000. The trade in other cities was not seriously affected

At a meeting of the creditors on Tuesday Mr. H. W. Oliver, jr., presented a statement, proposing to pay all claims by notes maturing one each year for five years, one-fifth at each payment, each note to bear 6 per cent. interest from the date when the claims are respectively due. A committee of the creditors reported favorably on the proposals, and it was decided not to take final action until January 29. The greatest harmony prevailed, and there was a general disposition to grant the five years' extension asked

Late on Thursday afternoon the well-known banking firm of John J. Cisco & Son, of this city, made an assignment. It was after hours, and much excitement and alarm on Wall Street was thus avoided. The failure was primarily due to a great depreciation of Houston and Texas Central Railroad bonds, of which $500,000 worth were held by the firm. Rumors affecting the standing of the firm had been circulated for ten days, and worked them great injury. Their liabilities to depositors are about $2,000,000, and they also owe about $1,200,000 in secured loans. Stocks fell on Friday 1 or 2 per cent. in consequence of this failure, but it had no alarming effect on the market. The firm of John J. Cisco & Son was founded by the late John J. Cisco in 1864. Since his death, in March last, the firm has been composed of John A. Cisco and Frederick W. Foote, who was formerly a confidential clerk.

The Pennsylvania Railroad on Saturday announced a cut in emigrant rates (confined to those persons reaching New York and Philadelphia by ocean steamer), by which the fare was reduced to $1 from those cities to Chicago, St. Louis, and Cincinnati. This move was made necessary by the action of the Erie Railway, the New York Central, the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western, and the West Shore Companies in adopting reduced emigrant rates without consultation with the Pennsylvania Company, and in direct violation of the rules governing the emigrant pool. With the reduction in the rate of steerage passage by the transatlantic steamers to $8, this cut makes an emigrant rate from Liverpool to Chicago of $9.

About 11 o'clock on Friday night an attempt was made to destroy one of the hat factories at South Norwalk, Conn., owned by Crofut & Knapp. A can containing an explosive, supposed to be dynamite, was exploded by means of a fuse. The damage to the building was comparatively small, but the affair has excited afresh the feeling against the operatives in the factories, who struck work some time ago, as it is believed that they are responsible for it.

One ward of the Insane Asylum at Kankakee, Ill., was burned on Sunday morning and seventeen patients lost their lives.

Professor Benjamin Silliman, of Yale College, died at ten o'clock on Wednesday night,

of heart disease and uræmic poisoning. He was born in New Haven, December 4, 1816, and was graduated from Yale in 1837. He was then employed as assistant in the department of chemistry, of which his father was the head from 1802 to 1853. In 1842 Professor Silliman began to receive private pupils in analytical chemistry and mineralogy. This was the germ of the Sheffield Scientific School, which was, however, known, at its organization in 1847, as the Yale Scientific School. Professor Silliman was in that year appointed to the chair of chemistry in the new school. In 1846 he published his 'First Principles of Chemistry,' of which 50,000 copies have been sold. From 1849 to 1854 he was Professor of Medical Chemistry and Toxicology at the Louisville, Ky., University. In the latter year he succeeded his father at Yale in the chair of chemistry. He resigned his chair in the Academical Department in 1870, but continued to instruct in the Medical Department.

Rear-Admiral L. M. Powell, of the Navy (retired), died in Washington on Thursday, at the age of sixty-seven.

FOREIGN.

Prime Minister Ferry created a sensation in the French Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday by declaring, in reply to an interrogatory, that the Government intended immediately to increase its energies in Tonquin, and would not stop until it occupied the entire country up to the frontier of the Chinese Empire. General Lewal, the new Minister of War, in speaking on the military situation, declared that he was a soldier and had no desire to interfere in politics. He praised General Campenon's devotion to France, and said he would strive to imitate it. He denied that the present operations in Tonquin would endanger the mobilization of the army in France, should occasion therefor arise. M. Ferry asserted that the Government insisted upon the complete execution of the Tientsin treaty, and was resolved by every means in its power to chastise China. After these remarks the order of the day was adopted by a vote of 294 to 234. The speech of M. Ferry has created a bad impression in Paris.

It was reported in Paris on Thursday that Admiral Courbet had captured the mines at Kelung. On Friday, China ordered a squadron to Formosa to attack the fleet of Admiral Courbet, to recapture Kelung, and to raise the blockade established by France on the northern coast of Formosa.

It was reported, on good authority, on Wednesday, that France and Germany had come to a complete agreement in regard to the Egyptian, Chinese, and Congo questions. France engages to protect German commerce in the French colonies, and Germany promises in consideration thereof to support France in her colonial schemes. Bismarck only withholds his final assent until after the French elections, when, if Prime Minister Ferry secures a good majority of the Chambers, he will sign the agreement.

The counter proposals of the Powers regarding Egyptian finances were presented to Earl Granville on Saturday. They demand that an inquiry under the control of the Powers be instituted in Egypt with the object of ascertaining the resources of that country, and determining whether the sacrifices which the holders of Egyptian bonds have been asked to make will be reimbursed or made permanent. They also demand that all coupons shall be provisionally taxed.

Hassan Fehmi Pasha, the Turkish Minister of Justice, who has set out on a special mission to England in regard to Egyptian affairs to effect an *entente cordiale*, will also visit France.

A despatch from Constantinople, which was not fully credited, was received in London on Sunday, stating that the Sultan of Turkey had sent a force of 6,000 troops to occupy Suakim, on the eastern coast of Egypt, to chastise Osman Digna, and to maintain the Sultan's authority in the Red Sea littoral. The cost of the expedition and of the maintenance of the troops hereafter is to be charged against Egypt. This news caused great excitement in British political circles. A special council was held at the War Office and great activity immediately ensued at the naval stations. The Ministry is determined, it was reported in London, not to allow Turkey to interfere in Egyptian affairs.

The Paris *Temps* published a rumor on Wednesday that El Mahdi had accepted General Wolseley's proposals and would not oppose his advance to Khartum. It was mere bazaar gossip.

General Wolseley telegraphed on Friday from Korti that Major Kitchener had returned there, having left Gakdul on January 14. Major Kitchener reported that all was quiet when he left, and that the troops were healthy. The guards had built two forts for protection, and made several roads. Five of the twelve wells at Howeiyatt are in good working order. The others are being repaired. General Stewart started on Wednesday with the advance guard for Metemneh.

General Stewart's force reached the Howeiyatt Wells on Saturday, January 10, obtained a supply of water, and resumed the march to Gakdul. A detachment of the Essex Regiment remained as a garrison at Howeiyatt, where a fort and hospital have been erected. General Stewart's force reached Gakdul on January 12. It consists of a squadron of Hussars, a heavy section of the camel corps, mounted infantry, the Sussex Regiment, and the Naval Brigade. The march across the desert was very trying on account of the great heat and scarcity of water.

At the Congo Conference in Berlin on Friday the proposal to construct a railway from Vivi to Stanley Pool was again actively discussed. There is a prospect that it will be eventually adopted. The decided opinion is expressed in Berlin diplomatic circles that the recent resolution submitted to the American Congress in regard to the American representation in the Congo Conference is founded on a misconception of the principles forming the basis of the Conference. The American delegates have not engaged in any polemic discussion whatever, but have merely watched American commercial interests.

The announcement that Sir Edward Malet, the British representative at the Berlin Conference, had been instructed to accept the French proposal regarding freedom of trade in the Congo country, caused great excitement in London mercantile circles. France proposes that the freedom of the Congo shall be limited to a period of twenty years. African traders in London say that the object of this is to attract capital to that country during the next twenty years, although at the end of that time, after the country has been developed and made valuable by the enterprise of merchants of all nations, it is to be closed to all except King Leopold's International African Association or to France, which is looked upon as the future legatee of that association. In a letter explaining the Government's position Earl Granville, British Secretary of Foreign Affairs, said: "England understands the Congo declaration to mean that imports shall be admitted into the Congo country free of taxation for an indefinite period, unless after twenty years the Powers shall give their unanimous sanction to a revision of this arrangement."

Admiral Peyron, French Minister of Marine, will resign on January 27.

An Anarchist plot has been discovered at Lyons, France. The plot contemplated the seizure by night of the arms belonging to the Rifle Society, and the immediate proclamation of a revolution.

Edmond François Valentin About, the distinguished French novelist, died on Saturday. He was born February 14, 1828, and made his literary début in 1855 with a work called 'La Grèce Contemporaine,' which had a large circulation. His first romance was 'Tolla,' founded on a book which had been suppressed. He wrote plays, novelettes, and novels rapidly, and in a few years became one of the foremost literary men of France. He wrote in turn for *Figaro*, the *Gaulois*, the *Soir*, and the *XIXe Siècle*. In 1872 he was arrested by the Germans at Strassburg and accused of high treason, but was released. Many of his novels have been translated into English, the most popular of which are 'The Notary's Nose' and 'The Man with the Broken Ear.' He was recently elected a member of the French Academy.

A sensation was caused throughout Germany on Wednesday, when it became known that, on the previous evening, at Frankfort-on-Main, Police Commissioner Rumpff had been stabbed to death in front of his own house. Herr Rumpff was actively connected with the recent prosecutions at Leipsic of the Anarchists Reinsdorf, Rupsch, and others who were engaged in the Niederwald attempt to kill the Emperor. There is no doubt that friends of the condemned Anarchists committed the deed. A German traveller was arrested at Brussels on Friday, who is believed to be the assassin.

During the discussion in the German Reichstag on Wednesday on the proposed increase in the duties upon imports of cereals, Prince Bismarck stated that the Government, in order to meet the demands of the farmers, would require the duty upon wheat to be increased to treble the present rate, and upon rye to double the amount now paid upon the imports of these classes of grain from all countries, excepting Russia, which could not be included in the advance on account of the treaty existing between Germany and Russia regulating the customs duties upon importations from that country.

At the opening of the Prussian Landtag on Thursday, the speech of Emperor William, as King of Prussia, was read by an officer. It was stated in the speech that the financial condition of Prussia was satisfactory. The surplus of revenues over expenditures for the year 1884 had been devoted toward the payment of the public railway debt. It was estimated that the surplus for the year 1885 would not be sufficient to meet the increased contribution demanded of Prussia for the Empire. To meet the deficiency thus incurred a loan would be necessary.

The British Court of Appeal on Friday dismissed the appeal of Mr. Edward Yates, editor of the London *World*, against the sentence to four months' imprisonment for libelling Lord Lonsdale. Mr. Yates is serving out his sentence with every convenience of life except liberty.

Mr. Schotz, one of the principal witnesses against Mr. Lawes, the sculptor, in the libel suit brought against him by Mr. Belt, a brother sculptor, last winter, in London, has confessed that all his testimony was the result of a conspiracy entered into by him and another witness and Mr. Belt for the purpose of securing a share in the heavy damages which were assured by the lawyers. Schotz claims to have been the author of Mr. Belt's sketches and models. The damages awarded in this suit were $25,000, and Mr. Lawes had himself judicially declared a bankrupt in order to escape paying them.

Ten thousand unemployed workmen and Radical sympathizers held a meeting on Saturday afternoon in front of the Royal Exchange, London. Henry George was one of the speakers.

The packet steamer *Admiral Moorsom*, running between Dublin and Holyhead, was sunk on Thursday night by collision with the American ship *Santa Clara*. Five lives were lost.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Friday, the Minister of Foreign Affairs announced that the Sooloo protocol remained unsigned, because of troubles between England and Germany respecting freedom of navigation in Borneo.

THE ELECTORAL COUNT.

THE day being near at hand when the result of the Presidential election is to be officially declared, it is found that there is no joint rule in force governing the meeting of the two houses of Congress; the rule adopted four years ago being applicable to that particular occasion only. To renew it will not be difficult, since there is no dispute about the result, or about the vote of any particular State. If, however, the State of Indiana had been carried by the Republicans in the recent election, the vote of Virginia would have been disputed. In that case the country would have been in the same situation as in 1876, and with little chance of a peaceful outcome, there being still no law on the statute-book providing for the decision of disputed returns.

The want of such a law was perceived early in the history of the Government, and numerous attempts have been made to supply it. The first was an electoral-count bill introduced by James Ross, a Senator of Pennsylvania, in the year 1800. It provided for a committee, consisting of six Senators, six Representatives, and the Chief Justice, to decide all disputes respecting the returns. This bill contained the germ of the Electoral Commission of 1876. It passed the Senate. When it reached the House, an amendment was attached providing that each return should be counted unless both houses concurred in rejecting it. When it came back to the Senate, the amendment was amended so as to provide that if any return was objected to, it should be rejected unless both houses concurred in admitting it. As neither house would yield, the bill failed. Every subsequent attempt to pass a bill regulating the count has failed, because the two houses could not agree as to the mode of treating disputed returns or double returns.

In 1824 Mr. Van Buren introduced an electoral-count bill in the Senate, providing that if a return were objected to, it should be counted unless the two houses voting separately concurred in rejecting it. This bill passed the Senate, but was not acted upon in the House. The principle upon which it was founded is undeniably that which the framers of the Constitution had in view—that no return should be rejected upon the motion of one house only. The contingency of double returns had not been thought of, nor did any such case ever come up for practical determination until 1876, although several cases of disputed returns had been presented.

In 1875 Senator Morton of Indiana introduced an electoral-count bill which engaged a great deal of attention, and which, if it had become a law, would have seated Mr. Tilden as President the following year. It provided that if objection were made to any return, the return should be counted unless rejected by the concurrent vote of both houses, and that, in case of double returns, that one should be counted which the two houses acting separately should declare to be the true one. In case of failure of the two houses to agree, the vote of the State would be lost. The bill passed the Senate by a party vote, the Democrats voting in the negative. A motion to reconsider was entered, and this motion was never finally disposed of.

The Edmunds bill, originally introduced in 1878, and reintroduced by Senator Hoar and passed by the Senate, is the wisest measure of all. It provides that each State may establish tribunals for the trial of electoral contests, and that their decision shall be final; that if there be any dispute as to the lawfulness of the State tribunal, or if there be double returns from a State which has not provided such a tribunal, only those returns shall be counted which the two houses, acting separately, shall concur in receiving, and that any single return shall be counted unless rejected by both. The House has not concurred in this measure, and is not likely to do so. Nor is it probable that any measure will be passed on the subject at this session. We stand exactly where we stood in 1876, exposed to the chances of the direst civil commotion in case of a disputed return, since it is not probable that another electoral commission would ever be agreed to.

The Edmunds bill embraces one feature which there ought to be neither hesitation nor delay in adopting, and that is the machinery for getting rid of disputed returns altogether. If the two houses of Congress are unable, as it appears they always have been, to agree as to the method of deciding between disputed returns, they can at least minimize the chances of dispute by prescribing the mode of settling them in the States where they have their origin. If any State should neglect to create the tribunal which the bill calls for, it would be justly punished by losing its vote. There is really no excuse for leaving the door open to the indescribable calamity of another disputed election. When the closeness of the vote in November last was perceived, an instant tremor ran through all channels of business and all ranks of society. The most ardent wish and fervent prayer of good citizens was not that Blaine or Cleveland might be elected, but that there might be no room for dispute about the result. Among all the shortcomings of Congress the most flagrant and inexcusable is that which leaves the country exposed once in four years to the chances of a Mexican revolution. Nothing saved us from this calamity last fall except that Providence which, a foreign statesman said, takes care of children, drunkards, and the United States of America.

PRIVATE OWNERSHIP OF FORESTS.

MR. O. R. WILLIS, in a recent issue of the New York *Observer*, discusses at some length and with considerable adroitness the Adirondack forest question; and although he does not say so directly, he makes it appear that the forests will stand a better chance of escaping destruction if left in the hands of private owners than if placed under some sort of State control. This conclusion has been reached, it seems to us, through insufficient information, and is based upon an inadequate and partial appreciation of the real dangers which, under the present ownership of a large part of these forests, menace their existence. Mr. Willis acknowledges that the destruction of the forests would result in diminishing the water supply of the Adirondack rivers, and that the whole Adirondack region is unfit for tillage, on account of its low annual temperature and the character of its cold and barren soil. Lumbering, however, he maintains, is not an injury but a real benefit to the forests; and even if this were not the case, a large portion of the Adirondack forests are so remote from streams that they must for ever remain undisturbed by lumbermen. It will not be safe to place too much confidence in these plausible and interested arguments of the lumbermen. Their methods, as at present practised, are not, it is true, directly destructive to the permanency of the Adirondack forests. They do not cut away all the forest growth, or strip the ground of its covering of foliage; they cut the spruce and pine or hemlock which are found scattered through the maples and other hard woods, of which these forests are principally composed. This in itself is really an advantage, as the lumbermen claim, rather than an injury to the forest.

The real dangers to these forests through private ownership are these:

1. Private owners, with few exceptions, cut off all the timber for which they can find a market, without regard to the continuation of the supply, and then pay little attention to preventing the spread of fires over lands stripped of immediate commercial value.

2. Private owners are willing and anxious to sell to agricultural settlers those portions of their property from which timber of immediate commercial value has been cut. It is the agricultural settlers probably more than the lumbermen who are directly responsible for the desert belt (swept clean of vegetation, and of soil even by fires kindled to clear up so-called farms), which stretches far and near about the remnants of the Adirondack woods, and which is slowly and surely extending in toward the heart of the wilderness. As long as these forests remain in the exclusive control of private owners, they run the risk of being sold out in small lots to settlers, who, for every acre they try to reclaim, endanger a hundred or a thousand acres of forest.

There is another and a greater danger, too, which threatens the Adirondack forests, and which will inevitably destroy them as reservoirs of moisture, unless some change of ownership can be effected. Adirondack lumbering, as at present conducted, takes few trees from the forest, and (except in the neighborhood of the iron furnaces) practically nothing is yet cut but such light woods as pine, spruce, or hemlock, which can be floated down the streams to market. The great stores of hard woods which these forests contain, have been spared up to the present time, not because the owners desired to perpetuate the forests, but because the condition of the lumber market did not justify the expense it would be necessary to incur in getting heavy woods to the mills. The demand, however, for the best hard woods is rapidly increasing in this country, and the time is not far distant when the owners of Adirondack forest property will find it profitable to cut and ship their maple, birch, and beech to New York and the Eastern markets. Then narrow-gauge logging roads will penetrate the Adirondack wilderness from every side, and the forests will fast melt away before the general cutting and the more numerous fires, which the new system will render inevitable.

A beginning in this direction has already been

made, and the Northern Adirondack Railroad and its enterprising and energetic projectors serve to illustrate the real dangers which threaten the north woods, and the speciousness of the lumbermen's arguments for private ownership of forest lands. Lumbermen and others hold forest property for the purpose of making money from their investments, and not from philanthropic motives or because they desire to keep up the water supply in the rivers. If they find it for their interest to let their trees grow, they will not cut them down; if, on the other hand, there is money, or they think there is money, in cutting them or allowing them to burn up, the forests will be sacrificed without a thought of the consequences, beyond the immediate effect upon their individual pockets. The lumbermen are right; and if they acted otherwise they would be more than human. The discussion of the Adirondack question has given rise to a vast amount of talk about the crimes of the lumbermen in destroying the forests. They often conduct their business in a foolish and short-sighted manner, but as long as they confine their operations to their own land and do not—a thing not without precedent, to be sure—lumber upon their neighbors' lands, they are justified in doing what they like with their own property, and must go on cutting and burning as the spirit moves them. In the meantime the forests will be destroyed beyond all hope of recovery, and the great and lasting misfortunes which must inevitably follow will fall upon the State. There is little comfort to be found in the delusive hope that the forests will be safe for any length of time in the hands of private owners, or that there is any less expensive method of perpetual forest preservation than is offered through State control.

CATHOLIC REACTION IN MEXICO.

The Roman Catholic restoration in Belgium seems to have started a wave across the Atlantic and into the Gulf. Mexican Catholicism has felt the impulse. After ten years of complete prostration, it is now rising rapidly against Liberal oppression. This reaction is not working under constitutional forms and on the electoral battlefield, as in Belgium; for those things are mere names in Mexico. It is rather by indirection, by quiet yet firm assumption and display of power, by steady defiance of hostile legislation, that the revolution is going on.

To understand rightly the significance of the recent signs of Catholic recovery in Mexico, it is necessary to bear in mind the tremendous odds against which the Church has had to fight. It seemed as if her power must be for ever broken by the so-called "Laws of Reform." They constitute a body of anti-Catholic legislation for a parallel to which the statute books of other countries would be searched in vain. Bismarck's Falk Laws were child's play beside them. The first stroke was the "nationalization" of the Church property—estimated to be of the value of from one-third to one-half of the entire real estate of the country. This measure was the rallying cry of Juarez in 1859 at Vera Cruz, and its execution had only to wait for his triumph after the French intervention. Since 1867, the Church has been able to hold only those buildings which are strictly devoted to religious rites, and even those it could control only on the sufferance of the Government. The choicest of them, the great Cathedral itself, are subject at any time to "consolidation," that is, to sale to the highest bidder. Under Lerdo the work of crippling the Church went still further. By the amendments to the Constitution adopted in September, 1873, Church and State were declared for ever independent, marriage was made a civil contract, the Church was disqualified from ever holding any real estate or capital invested in real estate, and monastic orders were abolished. Thus these ecclesiastical privileges and sources of power were shorn away, one after another, and the thing was done not by mere act of Congress, but by actual incorporation into the organic law of the land. By a law of December 14, 1874, the work was still more advanced. The State was not only declared to be independent of the Church, but also supreme over it; religious liberty was proclaimed; religious instruction was forbidden in all public schools; all religious rites were restricted to the interior of the churches; priests were not to wear any distinctive dress in the streets; the Church could receive no legacies. These are the principal features of the law, which embraces also a great number of petty restrictions and regulations, chiefly designed, apparently, to aggravate the Church and remind her of her subjection. It only remained that a law should be passed "for the expulsion of pernicious foreigners," under the authority of which the Jesuits were unceremoniously bundled out of the country. Now, it was very natural that the people should have come to take the degree in which these "Laws of Reform" were enforced as an index at once of the power of the Government and of the strength of the Church. For many years they seem to have been enforced with great rigor, except in the remoter country districts. But they have been all along the point of attack of the clergy. Whenever and wherever the priests dared, they trampled upon the obnoxious statutes. The significance of the present situation is, that the Church has grown so bold as openly to defy the Government. In Toluca, but fifty miles from the capital, religious processions have marched through the streets, and, it is credibly asserted, monasteries have been reëstablished. Even at the seat of government the sacerdotal garb is seen in public. All over the Republic the idea is prevalent that the Church is on the eve of a restoration to something like her old power.

Several reasons enter into the explanation of the apathy of the Government in the face of these violations of the law. There is no danger that the old Liberal leaders are about to return to the bosom of the Church, or are thinking of delivering over their country again to the power of the hierarchy. Their present policy of ignoring the rising arrogance of Catholicism is no doubt partly due to their severe embarrassment over the financial straits in which they find themselves. All their thought has to be given to the difficult task of getting a revenue equal to the enormous and constantly increasing drains upon it. Their feeling is: One trouble at a time; let us devise new and successful expedients for escaping these threatening deficits first, and attend to those minor matters afterwards. The Church is fully awake to the situation, and is not slow to avail herself of the opportunity offered by the financial difficulties of the administration.

There is also, it is probable, a foundation of truth in the rumor that General Diaz and his followers have found it to their advantage to enter into some sort of a compromise, tacit if not expressed, with the leaders of the Church. With universal suffrage and a population nine-tenths Catholic, the priests can wield a formidable political power. Of course, as things have gone, the administration has not had to fear any body of hostile voters, as it had abundant facilities, which it did not scruple to profit by, for securing the exclusive return to Congress of its own creatures. But this method is getting to be more and more outrageous and difficult. The Church is in a better position now than for years to demand a bargain in virtue of which governmental candidates shall not be defeated at the polls, provided that the anti-Catholic laws shall be but languidly enforced.

Then it is, perhaps, not giving too much credit to the good sense and tact of the dominant Mexican statesmen to say, that they perceive the inconsistency of the "Laws of Reform" with their professedly republican institutions, and are willing that the severity of the Lerdist legislation should be somewhat relaxed. The time is not yet ripe for open amendment or repeal, and accordingly violations of the offensive laws are winked at. President Diaz is said to believe in the power of education, rather than stringent repression, as the means of freeing his country from the dangers of an ambitious ecclesiasticism. In any case it will be of great interest to watch the Mexican clergy under the prospect of regaining something of their old prestige, to see if they have learned anything by the past. The dullest of them must now perceive that they themselves brought the woes of the last twenty years upon their own heads. It remains to be seen whether they will again prove themselves to be, as they were declared to have always been in the past by one of their own brethren of France, "sans prévoyance et sans vues élevées."

THE MIGHT-HAVE-BEEN OLD AGE OF BYRON.

It seems perhaps a strange "angle" from which to consider Byron's character, to place ourselves immediately opposite the figures of Goethe and George Sand. Yet the position offers many advantages, if only in bringing under one *coup d'œil* the great German, the great Englishman, and the great Frenchwoman; and it is peculiarly interesting if we think of them as representing old age in man, old age in woman, and that youthfulness of intellectual development which is of no sex. Mr. Arnold has lately spoken of Goethe and George Sand in one breath; Mr. Carlyle, more than fifty years ago, wrote of Goethe and Byron on the same page; and it is not difficult to group the three together. But in such a group Goethe would not be the central figure. It is rather George Sand, who with one hand touches the wise old man, and with the other the passionate poet.

The contrasts and parallels between the individualities of Goethe and George Sand are ex-

tremely interesting, and in nothing more so than in the manner (different yet alike) in which in both of them the agitations and irregularities of youth, the multiform and profound anguish of middle life, passed into their lofty composure of mind in old age. Had Goethe died having written only 'Werther,' and George Sand after writing 'Indiana,' who could have dreamed of the serenity, the dignity, the ennobling influences of later years? It is difficult to imagine Lord Byron, had he lived, as a gracious, friendly, peaceful, enlightened, and enlightening old man; yet there is enough kinship between his mind and those of Goethe and George Sand, from intellectual lucidity, from intimacy with nature, and from force of conviction, to render it not absurd to judge him by them. Shelley's quaint little phrase about him, three years before his death, when he was staying with him at Ravenna, comes to one's mind: "He is becoming, what he should be, a virtuous man." And Carlyle, describing the change in some men "from inward imprisonment, doubt, and discontent into freedom, belief, and clear activity," declares that in our day "among our own poets Byron was almost the only man we saw faithfully and manfully struggling to the end in this cause." And then adds the sad truth: "He died while the victory [the attainment of spiritual manhood] was . . . only beginning to be gained." But that he had begun "sich selbst zu empfinden," that he was nearing his best self, can scarcely be doubted; and the thought gives an almost tragic pathos to the last line of the verses of *recognition* from Goethe himself, which Byron received on the eve of his going to his death in Greece, whose cordial kindliness sums itself in

> "Und wie ich ihn erkannt mög' er sich kennen."

"Das tiefste Weh," which was one of the things Goethe "*knew*" in Byron, Goethe himself had met and conquered; but the modes and conditions of battle with it were different in the two men. The temptation to escape from wretchedness by suicide had pressed closely on Goethe, as it was to do on George Sand, but as it did not on Byron. In 'Dichtung und Wahrheit' Goethe gives an account of how, night after night, he attempted stabbing himself. But at last he "determined to live." "To do this with cheerfulness, however, I required," he says, "some poetical task," and 'Werther' presented itself. He would have understood Byron's saying, "If I don't write to empty my mind, I go mad." "God grant," Goethe wrote afterward to Eckermann—"God grant that I may never find myself again in a state of mind which forces me to compose such a work." George Sand cries out in her despair: "I am often ashamed of the cowardice which prevents me from ending it all immediately; do I know neither how to live nor how to die?" Byron went no further, apparently, than to say:

> "And I at times have found the struggle hard,
> And thought of shaking off my bonds of clay,
> But now I fain would for a time survive,
> If but to see what next can well arrive."

And he adds:

> "Something—I know not what—does still uphold
> A spirit of slight patience; not in vain.
> Even for its own sake do we purchase pain."

He makes very few references to voluntary death in his journals or letters; but in 1813 he speaks thus impersonally and slightly of a then famous book on the subject: "Rogers is out of town with Mme. de Staël, who hath published an Essay against Suicide, which, I presume, will make somebody shoot himself"; a mere ironical jest, but a prophecy, nevertheless, which was singularly *half* fulfilled, it may be said, in the effect of the volume on George Sand. After reading it (in 1834), in days of utter disappointment and desolation, she says:

"I have found no solace in this pamphlet except the pleasure of learning that Mme. de Staël loved life, that she had a thousand reasons for clinging to it, that she had an infinitely happier fate than mine, an infinitely stronger and more intelligent head than mine. For the rest, I think her book has doubled to me the attraction of suicide."

We will turn for a moment from Byron to follow out George Sand's condition at this period, for it is not irrelevant. She continues in complete despondency:

"My days go by as sad as death, and my strength is rapidly failing. . . . It is clear to me that I shall come to nothing in this life, and that there is no hope for me on the earth. . . . My children cause me much pain in the midst of all the happiness they give me: they are the sacred ties which bind me to life, to a hateful life. I desire to break these terrible ties; the fear of remorse withholds me."

But with the inconsistency which is a part of all passionate emotion she declares, in the next breath:

"But I endure life because I love it; and although the sum of my sorrows is infinitely greater than that of my joys, although I have lost the possessions without which I supposed life to be impossible, I still love this sad destiny which remains to me, and I discover in it, every time I reconcile myself with it, sweetnesses which I did not remember or else disdainfully denied when I was rich in happiness."

In these last words lies the secret of what may be called the humanities of old age. This discovery of hidden sweetnesses, a late and noble power of the mind, is not, we too well know, a necessary or frequent consequence of long life. As we enter the regions of the old, the air is full of farewells to hope, of mournful sighs; it is the land of lamentation. The great and small Carlyles are always and everywhere saying: "Very sad, sunless is the hue of this now almost empty world to me—world about to vanish for me in eternities that cannot be known."

But there are other voices. Three months only before her death George Sand said: "The happiest and most favoring age of life is old age." And looking back at herself as the passages we have quoted show her to have been forty years earlier, she says, in these or almost precisely these words: "In other days I desired death; . . . I lacked strength, . . . and I said, 'I can do nothing.' I lied to myself. One can do everything. The strength is there one believes to have not, when one desires ardently to ascend, to mount up one rung each day—when one says, 'The *I* of to-morrow must be superior to that of to-day, and that of the next day still more solid and more lucid.'" We see here, as Carlyle said of Goethe—and may we not believe that only the grave hindered our saying it of Byron?

"Anarchy has now become Peace; the once gloomy and perturbed spirit is now serene, cheerfully vigorous, and rich in good fruits. Neither—which is most important of all—has this Peace been attained by a surrender to Necessity, or any compact with Delusion. . . . Here the ardent, high-aspiring youth has grown into the calmest man, yet with increase and not loss of ardor, and with aspirations higher as well as clearer."

He who grows into, not the "calmest" only, but the noblest man, does so through larger, more generous, more wide-embracing aspirations, as well as higher and clearer. If in this view even Goethe is not among the best; if his absence of concern in the interests, the more visible interests, of his nation and the world—in public affairs—seriously derogates from his greatness, the promise in the younger poet of a humanity broader than patriotism is to be all the more highly valued. So vehement a belief as Byron felt in the cause of mankind is a great quality, and a constantly ennobling one; it is essentially a virtue; and weighty and prophetic meanings may be found in such carelessly uttered but not thoughtlessly felt words as these (January 11, 1821): "I should almost regret that my own affairs went well when those of nations are in peril. If the interests of mankind could be essentially bettered (particularly of these oppressed Italians), I should not so much mind my own 'sma' peculiar.' God grant us 'all better times or more philosophy!" Six months later: "I have had my hands full with tyrants and their victims. There never was such oppression—even in Ireland, scarcely!" And lastly, "Onward!" he calls to us. ". . . What signifies *self*, if a single spark of that which would be worthy of the past can be bequeathed unquenchedly to the future?"

"The tranquillity of old age," it has been said, "is dependent on the increasing supremacy of ideas in our lives." If this be true, it is no idle fancy to believe that the old age of Byron might have been "tranquil," and might also have fulfilled—they are his words—

> "The noble aspirations of my youth
> To make my own the mind of other men,
> The enlightener of nations."

TOLSTOI'S 'PEACE AND WAR.'

PARIS, January 1.

IT is said that after having read the Book of Baruch, La Fontaine, whenever he met a friend, always began by asking him, "Have you read Baruch?" I feel somewhat like him with regard to a book by Count Leo Tolstoi. Whenever I meet anybody, I am disposed to ask first, "Have you read 'La Guerre et la Paix'?" I have read it, not in the Russian text, but in an excellent French translation made by Princess Paskevitch, one of the persons who hold a literary salon in St. Petersburg; and in this case, I believe that it cannot be said "Traduttore traditore." The translation shows the most intimate acquaintance with all the resources and delicacies of the French language.

The fate of this French edition of 'Peace and War' is singular. The translation was forgotten at the publisher's office. Nobody had ever heard of it when M. Melchior de Vogüé, one of the most brilliant writers on the modern staff of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, wrote an article on Tolstoi. M. de Vogüé knows Russian well; he has been in the French diplomatic service and married a Russian lady. His article was a revelation. Till then, the French public was only acquainted with Turgeneff, and it may almost be said that the great fame of Turgeneff was established in France. He was adopted in Paris and his fine genius was appreciated by all. Of Tolstoi, we knew nothing. I had, indeed, met him long ago, not at the house of Ivan Turgeneff, but at the house of Nicholas Turgeneff, the author of 'La Russie et les Russes.' Nicholas was one of the Decembrists; he had advocated the abolition of serfdom, he was an apostle and a statesman. The Russians of distinction always called on him when they came to Paris—those, at least, who were not afraid of the Emperor Nicholas. It must have been a little while after the Crimean War that I saw Count Tolstoi at N. Turgeneff's. I was informed that he was a writer of great merit, but I was unable to read any of his writings; he was then young and handsome, and he simply left on my mind the impression of an accomplished man of the world, somewhat too much interested in spiritualism.

'Peace and War,' as it now appears in the French translation, forms three volumes very closely printed. It is called an historical novel, but it hardly deserves that name. It is not an historical novel; history is merely a thread which binds together the heroes and heroines of a complex human drama. It is not even a novel, as in a novel there are always favorite heroes or heroines, surrounded with accessory personages, and the novel is chiefly consecrated to the delineation of a few central figures. Here we have

nothing of the sort. This single work might better be compared to the series of novels by our great Balzac, in which the same figures always reappear, sometimes more in the light, but sometimes more in the shade. The personages of Balzac, men and women, virtuous or criminal, weak or heroic, form a sort of human medium, an atmosphere of passions, sometimes almost nebulous, and sometimes condensed in brilliant constellations. Balzac himself gave to his huge work, which fills so many volumes, the graphic name of 'La Comédie Humaine.' The world in which all his actors move, suffer, and die seems as real as the true world. Such is the power of this writer that he gives life, he creates; our memory preserves all his types as easily as the men or women who have been thrown in our path and in the vortex of our own destiny.

This book of Tolstoi's might be called with justice 'The Russian Comedy,' in the sense in which Balzac employed the word. It gave me exactly the same impression: I felt that I was thrown among new men and women, that I lived with them, that I knew them, that none of them could be indifferent to me, that I could never forget them. I entered into their souls,and it seemed almost as if they could enter into mine. Such a power in a writer is almost a miracle. How many novels have I not read, and, after having read them, and admired many qualities—the beauty of the style, the invention, the dialogues, the dramatic situations—have still felt that my knowledge of life had not increased, that I had gained no new experience. It was not so with 'Peace and War.' The work begins in 1805, before Tilsit; it carried me through the great battles fought between Napoleon, Austria, and Russia, to the invasion of Russia, to Borodino, to the burning of Moscow; and all along I felt as if I was on the great stream of life—sometimes with the Emperors in the midst of their staff, in the councils of war, or on the battlefield; sometimes amidst the common soldiers, under the tent, on the high roads; sometimes in the great drawing-rooms of St. Petersburg with the diplomats, the fine ladies; sometimes in the great country houses of Russia—abodes of peace, of petty tyranny, of lazy, monotonous, and almost animal life, suddenly thrown into commotion by the news of the invasion.

History, in this extraordinary work, merely plays the part of a huge disturbing element: it acts on a host of actors, high or low, as a foreign body would act if a powerful hand threw it into the midst of our planetary system. It does not change men, but it gives them new and unforeseen opportunities. It changes the cold, heartless profligate, the man of prey, who lives but for his material pleasures, into a brave man, and sometimes into a hero. It brings out the dormant capacities and virtualities. It reveals all sorts of secrets to man. It brings men constantly before a formidable unknown. It exasperates some; it calms and soothes others. It gives to all the tender relations of life a new intensity, by depriving them of security. It is a powerful motor, but it is only a motor; the masses which it puts in motion are already formed of determined units, and each of these units is a human soul, a world in itself, shrouded in mystery. Conceived in this sense, Tolstoi's work has all the variety of human experience; it is less a novel than a succession of pictures, of small scenes, in which we often see the same actors. The book, in order to be well understood, must be read twice. The first time, you have to make the acquaintance of a number of people, and to become familiar with their barbarous Russian names. It is rather fatiguing at first, especially as there is no *story*, in the English sense of the word, as applied to a novel. You are constantly shifted from one place to another, from one set of people to another set of people. By degrees, all becomes clear, the action is fairly engaged, the drama—or, rather, the dramas, for there are several in one—develop themselves, and you soon feel the keenest interest in all the actors. I ran, so to speak, through the book the first time, in order to form a conception of the aim of the author, and then I read it a second time, *con amore*, interrupting myself so as to prolong the pleasure, finding infinite joy in some of its tableaux, in the descriptions of nature, in the conversations, in the accessory details.

It would be difficult to give a proper definition of the talent of Tolstoi. First of all, he is an *homme du monde*. He makes great people, emperors, generals, diplomats, fine ladies, princes, talk and act as they do act and talk. He is a perfect gentleman, and as such he is thoroughly humane. He takes as much interest in the most humble of his actors as he does in the highest. He has lived in courts: the Saint-Andrés, the Saint-Vladimirs have no prestige for him—nor the gilded uniforms; he is not deceived by appearances. His aim is so high that whatever he sees is, in one sense, unsatisfactory. He looks for moral perfection, and there is nothing perfect. He is always disappointed in the end. The final impression of his work is a sort of despair. The cherished figures of his "Russian Comedy" are all fatally condemned to an untimely end, to continual mental and moral misery, to undeserved misfortune. It seems as if suffering was the mark of goodness, and as if a certain amount of virtue was incompatible with happiness. Then, by a sort of physical and natural necessity, the element of evil is always mixed up with the element of good. Natacha, one of the heroines of the book, who is represented as so charming, so good, so fascinating, has suddenly bad impulses. She does things or wishes to do things almost horrible. The women are all painted as somewhat irrational and unconscious; but it is not the privilege of their sex—the men are irrational also, led by instinct much more than by reason. Their courage, their honorable resolutions, their heroic actions, do not seem to belong to them. This fundamental idea of fatalism pervades the book. Fate governs empires as well as men: it plays with a Napoleon and an Alexander as it does with a private in the ranks; it hangs over all the world like a dark cloud, rent at times by lightning. We live in the night, like shadows; we are lost on the shore of an eternal Styx; we do not know whence we came or whither we go. Millions of men, led by a senseless man, go from west to east, killing, murdering, and burning, and it is called the invasion of Russia. Two thousand years before, millions of other men came from east to west, plundering, killing, and burning, and it was called the invasion of the barbarians. What becomes of the human will, of the proud *I*, in these dreadful events? We see the folly and the vanity of self-will in these great historical events; but it is just the same in all times, and the will gets lost in peace as well as in war, for there is no real peace, and the human wills are constantly devouring each other. The mother is devoured by the child, the husband by the wife, the slave by the master, the weak by the strong, the affectionate by the heartless, the rational by the irrational. We are made to enjoy a little, to suffer much, and, when the end is approaching, we are all like one of Tolstoi's heroes, on the day of Borodino. Allow me to cite this passage as a specimen of Tolstoi's manner. Prince André has been waiting behind with his regiment in the reserve, while the battle was raging; his men have been without food for eight hours:

"Prince André was walking to and fro in the meadow, with his hands crossed behind his back, his head bowed. He had nothing to do, no order to give; everything was being done without his interference. The dead were taken away, the wounded were carried to the rear, and the ranks were reforming themselves. At the beginning of the action he had thought it necessary, to encourage his men, to walk in the ranks; but he soon saw that he had nothing to teach them. All the forces of his soul, as well as those of every soldier's, tended only to drive from his mind the horror of his situation. He dragged his feet on the trodden grass, and looked mechanically at the dust which covered his boots. Sometimes, making great strides, he tried to follow the lines made by the mowers; sometimes he counted them, asking himself how many would be necessary to make a verst. Sometimes he plucked a bit of absinth, which grew on the edge of the field, pressed it between his fingers, and perceived its strong and acrid smell. There was no trace left in his mind of his ideas of the day before; he thought of nothing. He lent a fatigued ear to the endless noise, to the cracking of the grenades and of the firing. From time to time he looked on the first battalion, and waited. 'There! . . . it is coming on us!' he heard; and at the same time a whistling and a little cloud. . . . 'There is another! there! . . . No, it passed over our heads. That one has fallen.' And he began again to count his steps.

"Suddenly a shell whistled and struck in the earth five yards before him. He could not help shuddering. He looked on the ranks; many men had probably been thrown down, for he remarked a great agitation. . . . Another came, and fell at the feet of the horse of the chief of battalion, two steps before Prince André. The horse, not knowing whether it was right or wrong to show its alarm, rose on his hind legs, and turned himself aside. . . . Prince André was standing, hesitating. The shell, like an immense top, revolved near the absinth, between him and his aide-de camp. 'Is this really death?' thought he, with an indescribable feeling of regret, looking on the absinth and on that black object. He said to himself, 'I will not die; I love life, I love this world.' And still he did not quite understand what he had before him. 'Monsieur l'aide-de-camp,' he screamed, 'it is a shame to——' He could not finish; a formidable explosion was heard. . . . Prince André was thrown with his arms forward, and fell on his breast."

I feel almost ashamed not to have been able to do better justice to Prince Tolstoi. It will be something if I can inspire a few with a desire to read his book, which is by far the most remarkable work of imagination that has been lately revealed to us.

Correspondence.

MR. KASSON'S THANKSGIVING TOAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 4, I notice the statement that at the American Thanksgiving-day dinner in this city, "Minister Kasson called for three cheers for Grover Cleveland, the next President, which were heartily given." Such an act on the part of the presiding officer at a public dinner would certainly have been in very questionable taste. I am glad, therefore, to be able to say that the above statement is in error. Mr. Kasson confined himself strictly to the regular toasts of the evening. The cheers which were called for and given were for President Arthur and the German Emperor; and no mention of Governor Cleveland was made by Mr. Kasson or any other speaker. Student.

Berlin, December 29, 1884.

THE ELIOT FAMILY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The exceptional interest which attaches to the name of Eliot will perhaps excuse my appeal to you to aid me in a genealogical search. I hasten to add that it does not interest me personally, as a descendant in any way from the family sought. But the sudden disappearance of a family of good standing from all the usual records forces me to try the effect of an unusual remedy, if you will kindly afford me a little space.

The Rev. John[1] Eliot, "the apostle to the Indians," had brothers Philip[1], Jacob[1], and Francis[1], all settled here, of whom the first and third left female issue only. Jacob[1] was of Boston, a deacon in the First Church, and he left sons Jacob[2] and Asaph[2]. Jacob[2] Eliot, jr., had sons, Joseph[3], Benjamin[3], and Jacob[3], of whom Joseph[3] had John[4], Jacob[4], and Joseph[4]. Of these last named, John[4] was a stationer in Boston, deacon at Hollis Street Church, and left a son Joseph; Jacob[4], born in 1700, was, as I suppose, of H. C. 1720, and minister of the Third Church in Lebanon, Conn., in 1729. He married twice and had sons Jacob[5], Joseph[5], and John[5], and died in 1762. Jacob[5] Eliot, jr., of Lebanon, Conn., married in 1761, and had issue Jacob[6] and Samuel-Blackleach[6], twins, in 1765, and Benjamin[6] in 1767. He died in 1783, and there the record ends.

It seems inconceivable that the progeny of Jacob[5], jr., starting with three sons, and of his two brothers, should have all ceased, yet I have vainly sought to come in communication with them. I therefore venture to ask any of your readers who can assist me in tracing the more recent generations, to do so. I believe that in Boston the male line is extinct, but I hope this vigorous branch may still survive. I ask for the aid of your readers because the name has been so prominent and honored, and because its disappearance is quite unprecedented.—I remain, yours very respectfully, WILLIAM H. WHITMORE.

P. O. Box 3478, Boston, Mass.

VOLUNTARY MEMORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There can be no doubt of the soundness of the view presented by a writer on "Memory" in the *Nation* for January 15, that remembering and forgetting are to a large extent voluntary. Nothing can be more tonic than the stern aphorism which this writer quotes from Balzac, that "To forget is the great secret of strong and creative existences. Feeble natures live in their sorrows instead of converting them into experience." The difference between individuals in this respect is very evident, but the cause is not so clear. Is it a matter of strength or feebleness merely, or a thing of temperament? Are there not some persons, whether strong or weak, who are melancholy by temperament and prone to hug their griefs; while others are blessed with that merry disposition which inclines them always to keep in the sunshine, even in that "blind life within the brain"?

There is one consideration that makes it seem to be largely a matter of the relative teachableness by life-experience, in different natures. I mean the fact that in childhood we have none of us learned this great secret of forgetting our hurts by refusing our attention to them. It is a thing that judicious parents try to teach their children, but it takes years of life-training to teach it thoroughly. The result is that in looking back at our childhood, we have a vivid remembrance of its pains and troubles. They were "bitten in" permanently by reiterated recollection, before the child learned the folly of it. I am aware that we are accustomed to speak of childhood as a happy time by comparison with after life, but this impression comes rather from the superficial observation of other children's outward demonstrations of happiness, than from recollection of our own childhood. Most persons will probably find on reflection that the epochs of that period in their own experience are marked in memory by hurts. The milestones are the things that bruised them. Geo. Sand's repeated testimony to this, in her 'Histoire de ma Vie,' has interested me. In recalling a painful separation from her mother she says:

"Ces quinze jours sont plus distincts dans ma mémoire que les trois années que venaient de s'écouler. . . . Tant il est vrai que la douleur seule marque dans l'enfance le sentiment de la vie."

And again:

"Mais le printemps et l'été de 1811 furent sans nuages, et la preuve, c'est que cette année-là ne m'a laissé aucun souvenir particulier."

And once more:

"Il m'est impossible de me rappeler si nous allâmes à Paris dans l'hiver de 1812 à 1813. Cette partie de mon existence [she was born in 1804] est tout à fait sortie de ma mémoire. Je ne saurais dire non plus si ma mère vint à Nohant dans l'été de 1813. Il est probable que oui, car dans le cas contraire j'aurais eu du chagrin, et je me souviendrais."

It may help us, then, to persist in the wise course of cultivating our "forgettery," to reflect that this power indicates a mature stage of evolution. To brood over, and so to perpetuate our sorrows, is to remain in an arrested development of character—a childhood of the mind.

E. R. S.

Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio.

ARMY COMMISSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the letter in No. 1019 of the *Nation* under the head of "Army Commissions," allow me to call attention to section 1214 Revised Statutes, which reads: "Non-commissioned officers may, *under regulations established by the Secretary of War*, be examined by a board of *four* officers as to their qualifications for the duties of commissioned officers in the line of the army." Par. 27 Army Regulations of 1881 states plainly that the recommendation must originate with the applicant's company commander; and the same paragraph requires that the department commander shall assemble a board of *five* officers to make a preliminary examination as to the claims and qualifications of the candidates. I think there can be no doubt that the Fort Monroe Board is the one contemplated by the law.

Without having any knowledge of the particular case referred to by your correspondent, I have in mind a recent case in which the non-commissioned officer, being absent from his company on detached service at Department Headquarters, was ordered before the Department Board for examination without the recommendation, and, in fact, against the protest, of his company commander. He subsequently failed to pass the Fort Monroe Board, and whether the irregular manner of his recommendation was the reason for his rejection or not, it would seem to have been a sufficient cause.

If the enlisted men of the army, of the best talent, were encouraged to serve with their companies, a much larger proportion of them might hope to obtain commissions; but the staff idea that line service is of a degrading and inferior quality permeates the ranks, and soldiers whose capabilities are beyond the average, seek and obtain clerical positions or non-commissioned staff appointments, in which their services become so valuable that the officers under whom they serve are loth to part with them.

The recent appointments of civilians into the army, as a reward for political services, over the heads of old and deserving officers, is not an agreeable spectacle, and I heartily agree with your correspondent in the hope that the army may receive some benefit from the new departure in reform. X.

January 12, 1885.

NIGHTGOWN AND SCHLAFROCK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to "Inquirer's" communication on the "night-gown," and kindred subjects, I take the liberty of writing you what I happen to know of the uses of the German *Schlafrock*.

In the fatherland, and in this country among Germans, the *Schlafrock*, say thirty years ago, was almost exclusively worn by doctors, lawyers, and the clergy—persons who, from the nature of their professions, were liable to be called upon at unseasonable hours. Thus, for instance, my uncle, a doctor, always had his *Schlafrock* and *Pantoffeln* at some convenient place in his sleeping apartment. When called out of bed he simply slipped into his *Schlafrock*, a long garment reaching to the ground, plainly made of serviceable stuff, with a cord about the middle (not a fancy, embroidered, velvet-lined thing such as the modern "dude" delights in), and, stepping into his *Pantoffeln*, was ready almost in a second to see his visitor, give the necessary directions, preliminary to personal attendance on the patient, or to treat the "case," if it proved to be one, on the spot.

As the Herr Doctor did not wear a *Nachthemd*, despising such a "thing" as too effeminate, it not unfrequently happened that on such occasions he disclosed more of his person than a fastidious caller cared to see, or, for that matter, than he was anxious to disclose. But, then, he was an "ancestor," and lived in the long ago.

PHILANDER.

New York, January 16, 1885.

HENRY LAWRENCE EUSTIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The late Professor Eustis of Harvard, whose death you have noticed, was a man whose excellence as an instructor deserves public acknowledgment from his pupils. The quality of his teaching was exceptional. The bent of his mind and the thoroughness of the old West Point discipline made him intolerant of half training or superficial knowledge. The early practice of his profession, and afterward constant reading of its literature, kept him up to the level of its best attainment; and he had a lively contempt for the makeshifts and rules of thumb by which many professional men and some instructors try to handle the results of knowledge without the understanding of it. At the same time he could do justice to that native instinct for construction which he called *gumption*, and which in rare instances—much rarer, probably, than is believed—proves a safe bridge for minds for which formulæ have no meaning. His most characteristic qualities were his rare clearness and directness of mind. These, with his freshness and power of presentation, made his teaching luminous, filling any but a very laggard pupil with interest in his subject, and making the way plain. It was a maxim with him that clear thought made clear speech; he would not admit that any one who had a distinct idea should be unable to find distinct expression for it. There could be no better enforcement of this doctrine than the lucidity of his own explanations. He always went behind his text-books, and it was seldom that he did not let light into the mind of his pupil.

The charm of a straightforward and genial manner won the confidence of his pupils even before they felt the mastery of his teaching. This made him unusually accessible and correspondingly popular. Interest in the music of the students added to this accessibility. He had been an early leader of the Pierians, and was the one of the instructors to whom years ago the musical clubs would go with a serenade, and be sure of a hearty welcome. So to the friends who attended his funeral there was a fitting touch of pathetic association in the sound of the young men's voices which sang the familiar hymn.

W. P. P. L.

Boston, January 17, 1885.

THE ACADIANS AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few weeks ago your correspondent, Mr. Philip H. Smith, took exception to my account of the deportation of the Acadians, and tried to show that the act was unprovoked. Some of the reasons he alleges belong to a time and to conditions different from those in question, and the rest are overborne by incomparably stronger evidence, both English and French, of which Mr. Smith seems to have had no knowledge. But there is one part of his letter which has produced some impression, various newspapers having copied it as presenting a strong point in his favor. This is his closing sentence, which runs thus: "If the English concerned in the Acadian eviction were conscious of the rectitude of their intentions, and were secure in the belief that their course would be justified by a full knowledge of attendant circumstances, why were the entire French records coming into their hands destroyed, and the archives of Nova Scotia rifled of the documents covering the year of expulsion?"

This final touch perplexed me at first, because I knew that it was absolutely incorrect, and could not guess what had suggested it. I knew not only that the archives of Nova Scotia contained great numbers of papers "covering the year of expulsion," but that these papers had been published not many years ago by the Nova Scotia Government. I knew also that, what with public documents and private letters and journals, few events of American history have been put so fully into the light as this affair of the deportation of the Acadians, and that, far from trying to hide it, the chief agent in it has left a minute record of everything that passed from day to day, and carefully preserved his correspondence relating to it.

If what Mr. Smith says about "rifling the archives of Nova Scotia" was a riddle that might have puzzled the Sphinx, scarcely less so were his emphatic words about "the destruction of the entire French records." There were no French records of a political or military character in Nova Scotia after it became a British province, except in the hands of priests acting as secret agents of the French Government to stir up the Acadians to revolt against the English. The chief of these priests, Abbé Le Loutre, had a box of such papers, and, in terror lest their contents should cause him to be hanged, he fled with them to Canada. Far from wishing to destroy them, the English were vexed at failing to get them into their hands. Besides these and other seditious writings, the only French records in Nova Scotia at the time were registers of churches, title-deeds, and similar papers of no political bearing, and, after the inhabitants were removed, of no value at all. Whether these were destroyed or not is a question of no significance as to the points at issue.

But while there were no French records of a political or military character in Nova Scotia, there was a great abundance of them, relating to Acadian affairs, in the hands of the French officials elsewhere. These are still in existence and are of a most damaging character, not to the English, but to the French themselves. If the English could have got hold of them, they would have thought them invaluable as a justification of their own measures.

Mr. Smith says in his book about Acadia that "the French people (Acadians) cannot be heard in their own behalf, as their papers were taken from them at the time of their forced extirpation." Does he mean to say that the Acadians were all put to death, or are we to understand that extirpation means expatriation? "If they had any record of their sufferings and wrongs," he continues, "it will ever remain a sealed book." As they were so illiterate that very few of them could write their names, they could hardly have made any such record. Their scribes were their priests, and their priests, without exception, were, as before mentioned, agents of the French Government to stir them into revolt.

But where did Mr. Smith get the idea that "the archives of Nova Scotia had been rifled of the documents covering the year of expulsion"? In order to solve this enigma I diligently examined his book, and, though he rarely gives authorities for anything, I at last found a passage which clears up the mystery. In this passage he quotes the following note in Haliburton's History of Nova Scotia:

"It is very remarkable that there are no traces of this important event [the removal of the Acadians] to be found among the records in the Secretary's office at Halifax. I [Haliburton] could not discover that the correspondence had been preserved or that the orders, returns, and memorials had ever been filed there. The particulars of this affair seem to have been carefully concealed," etc.

It is on the strength of this that Mr. Smith declares the archives of Nova Scotia to have been "rifled." Now, anybody acquainted with these archives knows that this is not so, and that Haliburton is wholly wrong. The Secretary's office at Halifax contains, as I have said before, an abundance of documents on the removal of the Acadians. Mr. Smith had a printed collection of them before his eyes, drawn from this very source, and if the fervor of his zeal for the Acadian legend had not stricken him with judicial blindness, he must have seen that Haliburton's statement could not have been correct. But how came Haliburton to make it? It was in order to answer this question that I have deferred my reply to Mr. Smith. The following is a letter written to me by Thomas B. Atkins, Esq., who for many years has been Commissioner of the Public Records of Nova Scotia, and who was the editor of the Government publication containing the documents which Mr. Smith assumes were destroyed:

"In reply to your letter, in which you mention that it has been stated and circulated in newspapers that the records of the proceedings against the Acadians in 1755 were destroyed at the time, and that no traces of the affair exist among the papers in the Secretary's office at Halifax, I have to say that every document which appears in the work entitled 'Selections from the Archives of Nova Scotia' I found among the public papers preserved in the Secretary's office, and they are all now to be seen in the archive rooms of the Province Building at Halifax by any person who may desire to examine them.

"I beg also to say that all the documents relating to the removal of the Acadians which appear in the printed archives, with the exception of three letters since found among our English transcripts, were in the office of the Provincial Secretary or in his custody at the time Mr. Haliburton published his 'History of Nova Scotia.' It is therefore to be presumed that that gentleman did not prosecute his search with sufficient diligence, or he would not have written the note in which he asserts that there are no traces of this important event to be found among the records in the Secretary's office at Halifax, and 'that the particulars of the affair seem to have been carefully concealed, etc.'

"When editing the 'Selections from the Archives of Nova Scotia,' I thought of noticing the observations of Mr. Haliburton with regard to the existence of the papers in question; but on consideration I concluded that the publication of the documents under the authority and by the direction of the Government of this country would be a sufficient refutation of the charge.

"I have not met with anything during my researches which would lead me to suppose that any attempt at concealment had been made on the part of the Government of that day."

That the Acadian story is a most deplorable one nobody will deny. That this unhappy people were deeply sinned against is equally true: but the chief offence has been laid at the wrong door. Nor were the sufferers guiltless, as may be amply shown from French as well as English testimony. To quote from another letter of Mr. Akins: "Their removal was a terrible necessity—how cruel, yet how unavoidable!" I cannot think it an absolute necessity. The purpose might perhaps have been answered by seizing the principal men among them and holding them as hostages for the good behavior of the rest.

It would be curious to trace out the evolution of the Acadian legend. But my only object here is to answer Mr. Smith's triumphant question, "If the English were conscious of rectitude, why were the entire French records destroyed and the archives of Nova Scotia rifled?" The reply is simple. No French records bearing on the matter in hand were destroyed and no archives were rifled.

F. Parkman.

Boston, January 18.

Notes.

Not only the *Portfolio*, it seems, but *L'Art*, of both which periodicals Mr. J. W. Bouton was until lately the agent, is to be in the hands of Macmillan & Co. on this side of the water.

Macmillan & Co. have begun the publication of a 'Dictionary of National Biography,' of which Leslie Stephen is editor. The first volume (Abbadie—Anne) is before us. The plan of the work seems to be to give an account, sufficiently full for all ordinary purposes, of every man and woman now deceased whose name is in any way memorable in the history of the British islands. The contributors are, for the most part, well-known scholars and specialists, and each article is signed with the initials of the writer. A list of the authorities used is given in each case—a fact which adds much to the value of the work. Noteworthy among the biographies in the first volume are: Archbishop Abbot, by S. L. Lee; Adrian IV., by Professor Creighton; Addison, by Leslie Stephen; King Alfred, by E. A. Freeman; Anne of Denmark and Queen Anne, both by Prof. A. G. Ward. The work is marked throughout by accuracy, clearness, and good judgment. If the standard set in this volume shall be maintained in those that are to follow, the whole will make an invaluable addition to the stock of works of reference.

Mr. Reuben A. Guild, librarian of Brown University, is to celebrate one of the founders of that institution, and a Revolutionary chaplain, in the 'Life and Times of Hezekiah Smith.' The work will be issued by the American Baptist Publication Society.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately 'The Money-Makers,' an offset to 'The Bread-winners'; and the controversy between Herbert Spencer and Frederic Harrison on the nature and grounds of religion, which lately appeared in the *Nineteenth Century* and *Popular Science Monthly*.

'The Mystery of the Locks,' by E. W. Howe, author of 'The Story of a Country Town,' is in the press of J. R. Osgood & Co. The scene is again a Western town.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press for early publication 'William E. Burton: Actor, Author, and Manager; with Recollections of his Performances,' by William L. Keese. The work will be handsomely printed and illustrated, and will be sold in a limited edition to subscribers. The same publishers also announce for the coming year 'Kaméhaméha the Great: His Birth, Loves, and Conquests,' an Hawaiian romance, by C. M. Newell; 'Fragments from an Old Inn,' sketches and verses, by Lilian Rozell Messenger; 'How Should I Pronounce?' by W. H. P. Phyfe; 'The Life of Society,' a general view, by E. Woodward

Brown; 'Bible Characters,' sermons (with a memoir and portrait), by the late Alexander D. Mercer, D.D.; 'The Lenape Stone; or, The Indian and the Mammoth,' by H. C. Mercer; and a popular edition of Williams's 'History of the Negro Race,' two volumes in one.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have been made the publishers of the new American Historical Association, and announce the first of a series of historical monographs introduced by a report of the organization of the Association last September. No. 2 will be 'An Address on Studies in General History and the History of Civilization,' by Andrew D. White, President of the Association; No. 3, 'Federal Land Grants for Education in the Northwest Territory,' by Geo. W. Knight.

'A Trip to Alaska,' by George Wardman, United States Treasury Agent at the Seal Islands, is announced by Samuel Carson & Co., San Francisco.

Mr. Austin Dobson is editing a volume of 'Selections from Steele' at the request of the Regents of the Clarendon Press. Much new material will be utilized in the introductory biographical sketch.

In the *Publishers' Weekly* for December 20, 1884, Mr. Thorvald Solberg completed, but for some supplementary titles, his valuable catalogue of books and articles relating to literary property. Under the heading United States, is given a complete list of the acts of Congress relating to copyright, and of acts in force as to the jurisdiction of copyright cases.

The current number of the *American Journal of Philology* (No. 19) is more than commonly readable and free from technicality. Prof. W. D. Whitney leads off with an article on the study of Hindu grammar and the study of Sanskrit. Prof. C. D. Morris discusses the jurisdiction of the Athenians over their allies, apropos of the first four lines of Thucydides, I, 77. A. L. Frothingham, jr., attempts to fix the meaning of Baalim and Ashtaroth in the Old Testament. The editor, Professor Gildersleeve, contributes a sympathetic sketch of his old teacher, Friedrich Ritschl. B. Perrin's "Lucan as Historical Source for Appian," has also its interest for scholars. The death of the late Professor Packard is fitly noticed by Prof. T. D. Seymour.

The *Photographic Times* of this city begins the new year by a change from monthly to weekly issues, and by such an addition to its staff as to indicate the desire of the proprietors to keep it out of the category of mere advertising mediums. Mr. J. Traill Taylor, the editor-in-chief, is to be assisted by Messrs. W. J. Stillman and Chas. Ehrmann. The large body of amateur photographers, as well as the profession itself, seem likely to find their account in this periodical, which is now in its fifteenth volume. The *Times* is published at 423 Broome Street.

A view of Mormonism charitable beyond what we are accustomed to from the clergy, is presented at some length in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for January. It is from the pen of the Rev. Delavan A. Leonard, Salt Lake City, who at least regards his subject from near and not from afar. The price of this quarterly, now published at Oberlin, Ohio, has been reduced to $3.00.

The *Builder* closed last year with a statement of the building movement of England, which shows not merely that the tendency of the rural population to flock to the cities, of which we have heard so much, is as great in England as elsewhere, but that there is in that country a special tendency to desert the interior for the seacoast. In part, but probably it is a small part, this comes from the attraction of sea air; but mainly it is due to the advantages of water communication, which has caused the transfer of a number of manufactories to the coast, aided by the injudicious policy of the railways, which have driven off their best customers. From a military point of view, this transfer of wealth and population to the most exposed part of the country can hardly be satisfactory to the patriots who were afraid of a Channel tunnel; but as yet not a word has been said against it.

The current issue of the *Portfolio* has for its frontispiece a charming etching by C. O. Murray, one of the best of the English etchers, after Morland. The second etching—of Windsor, by Edward Hull—is but commonplace; but the third, again, "Gateway of Canterbury Cathedral," by Joseph Pennell, is a great improvement on anything we have seen from that prolific designer's hand. There are none of the old, scrawling, meaningless lines about his foreground or sky, but, as far as they go, the forms of the etching are made out simply and significantly. The minor illustrations of Windsor are poor enough, and those by Pennell to the Canterbury article, especially "On the Stour," though freer from the vice of scrawling than earlier work, are still, in the water drawing, far from good form. The sense of the pictorial, which is the chief charm of Mr. Pennell's work, never, however, deserts him, and the Canterbury bits are attractive. As literature, the number has no special interest except in the leading article on Morland.

"*Puck's* Annual for 1885" derives its literary quality chiefly from its verse. Mr. H. C. Bunner's "A Look Back" and Mr. Robert Grant's "Froth: a Wagnerian Operetta," are noteworthy bits of *vers de société*; and neat and delicate also is "Left Behind," by "P. O'Hara." Of the prose, perhaps the best bit is Mr. J. L. Ford's "Samples of Humor," which reveals much keenness of observation. The illustrations are many and various in value.

Mr. J. A. Mitchell, the originator and editor of *Life*, has just begun a novel series of sketches which he calls "Glimpses of Heaven." His facility in drawing angels and cherubs and magnificently pillared halls, not less than his delicate humor, will find ample scope in this field, which cannot be said to have been overworked.

A circular letter, embodying a number of questions on "Recess or No-Recess in Schools," has been sent in many directions by Mr. J. H. Hoose, of the State Normal School at Cortland, Cortland County, N. Y. Mr. Hoose is one of the Committee on Hygiene in Education of the National Council of Education, which will report to the Council on this subject in July next.

Prof. Francis William Newman has recently published through Trübner a Latin translation of Robinson Crusoe, under the title 'Rebilius Cruso; a book to lighten tedium to the learner.' In his preface he indicates as his reasons for the choice, "its vivid interest, and because it includes a far greater variety of vocabulary than can be obtained from any of the received classics of the same length." In one sense this is perfectly true, for he is obliged to coin some words, as "ignipulta" for gun, and "cannones" for cannons. There is another Latin translation made by a Frenchman named Goffaux.

Among recent contributions to Shakesperian literature in Germany is 'Shakespeare's Stellung zur katholischen Religion,' by J. M. Raich. It appears to be simply another vain attempt to prove Shakspere a Catholic, mainly by quotations from his works. For instance, the author considers that he believed in transubstantiation because of *Rosalind's* words, "His kissing is as full of sanctity as the touch of holy bread." So, because *Othello* speaks of "the office opposite to Saint Peter," Shakspere must have believed in the Papacy! This is nearly as bad as the work of that member of Parliament who explained not only Shakspere, but Horace and 'Hudibras,' by the appearances of the moon.

The last number of the *Bulletin de la Société de la Géographie* contains an article by Prince Roland Bonaparte on "The Last Voyages of the Dutch to New Guinea." As long ago as 1828 the Dutch made a settlement and built a fort at Triton Bay on the southwest coast, and at the same time took formal possession of the country as far as longitude 141°. But the fort was soon abandoned, and for many years few attempts were made to establish commercial relations with the natives. Since 1875, however, the Government has sent out fourteen different expeditions to explore the territory claimed in 1828. Of these a brief account is given by Prince Bonaparte, together with a map of that part of the island visited. The result of these expeditions appears to be a fair knowledge of the coast line both on the north and south nearly up to longitude 141°. No attempt, however, seems to have been made to penetrate into the interior. A number of settlements have been founded, and since 1877 a line of steamers has touched at two ports on the west coast three times a year.

In a few places in France local customs of processions inherited from the Middle Ages still exist. Usually they are much modified, and have lost as much of their original color and life as the Mardi Gras procession has in Paris. M. Robert Trigev, in a small book called 'La Procession de Rameaux au Mans,' has given an account of one that has preserved more than usual of its early features, only the jousts with which it was formerly concluded having been suppressed. It took its origin, toward the close of the eleventh century, from a sally of the principal citizens (and especially the butchers of the town) to recover the Count of Maine and the great crucifix which had been captured by a band of Norman adventurers. The society of *Francs-Bouchers*, which takes a large part in the procession, has disappeared, but the *Mézaigers* still exist—twenty of the principal bourgeois, who, like our Cincinnati, transmit the honor from father to son.

The most elaborate publishing enterprise lately started in France is M. Quantin's 'Bibliothèque des Chefs-d'œuvre du Roman Contemporain,' which is to include some forty of the masterpieces of contemporary fiction, illustrated in the most lavish manner with etchings or woodcuts or lithographs or cuts in color, either inserted or on the page with the text, as may seem best suited to each individual book. At least six uniform small quarto volumes will appear every year at a uniform price of twenty-five francs. Among the works promised and likely to be of interest to American readers are Dumas's 'Trois Mousquetaires' in one volume, M. Halévy's 'L'Abbé Constantin' and 'Deux Mariages' in another; M. Feuillet's 'Roman d'un Jeune Homme Pauvre,' Hugo's 'Notre Dame' in two volumes, and 'Les Misérables' in five; Sandeau's 'Mlle. de la Seiglière,' and George Sand's 'Petite Fadette' and 'Mare au Diable' together in one volume. The first of the series to appear is Flaubert's 'Madame Bovary.'

The great edition of Victor Hugo's works (complete and *ne varietur*) is finished for the present, at least (Paris: Hetzel-Quantin; New York: Christern), in forty-six volumes—sixteen of poetry, fourteen of fiction, four of drama ('Torquemada' is not yet included), two of philosophy, three of history, three of 'Actes et Paroles,' two of travels, while the two volumes of 'Victor Hugo Raconté' make up the tale—these last thus confessing their autobiographical character.

Mr. Christern has received the prospectus of the latest of the sumptuous works associated at once with St. Mark's and the Venetian house of

Ferdinand Ongania. The present undertaking, to be begun next month in parts, is 'Le Trésor de Saint Marc à Venise,' by the Abbé Pasini, a work accompanied by ninety-three large plates in color.

The much-talked-of bigness of everything American is surpassed in one respect by Russia, which offers the greatest prize ever known for a literary work. The Russian Academy will decide in 1925 who shall receive $1,000,000 for the best work on the life and reign of the Czar Alexander I. The favorite and minister of that monarch, Araktcheyeff, left 50,000 rubles to be used in honor of his master a century after Alexander's death in 1825. Put at compound interest the 50,000 will have grown to $1,000,000, the largest sum, probably, ever received by any author.

—After a long interval, we are glad to receive three more volumes or parts of the well-designated 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' (Cassell & Co.). The work has now reached nearly to the letter K in seven of these parts: in other words, is about half finished. On its first appearance we took occasion to enumerate its distinctive features. First and most striking is its superabundant vocabulary, with a vast array of obsolete words and forms of words, furnishing a glossary to our older literature, and with subordinate lists of compounds, as, *e. g.*, under *electric, fish, hand, ferric ferrous ferri- ferro-*, etc. These compounds, by the way, are usually united by a hyphen, though in practice they would mostly be separated; so that whoever consults the present dictionary for aid in this unsettled department of punctuation will be misled instead of helped. The analysis and subdivision of meanings are carried to an unusual extent. The synonyms are taken openly from Crabb. The literary references are numerous, and precise in their indication of chapter and verse, or, in the case of periodicals, of dates. Finally, the illustrations, while unpretentious, are useful and relevant—not simply pictorial. Some shortcomings in executing the scheme were inevitable. Names of persons and places are admitted on certain conditions. Foucault has a separate entry for the sake of defining his pendulum; but Galileo is omitted before his derivatives, so to speak. Faraday is not named before nor (except as "the discoverer") under *faradisation*, etc.; but *henwoodite* is said expressly to have been "named after the late W. J. Henwood, of Penzance." A dislocation is seen in placing *ferry-bridge* and *ferry-railway* under *ferry* the verb, instead of under the noun. Americanisms have been pretty well looked after, as in the representation of an elevated railway. It is needless condensation to say of Morse that he "did much" for the electric telegraph. And the American electoral college might have been described under that rubric.

—At the thirty-first annual meeting of the Wisconsin State Historical Society, which has just been held, the additions to its library during the last year were reported as 2,546 volumes and 1,845 pamphlets, making a grand total now in the library of 109,059 volumes and pamphlets. Among these additions were 465 bound volumes of newspaper files from the year 1605 to the present time, making that department now number 4,583 volumes. Few collections in the country can be more extensive. Well-nigh 200 Wisconsin newspapers are now annually presented to the Society by their publishers, and the State pays for binding them. The earliest issues in the Territory are to be found in the Society's archives. If some of them had been consulted when the American Antiquarian Society published its centennial edition of Thomas's 'History of Printing in America,' we should not read as we do concerning Wisconsin in that work (vol. ii, p. 167), "The Green Bay *Republican* was printed by W. Shoals in 1831 or 1832." The dates here are both wrong. So is the name of the paper and that of its publisher. So is the intimation that Mr. Shoals published the first newspaper in Wisconsin. Only two issues were made in that State before 1834. Those two were Nos. 1 and 2 of the Green Bay *Intelligencer*, not *Republican*, on December 11 and 25, 1833, not 1831 or 1832. Nor were these papers published by Shoals at all, but by Suydam and Ellis. The Green Bay *Republican* began to appear on October 10, 1841, ten years later than the date given by the antiquarian editor, and its publisher's name was not, as he gives it, W. Shoals, but Henry O. The atlases and maps in the collection amount to 957. The paintings in the gallery—consisting, to a great extent, of prominent State pioneers—are 129. Among the historical curios is a complete set of autographs of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. A unique exhibit is that of about 200 implements of unalloyed copper, all found on the soil of Wisconsin. These articles, some so massive as to weigh five pounds apiece, were all for use in war or art—not for ornament like the beads and trinkets which are picked up elsewhere. They include at least fifteen varieties of types. This feature of the museum is without a rival, except perhaps in Buda-Pest. In the department of Shaksperiana the Wisconsin library has lately taken a new departure. The volumes in this specialty are already no less than 700. Among them are Halliwell's quarto facsimiles, so many of which were burned, and his folio edition of 150 copies for subscribers. This Wisconsin copy, according to tradition, belonged to Edwin Forrest, but if so, he must have owned two copies, as it is understood that one copy of Halliwell's folio edition was burned in Forrest's house at Philadelphia. The Society has just taken possession of the new building erected for it by the State at a cost of $100,000. The new quarters will afford ample room and verge enough for more than twice the present number of books. But, judging the future by the past, before half a generation the Society will again say, "The place is too strait for me, give place to me that I may dwell!"

—The Modern Language Association of America, at its recent session in Columbia College, passed from its former chrysalis condition as a convention, and became a formal and permanent organization. Most of the colleges in which instruction in modern languages is prominent were represented by delegates. The character of the discussions showed a distinct advance over the meeting of one year ago. A programme of papers with educational subjects for debate provided a definite outline of work. Noticeable papers were presented upon "The college course in English literature: how it may be improved"; "How far may the latest scientific results be embodied in the text-book?" "Some unpublished letters by Jean Paul Richter"; "Aims and methods of linguistic study, with a plea for the study of literature for its own sake"; and elaborate investigations upon the "Factitive in German" and the "Genitive in Old French." The historical account of instruction in modern languages in New York city was unfortunately inaccurate in ascribing the date of the introduction of German into Columbia College to a date less than thirty years ago—a professorship having been established much earlier. The paper upon the "Progress of modern-language study in the South" was encouraging, although not advancing beyond the discussion of that subject already given in the *Nation*. A valuable analysis of the results of the requirements in French and German for admission to Harvard College showed that the number who failed was not greater in these subjects than in algebra and plane geometry, the number of failures decreasing from thirty-six per cent. in 1875 to twenty-five per cent. in 1883. The discussions naturally turned upon the question of the relative position of classical and modern literatures in college instruction. A wide range of difference was manifest in the attitude of various delegates toward this question. Many, while insisting upon the importance of French and German in any proper scheme of education, were not prepared to go to the length of those, more radical, who believed that the classics must give way before the onward march of the literature of to-day. The more pronounced views found expression at the evening session. One delegate had examined the results of the teaching of classics in his own college, and found that ninety per cent. of the students used "ponies," which, inferentially, would not be possible in modern languages. Moreover, he had placed the great ancients against the great moderns, and found the former inferior to the latter. The convention passed a seemingly superfluous resolution in favor of a "modern classical course" in our colleges. More practical was the appointment of a committee to examine the whole subject of the relation of the classics and the modern languages, especially in the requirements for admission to college, and to report at the next meeting of the Association.

—A proposition to unite with the American Philological Society in promoting the objects common to both organizations was rejected; the members seeming to fear that any coöperation with the older body would result in some indefinable injury to the new organization. The convention forgot the beneficial influence exerted by the American Philological Society and the American Association for the Advancement of Science in combining to protect advanced degrees from indiscriminate bestowal by the smaller colleges. The unity of aim of the Philological Society and the Modern Language Association would suggest that coöperation in establishing the position of languages in liberal education might be of essential advantage. A library might be maintained in common, and prizes offered for special investigations in particular branches of philology. The question of a journal to promote the objects of the Association did not come up directly for discussion, though the action contemplated by the above resolution had reference in part to the founding of a common organ. Some delegates desired a publication devoted exclusively to modern languages; but the cost of supporting such a journal, and the probability that it would lack an adequate constituency, have hitherto stood in the way of realizing this wish. An enlargement of the scope of the present *American Journal of Philology* so as to include pedagogics would seem practical, and obviate the necessity of any new venture. The generous patronage of the Johns Hopkins University alone has made possible the existence of the latter periodical. For the present it is probable that the transactions of the Modern Language Association will be published in an annual volume. The list of educational subjects prepared for discussion by the Association was hardly entered upon, owing to lack of time. This is to be regretted, since there was a serious effort to bring before the conventions matters upon which an opinion was needed. The Association will meet hereafter during the Christmas recess in some central locality.

—All friends of the higher education for women will be interested in the account by Walter Armstrong, in the January number of the London *Art Journal*, describing the recently completed Woman's University Building, in the vicinity of London. It is situated not far from Windsor,

and on an eminence which overlooks the great park and the undulating fields that stretch away to the Crystal Palace. The building is pronounced by Mr. Armstrong one of the most remarkable structures in Europe. It consists of two blocks, each 520 feet in length, and these are connected at the ends and in the middle by cross-buildings, so as to make a double rectangle. The two blocks are traversed, from end to end, by corridors ten feet wide, giving access to more than three hundred suites of rooms. Each student is to have a sitting-room and a bedroom, and the one is as large as the other. The appointments are in all respects declared to be the most perfect that could be devised. Though the building is to be warmed by steam, there are provisions for no less than 800 open fires. The architecture is French Renaissance, and the designer Mr. Crosland, a pupil of Sir Gilbert Scott. The work was begun in 1879, and has been completed for the contract price of £257,000. It stands in a park of ninety-six acres, the whole being the gift of Mr. Thomas Holloway, in memory of his wife. It is designed as a national university for women of the middle and upper-middle classes, and is believed by Mr. Armstrong to be "the most magnificent endowment ever made upon his country by a single man." The entire gift is said to reach, if it does not exceed, a million pounds sterling.

—The *Art Journal*, by the way, which was known of all art students of this passing generation, is entering upon a new series which has the name only of the old. The plan of the ancient journal is lowered, its importance diminished, and the quality of its illustrations inferior, in spite of all the improvements in the arts of reproduction. The frontispiece of the February number, for example, "Napoleon on the Bellerophon," by Orchardson, is as flimsy a piece of picture making as the English school has ever produced—neither pictorial nor historical; theatrical, poverty-stricken, and ill-drawn. The literature, too, is dejected. Mr. Wallis, in his article on Raphael, shows, it seems to us, little judicial quality in the way he dismisses Morelli's theory of the share taken by Timoteo Viti in the development of Raphael's genius, and, if we can judge, quite contrary to the evidence brought forward—rather, perhaps, in ignorance of it, as if he had not read it. The endorsement of the acumen and authority of the very subacute and constantly untrustworthy Crowe and Cavalcaselle, and his acceptance of the genuineness of the "Apollo and Marsyas" as a work of Raphael, are equally impeachments of Mr. Wallis's capacity as an art archæologist. No first-rate authority, even in Paris, accepts the "Apollo and Marsyas" as Raphael's, and no thorough student of art accepts Crowe and Cavalcaselle as authority in history or opinion in matters of art. The *Art Journal* wants editing perhaps more than anything else, for the selection of literary matter is certainly inferior to that of its earlier days.

—Macmillan & Co. have put into a portfolio a selection of the choicest woodcuts originally printed in the *English Illustrated Magazine*—twenty in number, carefully printed on Japanese paper and mounted on card-board in a *recherché* and attractive manner. As an exhibit of the state of wood-engraving in England to-day, the collection furnishes excellent material for the amateur of xylography. The English art has not in fidelity of interpretation reached the perfection of the American work, but the rendering of Rossetti's drawing for the "Early Italian Poets" is very delicate and faithful; less so, but still good, is that of his "Lady Lilith," while the "Loving Cup" utterly fails in rendering the head of the woman in the original, making it a piece of very gross flesh. "The Miller's Courtship" is evidently a faithful translation of a somewhat blotchy drawing, and, with the companion drawing, "In the Fens," shows the engraver, Octave Lacour, to have a skill not at all common in England, and by presumption Gallic. "Stitchwort," again, is very near the *Century's* and *Harper's* work, and the piano-case of Burne Jones is charmingly rendered. The figure work of the same engraver, however, shows his limitations to be pretty nearly those of our own school, and it is even weaker than our average work of the same kind; but nothing occurs in the series better than Lacour's work. To get really good head-engravers to-day, we are afraid we must go to Germany, the requisite artistic training and knowledge of drawing being above the standard of wood-engravers in general, either in England or America. One swallow does not make a summer, and a Cole or a Linton does not make a school. The great want of all our art is *training*. Every branch of art production is filled with people who show that the foundations of their art educations were not well laid, and the superstructure is flimsy. In this respect the Germans are more to be imitated than even the French; and a little Teutonic thoroughness in the schools we are establishing or going to establish would do them immense good.

—Every one has heard of Goethe's aversion to dogs, which appears to have been based on their noisiness at night. Kant changed his residence in Königsberg three times on account of the noises made by poultry, sailors, and the singing of convicts; and Schopenhauer adduces a number of considerations to prove a favorite theory of his that an abhorrence of noise is a necessary concomitant of advancing civilization and refinement. Church bells are often attacked in the newspapers, but they are harmless compared with that arch-enemy of the ear—the steam whistle. Statistics show that a large proportion of railway employees and laborers in machine foundries are hard of hearing. The physicians of Winterthur, Switzerland, have petitioned the authorities that the tones of the engine whistles may be lowered, and not so long-sustained; and there is hardly a city or village where the death-rate would not decrease if these sleep-murdering whistles were abolished. Musical people are not only more sensitive than others to the steam-whistle nuisance, but have a special reason to lament its existence. It is well known that the greatest living song-writer, Robert Franz, lost his hearing almost completely some years ago; but a writer in a late number of *Schorer's Familienblatt* has, for the first time, narrated the details of this catastrophe, and mentioned some peculiarities in the case that possess a great interest for students of physiological acoustics. The writer's mother was a pupil of Franz. One day, he relates, Franz, on commencing his lesson, complained that the piano was out of tune, and angrily departed, declaring that he could not play on such an instrument. He made three other visits, and in each house the piano seemed to be in the same condition. Then it dawned on him that the fault must be in his own hearing, and that the cause of it was a railway whistle that had lacerated his ears on that very day. From that time he carefully avoided the neighborhood of locomotives, going from Halle to Leipzig in a wagon whenever he wished to see Schumann or attend a Gewandhaus concert. About a decade after this event, in 1863, he once more had the misfortune to be surprised by a shrill whistle, the effect of which was to make him deaf to the notes above c'''. Some time later he complained that "now the b'' is gone too"; then followed g'' and a'', and so on, so that for a long time he could hear only bass notes; finally, those, too, disappeared, and now he is practically quite deaf. This gradual disappearance of the notes of the scale from the range of his hearing will doubtless be interpreted as adding new force to the view that the basilar membrane in the ear is a differentiating organ, tuned so as to mediate the perception of special tone-waves. The original theory was, that the fibres of Corti possess this function, but when the discovery was made that birds do not have these fibres, the basilar membrane was fixed upon as furnishing the requisite anatomical conditions. The arrangement of the fibres of this membrane, gradually increasing in length from one end to the other, somewhat like the strings in a harp or piano (and connected with the ends of the acoustic nerve), must make them sensitive to waves of different kinds; and we need only assume that in the case of Franz the degeneration commenced at the base of the membrane, and thence extended upwards, to account for the gradual loss of his hearing and at the same time to corroborate the latest physiological doctrine.

EUPHORION.

Euphorion. Being Studies of the Antique and the Mediæval in the Renaissance. By Vernon Lee. Boston: Roberts Bros.

It is difficult to find any *raison d'être* for a book like 'Euphorion,' except the rashness of youth in rushing in to solve the most difficult problems of the philosophy of history and art, and of an opinionated and crudely informed youth at that. Young people who have their ready solutions of all mysteries are not wanting to the experience of any one, and even as clever young people as Vernon Lee are not so rare as fortunately are their printed books. Should Vernon Lee ever arrive at complete education, she will most probably regret as much as any one can deprecate the publication of this collection of sophomorical dicta ("studies," in the true sense of the term, they cannot be called); and this not because the book is dull or uninteresting—such suppress themselves—for 'Euphorion' is clever with the cleverness of precocious and presumptuous youth, lively and amusing even in its pretentiousness. It shows the peculiar talent of a gifted young woman who has great faith in her notions, and is more anxious to talk cleverly than to study seriously; who has read much and reflected less, and is more bent on talking epigrammatically and authoritatively than on ascertaining whether what she says will bear investigation, or if it is new and worth the making of a volume. The result is a book filled largely with crude generalizations, cruder opinions, and ill-digested information gathered from an immense and heterogeneous reading, and which the author does not seem to know are, for the most part, neither new nor important, when true. Symonds's influence appears everywhere, and the color of Ruskin's old wine shows through her somewhat transparent bottle; but this older material is much mixed with the author's opinions.

Her passion seems to be in energetically formulating enigmatical conclusions which she takes for profound truths, but of which the only remarkable quality generally is their utter absurdity, when carefully considered—pretentious generalizations which only require reducing to logical form to be shown to be meaningless. Thus, in her essay called, with more than Ruskinian obscurity, "The Sacrifice," she says: "Sismondi asks indignantly, Why did the Italians not form a federation as soon as the strangers appeared?" Every intelligent school child knows that it was because the Italians had quarrelled and called in the strangers to help them against each other; but the author replies:

"The habit of security from abroad [when was Italy from the days of the Gallic invasions ever

secure ?] and of jealousy within ; the essential nature of a number of trading centres, made such a thing not only impossible of execution, but for a while impossible of conception [as if confederation among themselves against each other had never occurred]. Confederacies had become possible only when Burlamacchi was decapitated by the imperialists ; popular resistance *had only become a reality when Feruccio was massacred* by the Spaniards; a change of institutions was feasible only when all national institutions had been destroyed," etc., etc.

All which, in plain English, means that the Italians only began to fight after they had been utterly routed and dispersed—militarily, "cut to pieces." This is not the philosophy of history; it is the involution of nonsense.

Again : "Civilization cannot spread so long as it is contained within a national mould; and only a vanquished nation can civilize its victors." Of course there are no victors till the other nation is vanquished, and civilization cannot go abroad as long as it stays at home ; but the statement is about as important as to say that bread is not bread till it is baked. Greece civilized Rome because it was civilized earlier than Rome, and Rome civilized Gaul for the same reason. Men are progressive, and when they see a more advanced state of society with more desirable contingencies, they adopt them, as have the Japanese from us, without conquest. They take what suits them and leave what does not. What Vernon Lee, with the most consequential manner, places as a law, is contradicted by the whole history of civilization.

But it is especially in what is written of art that 'Euphorion' revels in ignorance. It would seem that the author has not the faintest conception of the nature of art, any more than a blind man of colors, or a deaf of harmonies of sound. She has moved among the works of great art without ever suspecting what they were, and calling them this, that, and the other, as a child makes a kerchief personate a princess and a rag-doll a hero: one does not recognize the originals in her irrelevant travesty. Not even in general observation or reflection is she intelligent. "Landscape,in the sense of our artists of to-day," she says, "is a very recent thing; so recent that even in the works of Turner, who was, perhaps, the earliest landscape painter in the modern sense, we are forced to separate from the real rendering of real effects a great deal in which the tints of sky and sea are arranged and distributed as a mere vast conventional piece of decoration." This is inaccurate in every statement of fact, and absurd in what is conclusion. Turner was the legitimate descendant of Claude, with a wider view of the field of art, and cared even less for the "real rendering of real effects," which, if it means realization, is a thing not to be found as the motive in any work of the painter. Nor is the author more accurate in noting the phenomena on which she descants: "But the sun has smitten the higher hills, and the vapors have partially rolled down in a scarcely visible fold to their feet; and the high hill, not yet rock or earth, swells up into the sky *as something real, but fluid, and of infinite elasticity.*" Mist never rolls down when smitten by the sun, but rises up; but what the high hill is supposed to be doing or becoming, passes our comprehension: "words, words, words."

In the essay called "Symmetria Prisca," it is almost impossible to read a section without encountering the evidence of this singular incapacity to understand anything that goes to the constitution of Art. Its very history is miswritten with a recklessness which can only be the result of such incapacity: "Painting, in the hands of Cimabue and Duccio, of Giotto and Guido da Siena, freed itself from the tradition of the mosaicists as sculpture had from the practice of the stone-masons, and stood forth an independent and *organic* art. Thus painting was born of a new civilization, and grew by its own vital force—a thing of the Middle Ages, original and spontaneous." Yet a little further on we read: "The most purely mediæval sculpture, the sculpture which has, as it were, just detached itself from the capitals and porches of the cathedral, is the direct pupil of the antique." She had only to read Perkins or 'L'Art Byzantin' (Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des beaux-arts) to know that the latter was the truth (see 'L'Art Byzantin,' pp. 159, 161, 162); and even Crowe and Cavalcaselle, who seem to furnish her with all she knows of the history of art, should have taught her that painting in Italy was born of painting in Byzantium, and that there is absolutely no break in the lineage except from the irruption of some new genius from time to time. But, starting with a curious incomprehension of the very nature of art, the author never sees the falsity of any conclusion or generalization about it, but goes on with an airy assurance and irrelevance, discoursing nonsense, with here and there a fragment of ill-applied dictum of some painter or book on painting, which she makes equal nonsense by the way she puts it :

"Giottesque art is *not incorrect art*, it is *generalized art* ; it is an art of mere outline. The Giottesques could draw with great accuracy the hand : the form of the fingers, the bend of the limb, they could give to perfection its whole gesture and movement, they could produce a correct and spirited outline. . . . The difference between this spectre hand of the Giottesques and the sinewy muscular hand which can shake and crush of Masaccio and Signorelli; or *the soft hand with throbbing pulse and warm pressure of Perugino and Bellini*" ; etc.,

is eloquence, perhaps, but not philosophy of art ; and in the passage, "With Masaccio began the study of nature for its own sake, the passionate wish to arrive at absolute realization," the author shows again that she does not, in the least, comprehend the radical distinction between the artistic and naturalistic schools. Realization began with the Dutch schools, nor is there prior to Raphael anything in painting which even inexperience could confound with naturalism. Of the Pisani and Giottesques she says : "The *anatomical science* and *technical processes* of Antiquity were being used to produce the most intensely un-antique, the most intensely mediæval works." Now, considering that we know absolutely nothing about the technical processes of antiquity, and that the ancients knew of anatomy so little that they conceived the muscles only to serve as cushions to protect the bones, this is precocious wisdom. A characteristic dictum is the following, which is as magisterial as absurd : "First, then, we have the hostility between painting and sculpture, between the *modus operandi* of the modern and the *modus operandi* of the ancient art. Antique art is, in the first place, *purely linear art, colorless, tintless*, without light and shade ; next, it is essentially the art of the isolated figure without background, grouping, or perspective," etc., etc. It is clear that in the cool assurance of so profound ignorance both of the philosophy and results of art, it would be futile to hope for a cessation of this self-assumed function of art teacher. There is an ignorance which is so complete that it is beyond instruction, and this is always ready to lay down rigorously the law of taste because it is absolutely devoid of the æsthetic sense.

The essay on "Mediæval Love" is one which can only excite wonder at the predilection of Vernon Lee, a woman and still young, for studies in a class of literature which is simply so filthy that most students of mediæval literature either leave it aside or do not admit that they have read it. Only one thing is clear, that Vernon Lee knows little more about love, brave, healthy, and real passion, than she does of art. She does not even perceive that the human heart is in all ages essentially the same, and that love is the great regenerator at all times. She talks of Dante's love as necessarily a poetical fiction, not knowing that his experience is more or less that of every spiritually-minded man, and that no poetic fiction could approach its reality, so true is it that "he who loves is one step nearer heaven." One cannot say to Vernon Lee, "Heaven send thee a beard"; but we may say, Experience send thee modesty and sound study.

SOLFERINO AND SICILY.

Lettere edite ed inedite di Camillo Cavour, Raccolte ed Illustrate da Luigi Chiala. [Volume III. 1859-1860.] I Preliminari dell' Unità Italiana. Turin: Roux & Favale. 1884. Pp. cccxliv, 419.

THE verbal agreement between Napoleon and Cavour at Plombières on July 21, 1858, was kept strictly secret, yet, as the year wore on, there was an ill-defined presentiment in diplomatic circles that the relations among the Powers were becoming strained beyond the limits of peace, and that, somehow or other, the Italian Question was prominently involved in the impending crisis. This presentiment suddenly hardened into certainty, when, on New Year's day, 1859, Napoleon held his customary reception, and made the memorable remark to Baron Hübner, the Austrian Ambassador: "I regret that our relations with your Government are not so good as in the past; but I beg you to say to the Emperor [Francis Joseph] that my personal sentiments toward him are not changed." Within twenty-four hours every capital in Europe had heard this significant sentence, and had deduced from it that the French Emperor's inclinations leaned toward Sardinia. "It appears that the Emperor wants to go ahead," exclaimed Cavour, who also, according to the report of his friends, was surprised at the unexpected utterance. A little later, from Turin were spoken other famous words, which men immediately regarded as prophetic. On December 30, 1858, the Piedmontese Cabinet had drawn up the scheme for the address from the throne, to be delivered at the opening of Parliament on January 10, 1859. This rough draft was sent to Napoleon, who returned it with this striking passage added:

"Fortified by the experience of the past, we go, resolute, to meet the emergencies of the future. This future will be happy, our policy reposing on justice, on love of liberty and of country. Our land, small in territory, acquired credit in the councils of Europe because it is great in the ideas it represents, the sympathies it inspires. This condition is not bereft of perils, because, while we respect the treaties, we are not insensible to the cry of anguish which is raised to us from so many parts of Italy. Strong in concord, trusting in our good right, let us, prudent and decided,await the decrees of Divine Providence."

In a very short time the *grido di dolore*—the "cry of anguish"—became a watch-word among patriots throughout the Peninsula, who now felt certain that Piedmont heard every cry, and was the real leader of the national movement. Cavour, finding that Napoleon was in earnest in regard to helping the Italians, turned at once to prepare for the conflict. The first step in the proceedings was to conclude the marriage between Prince Napoleon and Princess Clothilde, the daughter of Victor Emmanuel. No union could be more deplorable than this proved to the pure, high-minded woman; but the sacrifice must be made, and the Princess, true to her Savoyard blood, was willing to make it. Europe perceived at last that war was approaching, and exerted herself to prevent it. For a time the contest lay between Cavour on one side and European diplomats on the other. He urged Napoleon to action; they intrigued for the maintenance of

peace in the interest of Austria. On January 15 he wrote to E. d'Azeglio at London: "While they are recommending moderation and calm to us, Austria is accumulating enormous forces. Lombardy is an entrenched camp; the troops are distributed and organized for an offensive movement. In contempt of the treaties Piacenza is occupied no longer by a feeble garrison, but by an army corps which directly menaces us. . . It is certain, at all events, that if the concentration of Austrian forces continues we shall be driven to reunite all our force before spring."

But while Cavour, by equipping troops, by negotiating loans, and by diplomatic overtures, was making ready for war, and was trying to win foreign sympathy for Piedmont, the advocates of peace almost overmatched him, and at the end of March he set out for Paris to bring his personal influence to bear upon the vacillating or slippery Napoleon. His persuasiveness proved so effective that on March 29 he was able to write to La Marmora: "Here is my impression. War inevitable. It will be delayed by two months at least. It will be waged on the Rhine as well as on the Po. In order that the war may have a happy result for Piedmont and for Italy, we must prepare to make the greatest efforts. The French, drawn in against their will, will never pardon us if the greater part of the weight of the enterprise fall on their back. *Woe to us if we triumph solely by means of the French.* It is only by fighting better than they, by putting under arms forces superior to theirs, in case of a general war, that we shall save our country."

Upon his return to Turin, matters hastened to a crisis faster than he expected, yet up to the last moment he was kept in a terrible suspense lest his antagonists should make Napoleon waver. But on April 21 Baron Kellersperg was sent by Count Buol with an ultimatum from Vienna. He reached Turin late in the afternoon of the 23d. Cavour read Buol's letter, and promised to give a reply at the same hour three days later. Piedmont was peremptorily called upon to dismiss all her volunteers. On April 26 Baron Kellersperg left Turin with a reply for the Austrian Minister, in which Piedmont promptly refused to accede to Austria's demands. "The die is cast!" Cavour exclaimed, when the envoy had departed. "We have made history, and now let us go to dinner." The last efforts of the courts of Berlin and London to compel a disarmament failed, and war was declared on the 29th. French regiments poured into Piedmont and were quickly despatched to the front, where was begun the most remarkable campaign since that of Waterloo. Of the important events of the war no mention need here be made, but it is pertinent to call attention to Cavour's marvellous activity at this time. He was really the Piedmontese Cabinet and the centre of the Italian movement at Turin. He discharged the duties of the Minister of War, as La Marmora was in the field. He was Minister of Finance. He corresponded with and encouraged the leaders of auxiliary revolts at Parma, in Tuscany, in the Marches. He superintended the levy of horses and provisions. He cared for the prompt transportation of troops. No modern Minister, unless it be Bismarck or Gladstone, has shown such capacity for work of every kind, from the shaping of the broadest policy to the strict performance of the minutest departmental detail.

On the 4th of June, the French and Italians defeated the Austrians at Magenta; on the 24th, the allies won another desperate victory at Solferino. On the day following the last engagement, Cavour started for the front, and, after an interview with Victor Emmanuel, returned to Turin. His amazement and consternation were unbounded a week later when the news reached him that Napoleon had commanded a halt, and that the war of liberation would be stopped with the work only half done. On July 8, La Mamora telegraphed Cavour: "The armistice is being concluded at this moment at Villafranca. . . . I am unable to state with precision how and by whom it may have been proposed." That same morning the *Moniteur*, the official organ of Napoleon at Paris, published a despatch announcing that a suspension of arms had been agreed upon. The following evening Cavour, still trusting that his influence might prevent the conclusion of a peace which would leave Italy unsatisfied, hurried to Monzambano, the headquarters of the allied troops. On his arrival he learned that on the following day, July 11, the two Emperors were to meet to discuss the terms of peace at Villafranca. Stormy indeed was the two-hours' interview which Cavour held with Victor Emmanuel, but what either said has never been authentically reported. Cavour felt that to pause then would betray the Venetians and the Central Italians, and would give the Piedmontese just cause for declaring they had been deceived. The King at heart rebelled no less vehemently than his Minister at this unexpected ending of the war; but he at least kept up a show of outward calmness. Cavour, having been refused an interview with Napoleon, who possibly did not wish to trust himself against the persuasive eloquence and just recriminations of the Piedmontese Premier, returned to Turin. His first act was to resign. After his life-long struggle for Italian independence, and especially after having arranged with Napoleon this war of liberation, he could not consistently consent to a treaty which betrayed his principles. Many weeks passed before he recovered from the terrible blow dealt him by the French Emperor's insincerity.

But though beaten down, it was impossible for him to despair. In a letter to Massimo d'Azeglio, of July 15, 1859, he wrote: "As for me—I speak as a simple Italian to you, not as a minister—as soon as my successor is appointed, for which I hope I shall not have to wait long, I will come and place myself under your orders as a simple soldier, to be killed for the defence of Italian independence." Four days later La Marmora succeeded to the Presidency of the Council, and Cavour retired to Switzerland, "to forget there among the wonders of Nature the misery of the affairs conducted by men." He purposed to withdraw so completely from public life that not even a suspicion should survive that he interfered with the policy of the new Ministry, of which Rattazzi soon became the leader; and he loyally abstained from embarrassing it by criticising what was soon seen to be its weakness.

"I am profoundly persuaded," he wrote on July 24, 1859, "that my participation in politics at this time would be harmful to my country. Its destinies were handed over to diplomacy. Now I am in bad odor with the diplomats. My resignation is so agreeable to them that its effect will be to render them more favorable to those unhappy peoples of Central Italy whose fate must be established. There are circumstances in which a statesman could not put himself far enough forward, there are others in which the interest of the cause he serves requires that he withdraw himself into the shade. This is what present circumstances exact of me. Man of action that I am, of my own accord I surrender myself to the power of repose for the welfare of my country."

Peace reigned again, but the rulers expelled from Tuscany and the other Duchies were not allowed to return. A conference convened at Zurich in the autumn of 1859 to decide the settlement of Central Italy. Instead of coming to an agreement then, however, Napoleon proposed that a European Congress should be summoned. The question arose as to who should represent Piedmont. The Piedmontese, indeed, we may say without exaggeration, the European public, recognized that only one man could fitly speak for Italy. Not to send Cavour to the Congress was equivalent to leaving the hero out of the play. But would Cavour consent to be the spokesman of a Cabinet whose policy he did not approve? The popular sense of fitness felt, if it did not say, that he must speak his own policy or remain silent. In November, 1859, he writes confidentially to La Farina that his conviction is only too strongly confirmed that the fate of Italy "is for the time being intrusted to persons little fitted to govern the state in these difficult times." Matters grew more critical, until it was generally conceded that Cavour must again guide Piedmont. But the Rattazzi Ministry, before its fall, formally appointed Cavour to represent Piedmont at Paris. Two days after his appointment, on Christmas, 1859, he wrote to Farini, Governor of Emilia:

"I will not relate to you the story of my election as our representative at the Congress. All the intrigues, all the basest subterfuges were put in operation to render it impossible. Dabormida and La Marmora are innocent of this. It will be easy for you to guess who were its authors. If they did not succeed in their purpose, they succeeded nevertheless in making more arduous my most difficult mission by revealing the antipathies, the envy, and the base jealousies with which I am honored by some persons. . . . In spite of this I have accepted, because by refusing I must have of necessity proclaimed a hostile antagonism to Italy, and by accepting I believe I have made the greatest sacrifice which a public man can make for his country—not only to consent to bear in silence cruel wrongs, but to accept a mission from a Government that inspires me with neither esteem nor confidence."

In less than a month Cavour was again Premier. The Congress never assembled, but by the end of March, 1860, the populations of Parma, Modena, the Romagna, and Tuscany, taking matters into their own hands, voted to annex themselves to Piedmont. Thus was formed the kingdom of Italy, numbering about eleven million souls. Hardly had this been achieved ere Nice and Savoy had to be ceded to France. Napoleon had made this an indispensable condition of his war upon Austria. He carried out only half of his contract, but he demanded payment in full. There were not wanting those who accused Cavour of treachery because he had agreed to this sacrifice. No Italian could see with pleasure a slice of Italian territory cut off and given to France. Most vehement in denouncing this transaction was Garibaldi, a Nizzan by birth. He openly reviled Cavour, who, however, was too true a patriot to allow his personal feelings to retaliate upon one who might be useful to Italy; and his shrewdness in helping Garibaldi during the Sicilian campaign is as commendable as his generous attempt to conciliate the honest but impetuous free-lance.

Cavour's management throughout that romantic expedition long ago took its place among the triumphs of diplomacy. He could not officially abet an attack upon the kingdom of Naples, with which Piedmont was nominally at peace; but how could he be blamed should a privateer elude the vigilance of the Piedmontese coast-guard and sail for Sicily? On April 24, 1860, Cavour, expecting to be forced to resign, owing to the odium the cession of Nice had brought upon him, wrote to Farini in regard to the formation of a new Cabinet; on the night of May 5 Garibaldi embarked with his "Thousand" on the steamers *Piemonte* and *Lombardi;* thenceforward there was no hint of Cavour's retirement. "You will remain a stranger to all that may refer to the landing of the Garibaldians," he telegraphed to the Piedmontese naval commander at Palermo; and these instructions summarize his policy during the following months.

It is unnecessary to mention, even briefly, Garibaldi's brilliant and victorious march from the time he landed at Marsala until, having con-

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quered Sicily, he crossed over to the mainland to put to rout the Bourbon King near Naples. The regular Italian army, having marched by way of Ancona, reached Naples in time to congratulate the red-shirted heroes upon their victory on the Volturno. Through the summer months Cavour prepared for the final result—the annexation of the Neapolitan kingdom. Yet he never felt sure that Garibaldi, intoxicated with success, would not attempt to establish a Mazzinian republic in the South.

"He has a generous character," Cavour wrote to an intimate friend on July 12, "and poetic instincts, but at the same time his is a savage nature upon which certain impressions leave ineffaceable traces. The cession of Nice has deeply wounded him; he regards it up to a certain point as a personal injury; he will never pardon us. His rancor is embittered by the recollection of the struggles he has had to sustain in Central Italy with Fanti and Farini. So that I think he wishes to overturn the Ministry as much as to expel the Austrians. The King (Victor Emmanuel) preserves a certain influence over him, but he could not use it in our favor. He would simply waste it, which would be a great misfortune, for this influence may prove to be our only anchor of safety."

Cavour very dexterously made his fear of Garibaldi's extravagance an excuse for sending the Sardinian army across Papal territory. On October 2, 1860, the Premier told the deputies in the Chamber at Turin: "Garibaldi wishes to perpetuate the revolution; we wish to terminate it." But fortunately common sense and patriotism prevailed with the hero of Sicily, who, upon meeting Victor Emmanuel, saluted him "King of Italy."

In this volume we look in vain for letters throwing light upon Cavour's private life at this time, but this was to be expected. From the day when he and Napoleon made their secret compact at Plombières until Bomba was expelled from Naples, Cavour's vast energy was directed to public affairs. Even during his months of seclusion, after the peace of Villafranca, his mind was too busy with Italy to allow him to write upon personal topics. He was, indeed, too busy to have confidences even for his most intimate friends. But, scattered through these letters, are occasional criticisms of his contemporaries, or reflections upon events, which make us regret that he had not time to devote himself to writing a chronicle of the great movement in which he was a chief actor. He calls Gladstone "the only statesman who has never sacrificed liberal and generous ideas to a mean patriotism, and to the prejudices of his own party." Of Gioberti, who dedicated his works to Cavour, he said: "Politically, although I have not always shared his opinions, although I have at times deplored a certain lack of practicalness, I have always admired in him the superior man, who, illumined by genius, knew how to indicate the only road that could lead our country to salvation." Again, he wrote to Buloz, editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes:* "Please thank M. de Mazade for what he said pleasant about me in his last Review; assuring him that if I am really less revolutionary than the Clericals assert, I have not more taste for ministerial despotism, whatever they may say who do not understand the force one acquires when one sums up the sentiments and opinions of the great majority of the nation." Just before the outbreak of the Solferino campaign he wrote to E. d'Azeglio in these courtly terms about Massimo d'Azeglio: "He is, so to speak, the author and father of the Italian Question. His name exerts a great prestige. Several times the Emperor Napoleon, to persuade me, has cited passages from Azeglio's books. Count Walewski himself has sometimes invoked his authority to support his opinion. In England, Massimo is considered, so far as concerns the practical, infinitely superior to me."

SOME RECENT BOOKS ON GEOLOGY.

A First Book in Geology, designed for the Use of Beginners. By N. S. Shaler, S. D., Professor of Palæontology in Harvard University. Pp. 328. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1884.

The Student's Handbook of Physical Geology. By A. J. Jukes-Browne, of the Geological Survey of England and Wales. Pp. 514. London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1884.

Geology and Mineral Resources of the James River Valley, Virginia, U. S. A., with Map and Geological Sections. By J. L. Campbell, LL.D., Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Va. Pp. 110. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In any scientific text-book for the use of schoolchildren there should be as much of clear demonstrable fact and as little of theory as possible. It is also of the first importance that everything which purports to be a statement of fact should be made with the utmost care, excluding all that is doubtful or merely hypothetical. What children learn at an early age they are apt to retain most tenaciously, and errors thus early imbibed are almost sure to prove most mischievous in later education. Professor Shaler has recognized both of these principles in theory. "It will not do," he says, "to force such conceptions [referring to glacial hypotheses]; for the youthful mind is more impatient of an illy-demonstrated conclusion than the trained logician." Again, in speaking of Mercator's projections, he remarks: "The world will always be out of joint to a person who has had them impressed on his mind in youth." Unfortunately he has not borne these principles constantly in mind. His book is crowded with theory, which limitations of space compel him to demand shall be taken on faith. The nebular hypothesis, the theory of evolution, the mechanical theory of volcanoes, and many more, form a rather large proportion of "illy-demonstrated conclusions" in 250 small pages. Then, again, there are many statements which are either altogether inaccurate or at best very doubtful. We can mention only a few examples of what the book unhappily abounds in. On p. 99 the statement is gravely made that half the earth's heat comes from the fixed stars—a doctrine which the astronomers and physicists at present reject almost unanimously, yet which is here given to children as if no one could possibly question it. Less glaring examples are very frequent, as the statements that the edge of the continental platform is a shelf built by the tide, that there have *certainly* been many glacial periods, and much of the chapter on ocean currents.

In its biological portions the book is especially weak. The old classification is retained, ignoring all that zoölogists have accomplished in the last half century. Sponges are put among the Protozoa, although their structure violates every item of the author's definition. The statement that sperm-whales are the degenerate descendants of bear-like forms should never be put in an elementary book, being something more than doubtful. Professor Shaler's way of dealing with evolution is singularly unhappy, as it constantly tends to the impression that animals advance in structure by *consciously* striving to improve their condition. On page 217 the scholar is told that pine trees first appeared in the Trias; in fact, they began in the Devonian, and were abundant in the Carboniferous forests. Fig. 103 purports to give the feet of *Tertiary* mammals, whereas all but one of the drawings refer to living animals—the tapir, rhinoceros, and bear. On the same page we find the remark that the feet of the early Tertiary ungulates "seem to be better fitted for tree-climbing than anything else," a statement which is simply ludicrous. On page 117 the scholar is told that Niagara Falls are receding at the rate of four feet per century, on p. 204 that the rate is fifty feet per century.

These defects are the more to be deplored as the book contains much that is good. The descriptions of the simpler phenomena of rain, wind, etc., the chapters on sand, mud, and pebbles, as well as the directions to teachers, are excellent. But the erroneous and doubtful statements are so numerous that we fear the book will prove more mischievous than useful except in the hands of unusually careful and competent teachers.

Mr. Jukes-Browne has attempted to write a trustworthy handbook of physical geology on a different plan and of more modest pretensions than the text-books of Geikie and Green. On the whole he has succeeded admirably, and has produced a book that will be useful to teachers and students the world over. The plan followed is simpler and more logical than those of the admirable works of Geikie and Green already referred to, and to that degree better for beginners. The treatment is also excellent for the most part, the chapters on the influence of surface agencies and on petrology being among the best we have ever seen in a text-book. As is altogether proper in a book intended for use in Great Britain, most of the illustrations and examples are taken from those islands; but, following the lead of Dr. Geikie, the author has chosen material from the geologically known world, instead of adhering to the time-honored custom of his country of ignoring all other lands and the work of all but British geologists.

Mr. Jukes-Browne has not succeeded in producing a book without some defects. He gives no theory of volcanic action, and, strange to say, omits almost all mention of geysers. The chapter on igneous rocks, written by Professor Bonney, is not nearly so clear and well adapted to students' needs as the corresponding chapter in Green's book. Finally, Mr. Jukes-Browne has adopted some of Mr. Fisher's views on the physics of the earth's crust without sufficient critical examination. The figures are for the most part badly executed, and the restoration of encrinites (fig. 62 b) positively misleading. However, in spite of all these drawbacks, the book is a most useful one, and can be earnestly commended to American as well as English teachers.

Professor Campbell's work consists of a survey along the line of the Richmond and Allegheny R. R., undertaken to show the mineral resources, chiefly in iron ores, of the James River valley. The work seems to have been well and carefully done, and shows that this region is very rich in ores and may well become an important iron-producing district. Besides this the survey is a welcome addition to our knowledge of Virginian geology, and is accompanied by a good geological map.

The Creoles of Louisiana. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

Mr. Cable has, in this work, provided a background of fact for the remarkable series of fictions by which he has given the Louisiana Creole a picturesque individuality in our complex American life. It was very fitting that the same hand which gave us the 'Grandissimes,' 'Old Creole Days,' 'Madame Delphine,' and 'Doctor Sevier,' should now round out and complete the work by a history of New Orleans and the adjacent territory, which form the habitat of the Creole. If we miss in it the former sense of discovery, of introduction to a new world within our own borders, the loss is due to Mr. Cable's thorough treatment of his subject in the dress of fiction. With this latest addition, we have a complete series, such as hardly any other foreign ele-

ment in American life possesses—a series of fictions, treated with consummate art, and illustrating the inner life of the Creole, together with an excellent historical development as a foundation. The only drawback to our satisfaction is the apprehension that the appearance of this work is an announcement that the field in which the author won his reputation is exhausted.

New Orleans has already proved inviting ground for historians, and has been a puzzle to all of them. It is not easy to see why Bienville pitched upon this spot in 1718 as the site of the chief city of Louisiana. A location only ten feet out of the water at the river bank, sloping rapidly away from it to the sea level, subject to almost yearly floods, and fully a hundred miles above the mouth of a river whose current seemed to be an almost insuperable barrier to vessels until steam navigation was introduced—what more unpromising location could have been suggested for a great commercial city? All subsequent history has vindicated the foresight of Bienville; New Orleans has as yet no dangerous rival among the more favorably located cities of the Southwest. Her disadvantages, and her struggles against them, have only made her history more attractive. The story of the settlement of Louisiana, of its Indian wars, of its vicissitudes under Ulloa, Aubry, and O'Reilly, of its transfer from France to Spain, from Spain back to France, and from France to the United States, is told again by Mr. Cable, without any striking novelty, but with a grace of statement which comes more naturally from him than from Gayarré, Martin, or any other Louisiana historians who have preceded him.

Mr. Cable has succeeded in giving his work a value of its own by holding it closely to the governing idea of the entire series. As a history of the Louisiana Creoles, and only incidentally of Louisiana or of New Orleans, it occupies a field in which it will not find a competitor. The mingled sluggishness and vivacity of the Creole, his fanatical devotion to personal liberty, as he has understood it, his hopeless inability to comprehend the Spanish and American systems under which he has been forced to live, and the influences which have so completely stranded this race on the shore of an alien civilization—all these are topics whose discussion is to the author a labor of love, and he has left little or nothing for any gleaner. It is an advantage to him that he adds race difference to his natural genius for analysis of character, so that he is both outside and inside of Creole life, while he has an unusual power, as all his readers know, of making his readers see things as clearly as he sees them. In the form of this work he has secured another advantage by retaining as an historian much of the vividness which is the privilege of the novelist. There are not many histories, for example, in which we can find such a word-painting as this description of Louisiana scenery:

"In the last hour of day these scenes are often illuminated with an extraordinary splendor. From the boughs of the dark, broad-spreading live-oak and the phantom-like arms of lofty cypresses, the long motionless pendants of pale, gray moss point down to their inverted images in the unruffled waters beneath them. Nothing breaks the widespread silence. The light of the declining sun at one moment brightens the tops of the cypresses, at another glows like a furnace behind their black branches, or, as the voyager reaches a western turn of the bayou, swings slowly round and broadens down in dazzling crimsons and purples upon the mirror of the stream. Now and then, from out some hazy shadow, a heron, blue or white, takes silent flight, an alligator crossing the stream sends out long, tinted bars of widening ripple, or on some high, fire-blackened tree a flock of roosting vultures, silhouetted on the sky, linger with half-opened, unwilling wing, and flap away by ones and twos until the tree is bare."

Using all his advantages to the full, Mr. Cable has given us an exceedingly attractive piece of work. There is, nevertheless, a feeling of shortcoming, if not of failure, as he approaches and reaches contemporary events, in his careful avoidance of some topics which perhaps required delicate handling, though his hand does not lack the necessary delicacy. Such earlier episodes as those of Jean Lafitte and the Barataria pirates are well told. Parton's assertions that Gen. Benjamin F. Butler purified New Orleans and banished cholera and yellow fever from it for the time of his supremacy there are flatly contradicted, and apparently with good reason. Why could not Mr. Cable have hazarded the story of reconstruction? Hahn and Warmoth, William Pitt Kellogg, and Percy Bysshe Shelley Pinchback, embalmed to immortality in his pages, would have been a most valuable social authority to the future historian. Mr. Cable has, perhaps wisely, avoided such topics; and, as a history of New Orleans since 1861, the work is worthless. As a history of New Orleans down to 1861, it is useful and valuable. As a history of the Louisiana Creoles, it is unique and of the highest interest and importance.

It is to be regretted that the publishers have disfigured the book by giving it a binding which is a cross between the covers of the Bodley series and a severe attack of erysipelas. The intending purchaser will find the inside far better than the outside.

Letters of the Rev. J. B. Mozley, D.D. Edited by his Sister. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1885.

THE Oxford movement must be regarded as the purest religious revival of the century. It was involved somewhat intricately with matters distinctly intellectual, with questions of history, exegesis, evidence, and the whole varied region of the logic of theology; but at the core, especially if attention be fixed on the development of its great leader's character, it was a thing of the spirit. The memorials of those most closely engaged in it have thus an interest outside of the church circles to which they are more particularly addressed, and are a subject of intellectual curiosity, at least, to all who take pains to observe religious phenomena merely as such. Doctor Mozley, whose letters from boyhood to old age are published in this volume, was one of the inner circle whose members were affectionately bound to Newman; he was, in fact, his protégé, a faithful disciple, a son of his genius. The letters written under the influence of such a master at the time of exciting and now historic events, might be expected to throw light on the course of the movement, and to reveal its spirit with more certainty and clearness and warmth than any reminiscences such as Doctor Mozley's brother published some three years ago. This is by no means the case. The substance of the correspondence consists of the practical details, the external facts, what we should call the agitation. Of the religious experience and ardor which were the secret of Newman's personal power, and which one would think his young disciples ought to have shared to some extent, there is no positive sign. Throughout the whole volume, too, this is the general character of the letters; they are about affairs, not about thought, and although toward the end there is occasionally something intellectual, something of more interest than elections, examinations, gatherings of the black and red gowns, dinners, editorial perplexities, and the like, yet the correspondence, as a whole, concerns practical matters, such as made the staple of conversation at a table of Oxford fellows.

This is of itself not without significance. It has been remarked by some writer whose name escapes our memory, that the Tractarian movement was twin in high life to the Wesleyan revival in low life. There is some truth in the comparison made; and it brings out, by the fact that Newman came so long after Wesley and that as a propagandist he failed, the extraordinary immovability of thought and conscience in the mass of the clergy of the English Church and those nearest to them socially. Doctor Mozley writes in reference to George Eliot's delineations in 'Middlemarch': "I think her enmity to the middle classes must be partly from the fixity of their belief—being the class of all society least open to the disturbing force of new ideas, whether of belief or morals." He would not have put himself among these unchanging bondmen of the commonplace, but he nevertheless illustrates that fixity, not of belief but of nature and tradition, which has preserved England not only from the "red fool-fury of the Seine," but from the pietism of the Tiber. He had from a child the traits of his countrymen—a little slow, a little irascible, more than a little jealous for his individuality; but, in particular, he had a practical bent. He passed under the strong, direct, affectionate influence of a great spiritualist, and became one of the implicitly-trusted few, the recognized band that was to guard and spread the faith; and when the great division came, he parted from Newman and he diverged from the Puseyites. At the end he became an Oxford professor, and published volumes whose distinctive characteristic is the intellectual force of their theologizing, not any purity or insight or depth of spirit. The power exhibited is mentally the same shown in the administration say of a college; it is not religious power at all. The character of his own intelligence, its definiteness, grasp, and certainty, is hinted by his remark on Maurice: "Maurice, as I said, gives soirées which are generally attended by some twenty of the younger clergy. He sits at a table with a Bible, and is asked questions upon difficulties, etc. His general line is to resolve everything into vagueness." The tone is plainly one of tolerant and amused scorn. Perhaps Maurice was nearer of the two to Newman in his original religious endowment. But with such minds as Mozley's (with a tendency to drowsiness under sermons, we are told), so essentially practical that his letters through a lifetime show, speaking broadly, neither habitual devoutness nor ready and apprehensive intelligence except for logical distinctions—with such minds as Mozley's, we say, for the most promising converts in the leadership of a great spiritual revival, how could Newman find any other fate than the isolation of a rejected and sterile prophet? We mean no disrespect to Mozley's character: both in heart and brain he was of the kind called sterling; but he was not of the stuff to continue the work of a St. Francis or St. Dominic. He was merely typical, and is so referred to here; there was not in England any material for a Newman brotherhood. In going to Rome, Newman forfeited his peculiar mission—he was lost in the institution; but such a volume as this makes it clear that he was fleeing from a wilderness and solitude into the retreat of peace.

La Navarre Française. Par M. G. B. de Lagrèze. 2 vols., 8vo. Paris, à l'Imprimerie Nationale. 1881-2. Firmin-Didot.

THIS is one of the books which we rarely receive except from France—works which present the results of conscientious research, clearly and systematically arranged, with due attention to literary form. Tireless investigation among mouldy archives and dusty MSS. has not dulled the animation of the writer, and his book is fresh not only in material, but in manner.

The subject is one of rare interest, not only for the historian, but for the student of constitution-

al history, of legislation, and of social organization. Into this little kingdom, nestling between sea and mountain, there has drifted a strange admixture of races. There alone the primitive Iberian has preserved the purity of his blood and speech among the successive waves of Celtic, Roman, Gothic, Frankish, and Saracenic conquest, each of which has left its residuum behind. There first was constitutional monarchy discovered and established on so firm a basis of popular liberty that, in an age of despotism, the Navarrese could dare say to the most splendid despot of the time, Louis XIV.: "Chez nous le roi n'est que la créature de ses sujets." There, too, were tried experiments in jurisprudence so varied that not only had the kingdom its general *fuero* or body of customary law, but each town claimed the right to its own *fuero*, and even certain old houses enjoyed until '89 the privilege of special laws. As a Basque proverb says, "Each country has its laws and each house its customs." Such a body of legislation, running back to the Fuero Juzgo, or Romance version of the Gothic Code, cannot but contain much that is of the highest interest in illustrating the development of European institutions, the progress of civilization, and the history of morals and manners.

Accordingly, although M. de Lagrèze's first volume is attractive in its presentation of the geography, anthropology, and history of Navarre, it is to the second that the student will turn with greater eagerness, for there he will find the results of original researches into documents and charters, mostly unpublished, giving us a fairly complete picture of Navarrese institutions at successive epochs. The author has not contented himself with merely printing the documents: he has analyzed and coördinated them and arranged their provisions systematically, so that on any given subject we have all accessible information grouped together and presented clearly and succinctly. Thus there is a large amount of curious material brought before us which will well repay the investigator of politics and of sociology.

Turning, for instance, to the chapter on marriage, we meet with conditions wholly unexpected in mediæval Christendom. To the law, wedlock is simply a civil contract: the Church has nothing to do with it, no sacrament is required to give it validity, nor are the questions connected with it subject to the spiritual courts. A simple declaration in the presence of witnesses suffices; but, as in other contracts of the period, both parties give security for the faithful performance of the engagement entered into. Like other contracts, moreover, it can be broken, and a divorce obtained simply by paying a legal fine to the seigneur. There are traces, also, of the prehistoric custom of purchasing wives, in the payment made by the groom to the parents of the bride; while perhaps a survival of polygamy may be indicated in the custom by which the husband was not bound to fidelity beyond the confines of the town in which the couple resided. Other regulations of extreme crudity show to how late a period barbarism continued to dictate the relations between the sexes. It was not until the twelfth century was near its end that the Church made a serious endeavor to control the conditions and the celebration of matrimony. The struggle was long. At length it succeeded, when we find the payment for a bride replaced by the dower which she was expected to bring her husband, together with a *trousseau* the details of which were carefully prescribed.

Thus are passed successively in review all the leading features of civil and criminal law on which the structure of human society is based. As might be expected, much that is quaint and peculiar manifests itself in a jurisprudence which, as in that of all uncultivated peoples, is not content with laying down general principles, but seeks to provide for every special case. We may conclude with an illustration of the symbolical punishments so dear to the mediæval sense of justice. The penalty for the stealing of a cat directs the owner to tie around its neck a cord the length of the outspread hand, attaching the other end to a nail fixed in the ground, in the centre of a level space of which the circumference was nine times the length of the cord. The culprit was then obliged to cover the cat completely with newly-ground meal, which was divided in due proportion between the seigneur justicier and the cat-owner. If, however, the offender was too poor to furnish the meal, then the cat was suspended by a cord around his neck on his naked shoulders, and was smartly struck to incite it to lacerate him with claws and teeth.

A Skeleton Outline of Greek History. By Evelyn Abbott, M.D., LL.D.—*A Skeleton Outline of Roman History.* By P. E. Matheson, M.A. London: Rivingtons.

THESE skeleton outlines are in every way admirable compilations. Mr. Abbott's book (upon Greece), besides a very full chronology, contains tables of kings, an account of the calendar, and excellent sketches of the constitutions of Athens and Lacedæmon. We notice that he considers (p. 151) the four tribes and the three classes of Athens to have alike embraced the whole body of the citizens. We incline, on the other hand, with Curtius, to regard the *Eupatridæ* as consisting of all the members of the four Ionic tribes (being thus the equivalent of the Roman patricians), the *Geomori* and *Demiurgi* being the citizens of later origin, like the Roman plebeians. Mr. Matheson's book is exclusively a chronology: we wish very much that he had made it as large as Mr. Abbott's by the addition of a sketch of the Roman Constitution, for his brief notes show that he understands the subject. Even as it is, it will be found a very useful guide in the study of the Roman Constitution.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, I. N. The Life of Abraham Lincoln. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Blind, Mathilde. Tarantella: a Romance. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.
Brinkermann, F. Syntax des Französischen und Englischen in vergleichender Darstellung. Braunschweig: F. Vieweg und Sohn.
Clevenger, Dr. S. V. Comparative Physiology and Psychology. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.
Harper's New Monthly Magazine. Vol. LXVIII. December, 1883, to May, 1884. Vol. LXIX. May, 1884, to December, 1884. Harper & Brothers.
Harper's Weekly for 1884. Vol. XXVIII. Harper & Bros.
Harper's Bazar for 1884. Vol. XVII. Harper & Bros.
Mailly, E. Histoire de l'Académie Impériale et Royale des Sciences et Belles-Lettres. 2 vols. Brussels.
Mombert, Dr. J. I. William Tyndale's Five Books of Moses, called the Pentateuch. A Verbatim Reprint of the Edition of 1530. Compared with Tyndale's Genesis of 1534, and the Pentateuch in the Vulgate, Luther, and Matthew's Bible. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $6.50.
Plunkett, Mrs. H. M. Women, Plumbers, and Doctors; or, Household Sanitation. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Proof Engravings from the *English Illustrated Magazine.* Macmillan & Co.
Rabbinowicz, Dr. I. M. The Part of Jesus and the Apostles. San Francisco: J. B. Golly & Co.
Reade, C. Under Which King? A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Richards, W. C. Science in Song, or Nature in Numbers. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Rohé, Dr. G. H. A Text-Book of Hygiene. Baltimore: Thomas & Evans.
Smart, A. Tie and Trick. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Spear, S. T. The Law of Extradition, International and State. With an Appendix. Second Edition. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. I.—Abbadie-Anne. Macmillan & Co.
Stormonth's English Dictionary. Parts 21-22. Unreprovable—Vultus est Index Animi. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Thieme-Preusser: New and Complete Critical Dictionary of the English and German Languages. Hamburg: Haendcke & Lehmkuhl; New York: B. Westermann & Co. $4.75.
Thamin, R. Un Problème Moral dans l'Antiquité. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Wiermann, H. Fürst Bismarck. Siebzig Jahre. 1815—1885. Leipzig. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Wilkinson, W. C. Edwin Arnold as Poetizer and as Paganizer. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Wright, F. A. Architectural Perspective for Beginners. W. T. Comstock.
Zache, C. R. Hero and Leander: a Poem. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Zschokke, J. H. D. Meditations on Life, Death, and Eternity. In two volumes. Phillips & Hunt. $1.60.

Fine Arts.

THE WATTS EXHIBITION.—IV.

AN eminent characteristic of the art of Mr. Watts, as of that of all the really great artists (as opposed to painting naturalists), is the possession as supreme quality of what artists call, with a kind of significance that belongs to technical terms, "keeping," and for which no other single word that we know is an exact equivalent. Every work of a truly creative artist is an organic whole—you feel it altogether or not at all, and the student who attempts to attack it in its details to find out what it is, is in the same maze as an anatomist who should attempt to investigate the principle of vitality by the dissection of a dead hand. Owing to the inherent insufficience of all the appliances of art, as well as to the limitations of human life and labor, no work of the painter can be carried to completion in all its parts to the extent of making each part a perfect thing. It is difficult to explain the reasons for this to those who are not acquainted with great art in an intimate degree, but it probably lies in the fact that a painter of the true synthetic temper studies everything he does as a whole, and makes it a whole, and complete as such, from its very earliest stages. We remember to have heard Th. Rousseau say, that "if your picture is not complete in the first five strokes of the pencil, it never will be complete"; and another side of the matter is presented in a saying of Eugène Delacroix, that he "had painted that hand [in one of his pictures] four times, and when it was painted the best it was the worst"—*i. e.*, when it was best as a study of a hand it was incongruous with the picture as a whole. And it is invariably true that if a work of art invites attention and admiration for the beauty or fidelity of certain details, it will be found destitute of "keeping," and will not make the impression as a complete work which it ought; and vice versa, of a complete work, the details will not be felt.

No better instances among modern work can be found of the extremes of this general truth than the pictures of Bouguereau and J. F. Millet; the first owing all their charm to qualities of detail, the second none to detail, but all to the unity of impression, the perfect spontaneousness, the harmony of lines and the subordination of masses. The analogies between the sister arts of painting and music fail us entirely here: music presents its parts to us successively—each chord is made perfect as it is struck, and each movement has a certain completeness in itself, at least so far that it can be followed and judged partially, and the general impression is one of memory in part. Nobody but a mere *phraseur* will pretend to a separate completeness of a movement or part of the complete work, and no true harmonist will attempt to give such completeness, nor can a work be judged as a whole until it is all heard. The same interdependence is true of painting; but in the picture it is the completeness of the work which first strikes the intelligent student, and only a jarring tint or form would divert his attention; in the latter case the impression is one of simultaneity, in the former of consecutiveness. Of course no analogy of this kind can be perfectly followed out; somewhere we find that each art is a fragment of a great circle, and the gap remains to be filled by theory, if at all—missing links are not infrequent.

But a picture can no more be judged by a part than a symphony, for, as in Delacroix's case, the incompleteness of a detail may be, in fact often is, in great practice, indispensable to the unity of the whole; and this, we venture to believe, will be felt most strongly in the case of Mr. Watts's pictures, as the essentially vulgar and trivial nature of those of his

antithesis, Bouguereau, will be felt in his admirably painted detail, which leaves no impression of the vital qualities of art. Take, for instance, Mr. Watts's No. 119, "The Rider on the Red Horse," which we regard as the most satisfactory of the color compositions in the collection (although not as a study of other qualities superior to several others), and of which, often as we have seen it with intense delight, we can recall no detail save the two points of color on which the whole arrangement turns—the flame-colored plume on the horse's head, and the steely glint of the half-drawn sword; the latter animating the entire composition, and relieving the fervidly warm glow of the whole by a weird unexpectedness, as a sudden partial discord might heighten a movement, in full harmony, of music. The red is the key of the color of the picture, the tempered blue its anti-climax. We select this especially as the example of "keeping" in color, as we do the "Paolo and Francesca" for composition of masses, because, in the former, color is dominant in its impressiveness, as the movement and swing of the floating figures swept by on the wind of the Inferno are in the latter. And the scheme of color in the two varies as does the theme. Note, again, the power of the strange green of the quiver of the horseman in No. 124, the "Rider on the White Horse" of the Revelation, amidst the gleaming colors of the attendant figures, like notes of martial music. Then another in the same series, the "Rider on the Black Horse," is in the most sombre scheme of color consistent with color in the truest sense of the term, so that the wan yellow of the rider's sleeve and the gleam of blue gray in the sky seem to be positive colors; yet there is not a passage of absolute blackness, *i. e.*, colorlessness, in the picture. Then as an utter change, as complete as if another painter had done it, turn to the "Bianca," No. 101, a bit of brilliant blonde flesh and blood, with a power of color which reminds one of Rubens, and as vivacious and substantial as need be; though we prefer Watts's color when most his own and reminding us least of any other painter.

And in this respect, as well as for the study of "keeping" in execution—*i. e.*, the carrying *pari passu* of all parts of the picture toward that degree of finish which the painter judges fitting to his subject (in his own subject-pictures most elaborate in the least dignified subjects, *e. g.*, the dove picture, No. 136; while the more imaginative and loftier demand less, or even permit, any approach to realistic painting)—we shall find those of the pictures which are in an unfinished state giving their part of the value of the exhibition, while the "Paolo and Francesca" gives the full measure of realization which the artist thinks admissible in a subject which has all its value in the completeness and unity of its impression. And he shows throughout that determined avoidance of the display of facility which is nearly always characteristic of artists of the intellectual type, a contempt of the facile which it seems to us he carries in some cases, as in the "Love and Life," further than the subject demands—we should have been glad to see the Life carried further into the realm of realism, not like a nymph of Bouguereau, but nearer to solidity. That it was the artist's deliberate intention, however, to stop far short of this is clear, because he has shown elsewhere that he can paint flesh magnificently; but it is a question which the artist alone can determine, in what terms he shall express his ideas, and what compromise, if any, he shall establish between Art and Nature; and there is no doubt that a natural and explicable revolt against popular modes of execution has made Mr. Watts more determined than he would have been in other surroundings to avoid any appearance of leaning to them, even at the risk of a dryness which no one but an artist would entirely sympathize with.

Before leaving this subject of the harmonies we would note the "Diana and Endymion," which, in its lines and the disposition of its masses, reminds us of a Greek relief. The movement of the Diana, floating in the air, imponderable in spite of all its solid forms, is most remarkable. Kenyon Cox, in a recent admirable letter to the *Critic*, in alluding to Watts's drawing, says, "If he cannot draw as correctly as Gérôme, he can compose the lines of a figure much as Tintoretto might have done it," and this quality shows the nature of Watts's art just as his avoidance of Bouguereau's standard of execution does. He does not believe in the use of the model which Gérôme makes, nor could he ever have attained the quality of line which Mr. Cox rightly credits him with, if he had tried to find it in the model. Gérôme, or any other artist of his training and powers, would as vainly attempt to find the lines of the Diana or of the Paolo and Francesca by this method as they would those of the Lady of Beauty of Milo. It is a kind of drawing not to be got from the model, but from the kind of knowledge which is born of the pursuit of the ideal by the *aid of*, but not *in*, the model; and this is true of Millet's "Sower" and "Gleaner," as of the "Diana" and "Francesca," as it is true of all the great Greek work. Mr. Watts may be unable to draw a good academic figure—as to this we cannot speak, never having seen an attempt of his to do so—but that any attempt to do so in such pictures as these we mention, in the Orpheus, the Ariadne, the Eve pictures, and others of their type, would have been entirely destructive of the unity of his pictures, we are confident. Even in Greek sculpture this academic fidelity was never attained until the decline of art and the loss of the ideal faculties.

Mr. Cox has also said wisely of the allegory of those pictures, "It is not that that is the picture; it is rather a peg to hang the picture on." We must judge them as art, not as literature. But this is equally true, that to an artist of strong literary qualities, which Mr. Watts is, an intellectual theme may be the life-giving germ which his highest artistic faculties shall be enlisted to give form to—not merely the peg to hang the picture on; but in any case we judge the picture as such only. The good allegory of a bad painter has no value—if to a good painter it suggests a noble picture, it has done all that any theme can do. And one thing is certain, that no history, as history, or actual life as actuality, can be stated in terms of ideal art: the idealist, to find perfect liberty of treatment, goes to mythology—to classical life—to allegory—to absolute invention, if he is capable of it; anywhere out of the range and limitation of the actual, and the life of which we know the details and accessories. When we hear a critic decry the art which has no modern sympathies, and demand that it find its inspiration in the tubular-tile and straight-jacket garb of contemporary civilization, and maunder against "mediævalism" and heathen mythology, we may at once understand that he knows nothing of pure art or its relations to the ideal, and that he is not sufficiently advanced in study to distinguish between the peg and the art that is hung on it. The highest art is only found in perfect liberty, and that is very rarely consistent with contemporary subject.

Visitors to the Watts Exhibition will find the special catalogue with Mrs. Barrington's record of Watts's ideas on art a most useful guide in the exhibition. It is true, as Mr. Cox has said, that "whatever can be put into a catalogue is not the real subject of any picture worth painting"; but what an artist thinks concerning the subject of his own art, of his own pictures, or of the themes which suggested them, is always of interest to the genuine student of art. The museum authorities having refused to publish Mrs. Barrington's catalogue, the Committee to whom we are indebted for the exhibition has undertaken it at its own expense. The profits, if any, will go to meet the expenses of getting the pictures out and home again.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 29, 1885.

The Week.

THE success of the dynamite explosion in London is raising the question in many minds, and among them, we are informed, that of the Chief of our own detective force here, whether there is not something wrong with the London police. They have made one good stroke, since the alarm about dynamite began, in the discovery of a criminal laboratory in Birmingham, but only one. Such daring crimes as the explosion in the Government offices in Downing Street, the explosion under London Bridge, and the explosions on Saturday in the Parliament houses and the Tower, are unquestionably the work of a body of conspirators containing more than one, two, or three members. Their number is probably considerable, and they are well supplied with funds. They are engaged, too, in crimes for which the whole police force of Great Britain has been on the watch for two years. That in all this time no detective should have been able to get track of them, although they belong to the very leakiest class of criminals in the world, is something marvellous. There is one difficulty which may in some degree account for it, and that is that against Irish conspirators only Irish detectives can be employed, on account of the accent. Englishmen for this particular service are worthless. So that one can hardly help asking whether the Government is able to procure faithful service in this matter from Irishmen—that is, whether the fear of assassination or secret sympathy of its Irish agents with the men whom they are sent to pursue, is not doing a good deal for the success of the criminals. The situation is undoubtedly the most puzzling one with which any civilized government has had to deal, and one can hardly help fearing that it may lead to outbursts of savage fury on the part of Englishmen against the Irish population of the English towns.

The bill introduced into the State Senate on Monday, directed against the criminal use of dynamite, is likely to be more effective than Senator Edmunds's, in that it makes it a felony "to contribute or solicit money or other property for the sale, transportation, or use" of explosive compounds, knowing or having reason to believe that they are intended to be used for the unlawful destruction of life or property. But why should it not be made a felony to solicit or contribute money for any unlawful purpose, outside the State? Why confine this provision to the purchase of explosive compounds, when money is and has long been openly raised in this State for the purpose of paying the expenses of assassins, or of defending them if caught? Of course we do not believe that the State Bill, if passed, will be any more operative than Mr. Edmunds's bill. Both, we presume, are intended rather to show people in England that Americans feel sorry for them, than to reduce Ford and O'Donovan to harmlessness.

Unfortunately, at this most puzzling crisis, American legislators receive little or no help from the English press. Most of what is written in London about the responsibility of the United States, is apparently written by men who have no knowledge of the laws or Constitution of the United States. Even those who have some idea of the way in which criminal jurisdiction is divided in this country between the Federal and State Governments, and of the nature of American criminal procedure, appear to be under the impression that in all parts of the country acknowledged defects in penal legislation are occasionally remedied by lynch law; and that if the American imagination in New York can only be sufficiently impressed with the atrocity of O'Donovan's and Ford's offences, they may be punished by riot. In fact, among a large body of educated Englishmen there is a slumbering and somewhat vague belief that nearly every official in the United States, occasionally and on a pinch, exercises despotic power. The *Pall Mall Gazette* alone among the London newspapers appears to have kept its head clear. It ridicules the notion that protection from the dynamiters can be secured by American legislation, or by anything but increased vigilance on the part of the English police. It deprecates especially all displays of frantic terror or rage on the part of the English public; a very shrewd remark, because this terror and rage are the very things the dynamiters seek to produce. But over and above all this, the English public need to comprehend the condition of American opinion about the Irish question. They must not take the horror inspired by these outrages, or the dislike of the Irish which is to be found among the well-to-do classes in the great cities on the coast, as indications that the great bulk of the American people think well of the way in which Irish grievances are met and dealt with.

We observe with much interest that all the leading Blaine papers of the late campaign, the *Tribune*, Boston *Journal*, Philadelphia *Press*, and Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, can hardly find words strong enough to express their abhorrence of the Irish wretches who are responsible for the dynamite explosions in London. They approve warmly of the action which the Senate has taken, and some of them go further and hope that the House will pass a resolution similar to Senator Bayard's. This action "would not be amiss," says the Philadelphia *Press*—"not that the judgment of any American body could be in doubt; not that there is any foundation for the charge that this crusade is fostered on American soil with American toleration; but these are crimes against civilization, and it is well that the universal abhorrence should find not only public but official utterance." Oh, yes, there is foundation for the charge that "this crusade is fostered on American soil with American toleration," esteemed contemporary, and it can be found in the columns of your own paper and in those of all your Blaine associates whom we have enumerated. Every one of you gave the crusade American toleration when you welcomed the coöperation of Patrick Ford and the *Irish World* in your effort to elect Blaine. You knew what he was just as well then as you do now. You knew that the business of his newspaper was the collection of money for dynamite outrages and for the protection of assassins. You knew that in the same issues of his paper in which he was supporting Blaine he was announcing every week contributions to his "Emergency Fund," and was openly avowing the object of that fund to be dynamite warfare on England. Knowing all this, you quoted from his paper with admiring comments. Mr. Halsted telegraphed long extracts from it to his paper in Cincinnati, and spoke of it as "doing splendid work for Blaine."

This was not mere toleration—it was direct encouragement. It was the first time in its history that the *Irish World* had received respectful recognition from decent Americans. Its editor was greatly delighted with it, and went forward in his dynamite work with renewed vigor. Who can say that these very London outrages, which are exciting the horror of Christendom, were not planned during the Blaine campaign—planned, too, with the expectation that Blaine would be elected and would adopt a policy which would be in sympathy with them? That his Irish supporters believed he would adopt such a policy as President, cannot be denied. That was the sole ground for their support of him, and the Blaine editors who are now rolling their eyes in horror were doing everything in their power to strengthen the belief. Blaine himself encouraged that belief, and after the election publicly thanked Ford and the other dynamite Irish leaders for "their strong and valuable support." Of all the demagogic proceedings of this prince of charlatans, this Irish phase of his campaigning was the most disreputable and unscrupulous.

The President has evidently made up his mind to abandon all further pretence of being a friend of civil-service reform. His appointments of Carpenter to be Governor of Montana, and Mr. Davis to be a Judge of the Court of Claims, are now followed by that of Andrew S. Draper as a Judge of the Court of Commissioners of *Alabama* Claims. Mr. Draper has no other qualification for the place than is to be found in his steadfast friendship for the President, and his zealous efforts to advance the latter's political fortunes. It begins to look as if the President were going to devote himself, during the closing weeks of his term, to putting his favorites into as comfortable places as he can find for them. The prospect is not reassuring, for, by delaying unreasonably, a large number of appointments he has now many vacancies awaiting action, and the samples of friends which he has already given us are not of the most encouraging character. This *Alabama* Claims vacancy has been existing for two months, although the President was aware that it was of the utmost importance to have it filled at

once. There are many other such cases, and the President's delay in filling them, coupled with the character of his appointments when he does take action, are calculated to detract seriously from what would otherwise be a very creditable administrative record.

The published testimony taken in relation to certain alleged improper allowances, in the office of the First Comptroller of the Treasury, of accounts pertaining to the Department of Justice shows, among other things, how utterly meaningless are letters of recommendation, and with what recklessness they are furnished by politicians to those seeking a Government place. It will be remembered that an open letter was addressed to the President last October by a Mr. Barker, who had then recently resigned a clerkship in the Treasury Department, containing charges of systematic frauds in the adjustment of accounts by the First Comptroller. Barker's evidence before the committee appointed to investigate the charges was very materially injured by proof of his bad reputation for truth and veracity. Among those who testified to Mr. Barker's bad character was S. J. Crawford, a former Governor of Kansas, who declared that his reputation had been such in that State for the past ten years that he would not believe him on oath. The ex-Governor had to admit, however, on cross-examination, that only last July he wrote a letter to the Secretary of the Interior to the effect that Mr. Barker would, without doubt, give good satisfaction and make an efficient officer if appointed a pension examiner. He added that this letter was written because he was led to believe that Barker was trying to reform; and when asked, "Reform from what?" he replied, "From a consummate liar to a man of truth, and from a thief to an honest man." The whole testimony of the witness is that in Kansas, where Barker had lived, he had never heard him mentioned but in an unfavorable way. The letter, as he took pains to point out to the committee, contained nothing concerning Barker's character. It would seem that, in Mr. Crawford's opinion, one need have no character to be a pension examiner. If he is active and efficient, and not, like the little girl student of the catechism, "past redemption," he will do very well.

The death in Canada of "Tom" Fields leaves Sweeney, at present wandering somewhere in Europe, and Oakey Hall in London, the only conspicuous members of the Tweed Ring who still survive. Fields was one of the boldest thieves of the lot. He entered politics through Tammany Hall early in life, and won a deservedly high reputation for ability to make large sums of money out of every office which he held. He served as Public Administrator of this city, Assemblyman, State Senator, Police Commissioner, Park Commissioner, and Corporation Attorney, and in each of these positions he added largely to his growing private fortune. It is said of him that he made the office of Corporation Attorney "worth" $100,000 a year. His most notorious piece of robbery was in originating and collecting, by means of bills passed through the Legislature by bribery, two sets of alleged "firemen's claims" which were entirely imaginary. Fields's share in this plunder was nearly $200,000. He was indicted for bribery in February, 1872, and when the trial came on in October of that year, he was not to be found. It was discovered that he had converted all his property into cash and negotiable securities, amounting to about $1,000,000, and had left the country and deserted his wife. He went first to Cuba, then to France, and then to Canada, where he lived in "princely style" until his death. Judgment was found against him by the city in 1873, for over a half million dollars, but his absence prevented any further action.

A professor of "fine work" in Chicago is an artist who handles election returns after the votes are cast, and makes the result more or less widely variant from the intention of the voters. The professors have been in practice a long time, with the view of finding out how much "fine work" the public will stand without resorting to a vigilance committee. Ordinary jury trials they have learned to despise, because ordinarily they make the juries themselves. But in the recent election they overpassed the line of safety by a hair, and the consequences have not been a vigilance committee and its attendant inconveniences, but, wonderful to relate, a legal investigation wholly beyond their control and outside of their comprehension. It appears that they had two jobs on hand last fall, one to elect Brand in place of Leman to the State Senate, and the other to secure by popular vote an appropriation of $100,000 for additional policemen—*i. e.*, for more places to be filled by their friends. The returns showed that the appropriation had been carried. The investigation of the Leman-Brand case led incidentally to a recount of the ballots cast for other persons and things, and the astounding discovery was made that the vote for the $100,000 appropriation was some 14,000 less than that returned for it, and that the majority was really against it. What else the investigation may show is not yet known, but it will probably show the doors of the penitentiary to some of the professors of fine work.

The Grand Jury investigation has yielded other curious results, not the least remarkable of which is the mathematical decision to bring in indictments against all judges of election whose returns vary more than 10 per cent. from the actual vote cast. Even after allowing this margin for pardonable error, indictments were found against sixty or seventy judges. The clerks of election were not indicted. There was much running to and fro among the election judges and their friends when the intentions of the Grand Jury became noised about, and strenuous efforts were made to save the more respectable of them from the disgrace of an indictment, but the Jury were inexorable. Any man who couldn't count votes so as to come within 10 per cent. of the true result, must pay a fine or stand trial, with the chance of going to jail. It is the common opinion that, except in a few glaring cases, the judges intended to do their work properly, but that they did it very carelessly, and that it is really necessary to "make an example" in order to secure better counting hereafter.

The deadlock in the Illinois Legislature, resulting from the attempt of Mr. Haines, the temporary Speaker of the House, to make himself permanent Speaker without the formality of an election, has been broken by his voluntary retirement from the chair, after presiding for two weeks over a pandemonium of his own making. Haines was elected as an Independent in a strong Republican county. Finding himself the balance of power in an equally divided House—the membership consisting of 37 Republicans and 37 Democrats, and Haines—he made his trade with the Democrats and was elected temporary Speaker by their votes. The understanding was that he should then vote for a straight Democrat for permanent Speaker. Both parties had had experience of him as a slippery customer in former Legislatures, and neither would trust him implicitly. But nobody had anticipated the full measure of his resources as the weasel of Illinois politics. Seated in the Speaker's chair, he coolly called in question the right of the House to make two elections of Speaker at the same session. According to his interpretation of public law and parliamentary procedure, the House had exhausted its powers in that behalf when it had elected one Speaker—an abstract proposition not destitute of force, but which was rendered laughable by reason of the source from which it came. The House wasted little time in discussing first principles with Haines, but took steps to get rid of him in a parliamentary way by making the place too hot for him. Motions to adjourn, to call the roll, and other proceedings, commonly called filibustering, were rained upon him from day to day by both parties acting in concert, until he was forced to resign, when the Republicans promptly moved that Mr. Cronkrite, the Democratic nominee for permanent Speaker, be elected temporary Speaker in place of Haines, and the motion was carried unanimously.

Underlying this protracted contest over the Speakership is evidently some intrigue regarding the Senatorship, but what it may be is not quite clear. The great majority of Republican members are determined to stand by General Logan under all circumstances, and in this they are wise. A dicker by which they might possibly elect somebody whom they do not want, and whom the people do not want, would do them more harm than the election of a Democrat. General Logan was sacrificed in the late campaign on the altar of his party. He did not want to be Vice-President. He preferred to remain a Senator if he could not be President. He obeyed the imperious order of his party when he accepted the second place on the ticket. The ticket was beaten by the nomination of Blaine, and the same weakness which carried down the national ticket lost the Legislature of Illinois. Under such circumstances the party cannot abandon him without producing widespread demoralization.

Senator Hoar, in the course of his remarks at the memorial services in the Senate in honor of the late Senator Anthony, said: "He was

fortunate in his life. He lived and took a great part in great historic events in a great age. His Senatorial service corresponded almost exactly with the term of power enjoyed by the great party to which he belonged." Mr. Anthony was as fortunate in his death as he was in his life. He entered the Senate in 1859, when the Republican party was on the eve of coming into power, and he died in September, 1884, on the eve of his party's departure from power. He was, during his twenty-five years of public life, a Republican through and through. The idea of opposing the will of his party was to him something monstrous, and the Republicans who under any circumstances followed such a course, were in his opinion worthy of the severest reprobation. While a man of strong convictions and irreproachable character, he believed with all his heart in keeping his party in power by the use of all possible partisan means. In Rhode Island he built up a political machine which for compactness and efficiency had no superior anywhere, and even his warmest admirers are forced to admit that he used it to put into office and keep there some men whose qualifications for their positions were at least very doubtful. His partisanship grew more intense with age, and if he had lived to see his party overthrown, and himself deprived of the power of patronage, his life would have been very unhappy.

In the beginning of 1879 the Clearing-houses of New York and Boston passed a resolution that all balances should be paid in gold or legal-tender notes, and that silver dollars should be received only from depositors who would agree to receive silver in payment of their checks. This resolution remained in force in both cities until the passage of the act for renewing the charters of national banks some eighteen months ago. In this a proviso was inserted, on the motion of Senator Beck, of Kentucky, that no national bank should be a member of a clearing-house at which silver certificates were not received in payment of balances; silver certificates, by the way, not being legal tender. The New York Clearing-house thereupon simply rescinded its resolution of 1879. The Boston Clearing-house went a step further, and voted to receive silver certificates. Some of her more experienced and far-seeing financiers protested against this policy, and predicted that a time would come when New York funds would command a premium in Boston, since silver certificates were made bankable by affirmative action in the latter city, while in the former the question of receiving them was still in abeyance. The condition predicted has come to pass. New York exchange commands a premium of seventy-five cents per $1,000 in Boston, although the express charges for shipping currency are only 40 cents per $1,000. Of course, there is great indignation in Boston. The Treasury Department has simply taken Boston at her word, and paid her in the funds which she has elected to receive. Silver certificates have not been forced upon New York, because the Department has decided to fight off the silver crisis as long as possible, hoping that Congress may suspend the coinage and stop the wasteful expenditure which it involves. Washington despatches indicate that the Secretary of the Treasury will take steps, not to bring on the crisis by requiring the New York banks to take silver certificates, but to minimize the difficulty in Boston by restricting the payment of silver certificates there. This is, by all means, the wisest policy. Of course, such a step merely postpones the evil day, but it is the duty of the Secretary to postpone it, and to give the Administration of President Cleveland the opportunity to bring about a suspension of the silver coinage if it shall be able to do so.

The Tenement House Cigar Act, which the Court of Appeals have recently set aside as unconstitutional, has been very often discussed, and has been before the courts for not quite a year. A bill was passed last session, within a week or so of the Oleomargarine Bill (which protects the dairymen's trades union), prohibiting "the manufacture of cigars or preparation of tobacco in any form on any floor, or in any part of any floor, in any tenement house," when family arrangements go on there too. The act in question was alleged to be, and probably was, a trades-union bill, favored by the workmen in the large manufactories in order that their work might not be undersold. They painted a terrible picture of the taskmasters who, to save a few pennies, turned small family living apartments into reeking workshops. And they were to a certain extent encouraged by the philanthropists of this city, who did not reflect that, as this labor was better paid than most others and had fewer expenses, so the tenements in which it was carried on belonged to the better class of such houses. And further, that any such law would drive industry to neighboring parts like Jersey City, where no such restrictions are imposed, and the sanitary arrangements are not so good as here. This sanitary question is of course the question at issue. Judge Earl decides that the Act is not a health-law, and is therefore unconstitutional. The main advantage to be derived from the wide publication this opinion of the Court of Appeals has received will come from its plain language, and the broad view it takes of the special class legislation of which there is now so much on our statute-books.

Mr. James Russell Lowell, in the discussion following his lecture on "Labor and Wages in America" before the Society of Arts recently in London, told the simple truth when he said that "what far-sighted Englishmen" now most fear as a menace to English industrial supremacy is the adoption of a free-trade policy in the United States. The absurd stories about the eagerness of the Cobden Club and British manufacturers to break down the American tariff, in order to get their goods into this market, do well enough for campaign thunder in this country, but they help to conceal the real truth of the situation. British exports to the United States, in spite of the enormous purchases of our food products, only amount to $155,000,000 in round numbers, out of a total to all parts of the world of $1,205,000,000, or about one-eighth. What far-sighted Englishmen fear is having to contend with the United States for the remaining seven-eighths of the trade all over the rest of the world, which they would assuredly have to do if, in addition to cheap food, Americans had cheap raw material and cheap machinery.

Colonel Burnaby's death appears to interest the Londoners more than any other incident of General Stewart's battle. He made himself also very conspicuous in the two fights before Suakim, where he served as a volunteer, and was very prominent in the slaughter of the defeated Arabs. This raised a question of casuistry in the press, whether a man not serving in the fighting force was justified in killing the enemy on the field. It was, however, decided in Burnaby's favor, even by the stricter moralists, on the ground that the army is the country, and that every Englishman is justified in helping it in action by such means as he may have at command. Burnaby first made himself known as a daring traveller in Central Asia, who turned his adventures to account by using them to fan the flame of Russophobia by which the Beaconsfield Ministry was then trying to live, and he was for a time one of the leading heroes of Jingoism.

The scramble for Africa is daily becoming more lively. Almost all the European nations are agitated by participation, or by a desire to participate, in it. France, not content with her vast Algerian possessions, with the recently occupied Tunis, with territories on the Senegal and the Gaboon, with points in Madagascar and islands adjoining it, with Obock on the Gulf of Aden, with the lands between the Ogoway and the Congo which De Brazza procured her by purchase and treaty, wrangles with the African Association for a portion of the south bank of the latter river. The Association itself is about founding a state of vast dimensions on both sides of the Congo, under the auspices of the King of Belgium. England, in addition to her numerous possessions on the Guinea coast and north of the Cape, temporarily holds Egypt and Nubia, fights on the upper Nile and the shore of the Red Sea, hoists her flag over St. Luisa Bay in Zulu Land, occupies Pondoland, and is about entering upon a contest with the Boers for the wilds of the Bechuanas. Germany has planted her flag in Upper Guinea, at the mouth of the Cameroons, in Namaqua and Damara Lands, and, according to late despatches, on points near the Senegal. Between this river and the border of Morocco, Spain is reported to have grasped some strips of territory. Portugal contends for her excessive old claims. An Italian expedition has just sailed through the Red Sea for the military occupation of the territory of Assab, near the Strait of Babel Mandeb and the French settlement at Obock, and all over Italy suddenly the cry is raised by the press that Tripoli must be annexed to the kingdom. And, last of all, an agitation has been begun by a powerful Moscow journalist, M. Katkoff, for the establishment of a Russian protectorate over parts of Abyssinia, in order that the great Slavic Empire may have its share in the spoils of the dark continent, and in the guardianship of the Red Sea, the naval highway between Russia's Black Sea coasts and her possessions on the eastern shores of Asia.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 21, to TUESDAY, January 27, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

MR. EDMUNDS introduced a bill in the Senate on Saturday to prevent and punish crimes by means of explosive compounds. It was a mere draft, but although imperfect he submitted it in order that it might be referred to the Committee on the Judiciary for early consideration and perfection. It may, he added, raise a question between the rights of the United States and the duties of the separate States, but the Committee would take the whole subject into consideration. The bill provides for the punishment of any one engaged in the manufacture, sale, or conveyance of explosive compounds with intent to destroy life and property in this or any foreign country.

In the Senate on Saturday Mr. Bayard introduced a resolution expressing "horror and detestation of such crimes against civilization" as that of which the Senate had just heard, with "indignation and profound sorrow," through the press despatches from London. The resolution was taken up on Monday. Mr. Riddleberger moved that it be referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations, but it was defeated by 2 to 55, the affirmatives being Messrs. Van Wyck and Riddleberger. Mr. Riddleberger then moved that further consideration of the resolution be postponed until next Wednesday. He declared that the Senate had not sufficient information upon which to base action of this kind. The body was asked to vote in a way which would be interpreted as sympathy with England and against Ireland. Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass.) said the Senator from Virginia seemed to treat the occurrence in London as if it were a warfare adopted by the Irish people against England. He (Mr. Hoar) had among his constituents many persons of Irish descent, intelligent, brave, manly people. He thought he was justified in stating that the doctrine expressed in the resolution was their doctrine, as it was that of other American people. The making of war upon unoffending women and children was as repugnant to these citizens as to any other people. Senator Ingalls (Rep., Kan.) noticed in the papers that feelings were prevalent in England on Saturday in favor of bringing some pressure to bear upon America in this respect. He would vote for the resolution, not as an apology, not as an expression of sympathy, but as an expression of abhorrence for such crimes. The explosions on Saturday shook the foundations of every capitol in Christendom. Senators Hawley and Gibson spoke in favor of the resolution of condemnation. The motion to postpone was defeated by 1 to 62, and the resolution was passed by 63 to 1 (namely, Mr. Riddleberger).

In the House of Representatives on Monday Mr. Findlay (Dem., Md.) offered a resolution, which was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs, calling on the Secretary of State for information as to whether any citizen of the United States, or persons domiciled within the same, were concerned or participated directly or indirectly in bringing about the recent explosions in London.

The House bill for the retirement and recoinage of the trade dollars was reported in the Senate on Tuesday with amendments. It provides that until July 1, 1885, United States trade dollars, if not defaced, mutilated, or stamped, shall be received at the office of the Treasurer or any Assistant Treasurer of the United States in exchange for a like amount, dollar for dollar, of standard silver dollars of the United States. The trade dollars are to be recoined into standard silver dollars. The President is authorized to renew negotiations with the States of the "Latin Union" and with other foreign Powers, for the purpose of making treaties with them in order to secure such coöperation as may enable the nations agreeing thereto to open their respective mints to the free coinage of silver, with full legal-tender power, at an agreed ratio to gold. In case no such treaties shall be ratified prior to August 1, 1886, the coinage of standard dollars under the Act of February, 1878, shall be suspended.

In the House on Wednesday the Agricultural Appropriation Bill was introduced. It appropriates $546,290, being $152,820 less than the estimates. The Committee of Ways and Means reported a bill to authorize the establishment of export tobacco manufactures, and allowing drawbacks on imported articles used in manufacturing exported tobacco. On Friday both houses of Congress were presented with handsome silk flags by the Women's Silk Culture Association of the United States. The flags were made of silk raised in American homes, by American women and children, reeled, spun, dyed, woven, and mounted in Philadelphia.

Mr. Hurd (Dem., O.) offered in the House on Friday a preamble and resolution, reciting that certain bills appropriating money from the Treasury, originating in the Senate, are now on the Speaker's table, to wit, the Blair Educational Bill and many others, and that it is asserted that these bills are in violation of the privileges of the House to exclusively originate bills for raising revenue, and directing the Judiciary Committee to inquire into the power of the Senate to originate bills appropriating revenue, and to report to the House at any time. After a debate the resolution was laid upon the table by a vote of 127 to 123. A motion to take up the Mexican Pension Bill was defeated by 103 to 120.

The House Committee on Appropriations on Monday reported the Army Appropriation Bill. It provides for an appropriation of $24,429,053. The estimated appropriation amounted to $26,110,490.

The River and Harbor Committee of the House have decided to adopt the Eads scheme for the improvement of Galveston, Texas, harbor, appropriating $750,000 for the coming year, and giving Captain Eads $5,000 a year salary for supervising the work.

Mr. Randall is said to be disgusted with the action of some of his associates on the Grant Retirement Bill, and asserts that if he can obtain recognition on the second Monday in February, he will move for a suspension of the rules and the passage of the Edmunds bill in regard to General Grant.

A fire, on Monday morning, occurred in the House of Representatives at Washington, under the iron roof, among some books and papers. It was soon extinguished, and the damage was very slight. Electric wires are supposed to have caused it.

President Arthur on Friday nominated his political friend and henchman, Andrew S. Draper, to be a Judge of the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims.

A resolution was offered in the Assembly at Albany on Thursday morning by Mr. Barnum, directing a special committee to investigate the scandalous rumors connected with the last part of Mayor Edson's administration in this city. The general assumption is that it is a movement specially against Judges Truax and Beach.

In the Senate at Albany on Friday a bill was passed appropriating $250,000 for the temporary continuation of work on the Capitol.

In the Assembly at Albany on Monday night, General Husted introduced three bills for the preservation of the Adirondack forests. In the Senate, Mr. Gilbert introduced a bill to regulate the manufacture and sale of dynamite. It provides that any person who shall manufacture, buy, or sell, or bring within the limits of the State, any nitrate or chlorate explosive compound for the destruction of life or property in any place whatsoever shall be deemed guilty of felony and punished by imprisonment for a term of years. Any person aiding or abetting is to be treated as a principal, and any one contributing or soliciting contributions for the purpose is to be deemed guilty of felony. It also provides that no person shall manufacture, buy, sell, or transport the above compounds without an official permit; and that all persons who sell them must keep a record of such sales, including the kind and the amount of the explosive, with the date of sale. A similar bill has been introduced in the Massachusetts Legislature.

Speeches openly rejoicing in the London explosions, and advocating wholesale destruction of life and property, were made by the Chicago Socialists on Sunday.

The Wisconsin Republican legislative caucus on Wednesday night nominated John C. Spooner for United States Senator.

The coldest weather ever recorded at Mount Washington was experienced on Thursday morning, the thermometer registering fifty degrees below zero.

Reports from remote districts in Texas are coming in, to the effect that the loss of cattle by starvation and exposure has been very great. A prominent stockman estimates it at 5 per cent. of the 15,000,000 head of cattle in that State. Reports from Kansas and Nebraska are also very bad.

The creditors of Oliver Brothers have accepted the proposition for a five years' extension of time, with some slight modifications.

At a meeting of the directors of the Metropolitan Opera-house of this city on Thursday, it was resolved that Dr. Damrosch should be empowered to select a company and make arrangements for a season of German opera, to begin, probably, next November, and end early in 1886. It was also decided to increase Dr. Damrosch's salary next season from $10,000 to $12,000.

Two deaths from what is pronounced to be genuine cholera were reported in St. Louis on Wednesday.

Thomas Craig Fields, better known as "Tom" Fields, of Tweed Ring notoriety, died on Sunday of pneumonia, on his farm near St. Andrews, Canada.

FOREIGN.

London was startled on Saturday afternoon by three terrific explosions about 2:10 o'clock. It soon became known that an attempt had been made to blow up the Houses of Parliament. The first explosion was in the crypt of Westminster Hall; the second, three minutes later, was under the Peers' gallery of the House of Commons. Saturday being visitors' day, the building contained many sightseers. The western extremity of the House was totally wrecked. All the woodwork about the Peers' gallery was shattered and a wide hole was made through the floor. The gallery was displaced, and even the solid stone-work of the doorways was pulverized or shifted from its position. The gallery benches were overturned and broken, and the gallery generally dismantled. At Westminster Hall four persons were badly injured, including two policemen. A lady who was in the hall spied the infernal machine and called the attention of Policeman Cole, who was on duty at the time, to it. He rushed to the spot, seized the machine, and attempted to extinguish the fuse, but was not quick enough. The fuse burned so rapidly that the officer became alarmed and dropped the box. The explosion followed almost immediately after. One half of the hall was wrecked.

Almost simultaneously with these explosions a third occurred in the Tower of London. The place was filled with visitors. The explosive was placed in the inmost structure known as the White Tower. The report was terrific and was heard for miles along the Thames. Sixteen persons, including a number of children, were injured. The damage to the Tower itself was not very great.

Excitement throughout the city increased in intensity during the day. Guards of soldiers and police were stationed around all public buildings. A number of arrests were made.

The excitement on Monday and Tuesday was unabated, and there were threats of lynching the authors of the outrage if found.

All the people injured by the explosion are doing well. Cox and Cole, the injured policemen, recovered sufficiently on Sunday to make a statement which it is thought may lead to important arrests. Cunningham, a mysterious Irishman, who was arrested at the Tower on Saturday, was arraigned on Monday in the Bow Street police court. An inspector deposed that he examined the prisoner at the Tower; that he (the prisoner) was confused and gave contradictory answers to the questions propounded. The prisoner, the inspector said, first gave a wrong address as to his place of abode. He formerly resided in America. The prisoner admitted that the inspector was correct in his testimony, but refused to say anything further. He was remanded until February 3.

The official estimates made by the British Government inspectors place the amount of the pecuniary damage wrought by the explosions in Westminster Hall, the House of Commons, and the Tower at $70,000.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* on Monday, in an article on the explosions, said: "It is both undignified and foolish to scream about America. If O'Donovan Rossa were hanged to-morrow and the collection of money for the skirmishing fund made a criminal offence, it would fail to stop the outrages."

The Paris *Gil Blas* asserts that the whole conspiracy was hatched in that city, in an English printing-office, and that the infernal machines were manufactured in the St. Denis quarter.

General Lord Wolseley, on Wednesday afternoon, sent to the British War Office a despatch, dated "Korti, January 21, 3 P. M.," announcing a British victory in the Sudan. In the despatch he said: "General Stewart has had a heavy engagement with a portion of the Mahdi's forces near the Abu-Klea wells, about twenty-three miles this side of Metemneh. The rebels had collected from Berber, Metemneh, and Umderman. This last place, I regret to say, the prisoners report, was recently captured by the Mahdi, and thus the men were released from there to fight General Stewart. On Saturday, January 17, General Stewart endeavored to draw the enemy on to make an attack, but the rebels hesitated. In consequence of this General Stewart left all his impediments and camels under guard of the Sussex regiment and some mounted infantry, and moved forward, keeping his forces in the form of a square. All the men were on foot. The British army passed round the enemy's left flank, forcing them to make an attack or be subject to an enfilade fire. The enemy wheeled to the left and delivered a well-organized charge under a withering fire from our men. The square was unfortunately penetrated about its left rear, where a heavy cavalry and camel regiment were in position, by sheer weight of numbers. The admirable steadiness of our men enabled them to maintain a hand-to-hand fight with the opposing force, while severe punishment was being inflicted upon the enemy by all other parts of the square. The enemy were finally driven back under heavy fire from all sides. The Nineteenth Hussars then pushed forward to the wells, which were in our possession by five in the evening. The enemy left not less than 800 slain around the square. General Stewart's operations have been most creditable to him as a commander, and the nation has every reason to be proud of the gallantry and splendid spirit of her Majesty's soldiers on this occasion. Our losses were 9 commissioned officers killed and 9 wounded, and 65 non-commissioned officers and men killed and 85 wounded. General Stewart's force consists of about 1,500 men, all told." Among the killed was Colonel Burnaby, hero of the "Ride to Khiva." General Stewart's column immediately resumed its march to Metemneh.

It was reported on Thursday that General Stewart had occupied Metemneh, but this was not confirmed. On the other hand, it was asserted that the rebels held it.

There was great uneasiness in London on Friday because no news had been received from General Stewart since the battle. Private advices received late that afternoon from Korti asserted that the rebels had surrounded General Stewart in the desert, where he had taken up an intrenched position to await reinforcements from General Wolseley. Deserters from the rebel lines stated that the Mahdi's officers consider the affair at Abu-Klea wells a drawn battle. The Government discredited these reports. On Monday the anxiety was intense because no news had yet been received.

A rumor was circulated at Cairo on Friday that General Stewart's troops had been routed by El Mahdi. It was generally believed, and the natives assumed such a threatening attitude that ball cartridges were served out to the British garrison. The officials at the British War Office believe that General Wolseley may find it imperatively necessary to reinforce the troops operating against El Mahdi.

General Earle's column, thoroughly provisioned and equipped, comprising artillery, cavalry, and camel corps, started on Saturday from Hamdab for Berber. The march is to be made by way of Abu Hamed.

General Lord Wolseley telegraphed from Korti on Monday that he had received no further news from General Stewart. He assures the Government that in his opinion there is no cause for anxiety at this long absence of intelligence, for additional reports must come by camel couriers with a British escort. The first despatch was brought in by Bashi-Bazouks.

A large convoy was sent by General Wolseley on Monday from Korti to the Gakdul Wells, and it is to proceed in the direction taken by General Stewart with all possible speed.

Mr. Parnell, in a lecture at Cork on Friday night, said that the day was not far distant when the Irish Parliament would be restored.

Mr. Morgan O'Connell, second son of Daniel O'Connell, the great Irish agitator, is dead.

Minister Lowell presided at the meeting of the Society of Arts in London on Wednesday evening. In the course of his remarks he said that his position prevented his expressing an opinion on the subject, but he would say that many far-sighted Englishmen believed the adoption of free trade in America would give England dangerous competition in all the markets of the world, because many American fabrics were more honest than English goods of the same description. Free trade would enable America soon to equal England's mercantile marine, which had heretofore been impossible through the operation of the American navigation law and tariff. England would find America the most intelligent competitor she had yet met.

It was asserted by the *Pall Mall Gazette* on Thursday that the Cabinet had accepted the French proposals regarding Egyptian finances as a basis for negotiation, provided that no "multiple control" shall be instituted, and the coupon shall be taxed instead of cut. Germany and Russia will be admitted to representation in the Caisse de la Dette Publique. England will offer to guarantee a loan of £9,000,000, but is willing to discuss the question of international guarantee if the Powers are unanimous on this point.

The Paris *Mémorial Diplomatique* has expressed displeasure at the behavior of the American delegates to the Congo Conference. It attributes the delay in the conclusion of the labors of the Conference to the numerous proposals which have been introduced by those gentlemen, whom it styles the "godfathers of the newly-born State." Mr. Henry M. Stanley, it says, "speaks everywhere in genuine Yankee style, attacking and insulting the Conference of the Powers. The German proposals would have been accepted long ago but for American opposition."

Elections for Senators were held throughout France on Sunday. Sixty-seven Republicans and twenty Conservatives were elected; a gain of twenty-two Republicans.

Gen. Brière Delisle telegraphed on Friday to the French Minister of War, announcing that he has at least 80,000 Chinese troops before him, so strongly intrenched as to render any direct attack hopeless. He therefore suggests a complete change in the plan of the campaign; that the 12,000 reinforcements be sent to Pakhoi, and not to Haiphong, so that they can fight the Chinese army in the rear, while General Negrier attacks it in front.

On Saturday news was received that the French troops, under Admiral Courbet, who had attempted to seize the mines at Kelung had been seriously repulsed, with a loss of seventy-five men in killed and wounded. The fighting was very severe. The French troops are being organized for a combined attack on Kelung and Tamsui.

The first accounts of the French repulse at Kelung were exaggerated. Admiral Courbet telegraphs as follows: "A detachment of African light infantry imprudently attempted to carry strong Chinese earthworks south of Kelung, and was repulsed. Nineteen men were killed; twelve were seriously and fourteen slightly wounded. Reinforcements have since arrived and landed at Kelung in excellent health."

A severe anti-Socialist law has been introduced in the Austro-Hungarian Reichsrath. It forbids the formation of clubs; provides for Government control of charitable societies in order to prevent the covering up of Socialist plots; empowers the authorities to forbid any public meeting, and to confiscate Socialist pamphlets, whether printed in Austria or abroad. The last clause of the bill provides that persons accused of Socialistic offences shall be tried without jury. The act is to remain in force five years. The Explosives Bill also introduced allows punishment by death where culprits could foresee the fatal effect of their deeds.

An attempt was made by Nihilists on Saturday to assassinate a Police Superintendent in St. Petersburg.

A convention was concluded on January 12 between Russia and Prussia, and has been in force several days, providing for the extradition of persons guilty of murder, attempted murder, or of committing or preparing to commit acts against the German or Russian Emperors or their families, such as assassination, acts of violence causing bodily injury, abduction, or insults. The convention also provides that persons guilty of the illegal manufacture or storage of explosives shall be extraditable.

Emperor William has entirely recovered his health.

The German Reichstag on Friday, after a protracted debate, adopted by a large majority a grant of $37,500 to be used in exploring Central Africa. This is a success for Bismarck.

Many more villages in Italy have been overwhelmed by avalanches, and the loss of life is terrible. Most of the accidents seem to have occurred in the province of Cuneo, at Frassino, Valgrana, etc. The village of Rabasso is almost completely buried under the snow. Scores of people have been killed there, and over 200 men, women, and children are wounded and homeless.

The Canadian Minister of Agriculture has delivered a decision in the case of the Bell Telephone Company, declaring the patent void for the reason that the company or its representatives had imported the patented articles after twelve months from the date of the patent.

The Montreal ice carnival was successfully opened on Monday morning. The city is filled with visitors.

An infernal machine was recently sent to the President of Chili. It was arranged to go off when opened. The President endeavored to open the parcel, but became suspicious of its contents and did not proceed.

THE UNITED STATES AND THE DYNAMITERS.

THE explosions in London on Saturday are crimes for which civilized men do not need to express their horror. In fact, any formulated expression of it, like the resolution introduced in the Senate, seems to concede the necessity of removing some doubt as to the way in which American legislators look on the destruction of great works of art and of great historical monuments, and the slaughter of innocent people of all ages and both sexes. It is only that class of malefactors known as enemies of the human race who attempt such things, and we respectfully submit that the American Senate is hardly called upon to "express its horror and detestation of such monstrous crimes against civilization." What most concerns Americans in this matter is, not how to let the world know that they hate such outrages, but how to satisfy the world, and especially Englishmen, that they do not, by negligence either in legislation or administration, facilitate the perpetration of them. There is in England a strong belief, which we have no doubt prevails to some extent on the Continent, that the United States are in a greater or less degree responsible for the late dynamite outrages, owing to the failure of the officers of the law here to find out and punish the conspirators who prepare them on this side of the water. To the plea that the American law is not sufficient for the purpose, the answer is that it is the duty of a civilized and friendly nation to make it sufficient.

The bill introduced by Senator Edmunds on Saturday will be considered a reply to this demand. It makes punishable the sale or manufacture within the United States of all sorts of explosives, with the intent of using them for the destruction of life or property at home or abroad. It also makes punishable the forwarding, by land or sea, or the storing in any wharf, depot, or warehouse, of any such explosives with knowledge that their object or destination is criminal. The bill may have the effect of soothing English irritation, and so far may be of some use; that it will accomplish any other good purpose we greatly doubt. We venture to predict that not only will no conviction or even prosecution ever take place under it, but that it will not in the smallest degree abate the activity of the dynamiters on American soil. Some dynamite has doubtless been sent from this country, but, as a matter of fact, there is no good reason for supposing that one ounce of dynamite employed in outrages on life and property in England has ever been exported from the United States, or has ever been transported by any American railroad, or stored in any American wharf or warehouse. Not one particle of proof of anything of the kind has been produced on either side of the water, even when dynamiters have been caught and convicted. The reason is obvious enough. Dynamite is so easily manufactured anywhere, and is so powerful an explosive in small quantities, that economy as well as prudence forbids its transportation for criminal purposes over long distances.

There is an enormous quantity manufactured or transported for the legitimate and useful purposes of mining and other enterprises, some of the coal companies in Pennsylvania using as much as fifteen thousand pounds every month, and some of the copper mines as much as fifty thousand pounds in the same period. The New York aqueduct just begun will consume thousands of tons of it. The cost of copper and of coal depends very largely on the cost of the explosive used in mining. Any national law affecting even in a small degree the manufacture and transportation of blasting compounds would have its effect on their price to the consumers, probably for the benefit of the dynamite manufacturers, at the expense of the coal, iron, and copper producers.

There is, in fact, no lack of explosive material, nor of the means or opportunity to make it in England. The manufacture of nitro-glycerine is so simple that with a few iron or china pots and a running stream of water, a bottle of glycerine, and a jug of acid, all the explosives the dynamiters want can be readily made in Ireland or England without incurring the greater risk of carrying it from here. The manufacture is a much easier matter than distilling whiskey. The very high explosives are imported to this country, not exported from it. The ship *Erl-King* landed at this port lately from Scotland two tons of what is known as gelatine dynamite, which is one of the highest grades of nitro-glycerine compounds. All of the extremely high explosive gun-cotton came hither from England, until within the past few months when the Government experts have been able to produce it at Newport.

The Irish dynamiters use the United States, not as a factory for their explosives, but as a place in which to make their plans and collect money. In fact, it is quite safe to say that all the money necessary for their enterprises is raised here. It is with the contributions of Irish men and Irish women in this country that the expenses of the English explosions are paid, and it is here probably that the agents are selected, and hence that they are despatched to Europe to manufacture the dynamite and to use it. Now against this, Mr. Edmunds's bill will accomplish nothing. It will not touch the machinery of collection in the least. There are several Irish newspapers in this country devoted wholly or largely to the task of preaching the lawfulness of *all* modes of annoying or injuring Englishmen. These newspapers openly call week by week for money to pay the cost of attacks on life and property in England or Ireland, and to aid in the escape of dynamiters and assassins. They praise assassins in the highest terms, hold them up as examples of patriotism, and publish frantic rejoicings over such offences as were committed in London on Saturday. They print also with the utmost conspicuousness the boasts of persons claiming to have originated or participated in such offences. These papers circulate by tens of thousands all over the country. No such publications were ever before allowed in any civilized nation. They are a constant stream of moral and political poison for the poorer and more ignorant portion of the Irish population in this country, and they enable hardened villains to obtain from them large sums of money, of which in all likelihood not over one-half is applied to the purpose for which it is originally collected; the rest is stolen and spent in debauchery.

Though last not least, the immunity from all legal pursuit which these publications enjoy produces in their readers the impression that the American public is either indifferent to their horrible preachings, or secretly sympathizes with them. This impression is of course deepened by such incidents as the successful attempt last year to procure the unprecedented interference of the United States Government in behalf of the murderer O'Donnell, and by the open fraternization of the party in power during the late Presidential campaign with the leading dynamiters. These wretches were active and welcome supporters of Mr. Blaine, and were treated with much respect by his newspapers under the name of "Independent Irishmen"; and the Republican Committee, we think, will not venture to deny that the worst of their villanous newspapers in this State were heavily subsidized out of the Republican campaign funds.

In an interview with Mr. Blaine reported in the New York *Tribune* immediately after the election, we find the following significant passage:

> "I asked Mr. Blaine if he thought the Irish-American vote was organized at all, or had competent leaders. 'Yes,' said he, 'I was deeply impressed by the ability, the earnestness, and the sincerity of those whom I met. There, for instance, is Patrick Ford, of the *Irish World*. He is a man of the most unselfish devotion to any cause he espouses, possessing a great faculty for organization, with marked ability and untiring energy. General Kerwin, of the *Tablet*, has in large degree the same characteristics and is a far-sighted and able man, with a fine record as a Union soldier. The *Irish Nation*, edited by John Devoy, also gave us strong and valuable support."

Patrick Ford is, and has been for years, the principal collector of the murder funds, through his paper the *Irish World;* and John Devoy follows not far behind him in the *Irish Nation*. Ford admitted in court on Saturday that he had an "emergency fund" of over $40,000 on hand, and he makes no secret of its objects. As long as such men are allowed to collect money publicly for criminal purposes, to preach the laudableness of explosions and murder, or to publish the boasting confessions of the exploders and the murderers, the Irish will remain convinced that the American public does not severely condemn their peculiar modes of liberating their country. Whether any legislation against dynamite agitation as now conducted is possible, and whether if enacted it could be executed, are questions we do not purpose to discuss to-day. We simply wish to bring those who feel that the United States are disgraced by being made the scene in which the dynamiters hatch their plots, face to face with the real problem presented by the situation. No dynamite is sent from this country; but money to buy dynamite and pay those who use it, is sent, and is collected for this purpose without the slightest concealment. We do not say that this collection can be prevented by law. If it could not be done openly, it would probably be done secretly; but if it had to be done secretly the charges of negligence or connivance made by foreigners against the United States would be less plausible than they are.

ON THE FOURTH OF MARCH.

CAREFUL observers of public affairs are beginning to see that, on the fourth day of March next, President Cleveland may, and probably will, be confronted with problems of administration, demanding immediate solution, as serious and perplexing as any that have confronted any President on that day in March since the eventful year of 1861. To some of these problems it may be necessary, in the sense of the public safety, that there be allusion by President Cleveland, in the inaugural address which it has been usual for the new President to deliver on the steps of the Capitol after taking that most solemn oath "to execute the *office* of President" and "preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution."

What will be the actual condition of the Federal Treasury on the 4th of March next cannot now be clearly foreseen or foreknown—at least not by one outside the Treasury Department. It is, however, an open secret that the condition of the national finances is critical in many most important particulars, some of which have been indicated in this journal. Whether or not the President-elect will be told within the next month or six weeks what is the real numerical relation, in dollars, of gold in the Treasury vaults to outstanding greenbacks; of silver coinage in the Treasury to gold coinage; of each and both to silver certificates and gold certificates; of current Treasury expenditures to current Treasury receipts; of the relations between the Treasury Department and Associated City Banks of New York, and also what is the true condition of the public debt—we have no means of knowing. It is not very likely that anything in the way of very useful silver legislation will be done by this Congress, and, therefore, the problem of silver coinage will confront President Cleveland in all its portentous reality, and along with it the possible peril of an 85 or an 82-cents "silver dollar" as a legal-tender coin. It is not necessary now to ascertain or declare which political party has been the most at fault for the existing condition of the Treasury, its coinage, and its finances. What President Cleveland will have to deal with will be a feasible, safe, and immediate *remedy*, both in the sense of prevention and of cure. That problem of remedy will tax to the utmost, not only the faculties of the President, but of an experienced and well-equipped political economist and financier at the head of the Treasury Department. The new Secretary of the Treasury will have no time to "cram" for the work on hand. He will need to be not only a man really competent by experience, observation, study, familiarity with financial legislation, and by habit of mind, but a man known to the country to be thus competent. Public confidence in him will be almost as important as the fact of his competency.

In the Department of Foreign Affairs, problems will, on the 4th of next March, confront President Cleveland that are as serious and critical as those which will confront him in the department of coinage, currency, finance, and the public debt. There have been treaties negotiated by President Arthur, and now before the Senate, that make, or will make, if ratified, a "new departure" in our diplomacy. A series of commercial treaties that tie the hands of the Government in the future levy of duties on merchandise from all or a large part of the States and colonies on the south of us, must be of tremendous significance. The consequences of such treaties, for good or for evil, the country is only just beginning to appreciate, and does not yet fully comprehend. Fortunately, President Arthur has inserted in the Spanish treaty, and presumably in all the commercial treaties that are on the way, a stipulation that they shall not be exchanged and proclaimed as binding till not only the Senate, but the law-making power, has ratified them. If ratified by the Senate, those treaties must then by the President be submitted to Congress as a legislative body, and President Cleveland may be called on to approve or veto the doings of Congress thereon. Therefore, the responsibility of ratifying, exchanging, and proclaiming the Spanish treaty may, and probably will, rest, in the end, on President Cleveland. He will probably be called on to deal with the whole subject *de novo*. If he shall disapprove of the Spanish negotiation, will it not be fit and proper that he frankly indicate his opinion at an early day?

In respect to the Nicaragua treaty, his personal responsibility will probably be the same, and will be immediate, since it also must be ratified by the law-making power as well as by the Senate. He must decide whether or not the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty is now binding on the United States, or whether it is voidable at the will of the United States, and ought to be voided. If that treaty is binding, it is a part of the "law" of the land which the President must execute, on the peril of impeachment if he refuses or fails. Therein the United States stipulated *never* to "occupy, or fortify, or colonize, or assume, or exercise any dominion over Nicaragua." What if President Cleveland shall come to the conclusion that the stipulation is to-day binding on his country, and that the Nicaragua treaty repudiates the stipulation?

For what proposition Senator Edmunds is, in behalf of the Nicaragua treaty and the Administration, arguing in the Senate, neither the country nor the President-elect is permitted to know. It is, however, not understood that any one contends that both of the contracting governments deem the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty at an end. The treaty may, as we have said, be voidable at the will of the United States, but it has not yet been declared void by the President. The Senate cannot alone declare and make it void. Congress and the law-making power may make the declaration. Possibly President Cleveland can, by his own act, terminate it if he sees fit: there was an interesting discussion of that question in the Senate in 1855-6. But the Clayton-Bulwer convention has, we repeat, not yet been clearly and finally declared at an end by any adequate authority.

Even a glance at the situation makes it apparent that President Cleveland will, on the fourth of March next, be facing new and most critical international questions, which will put to a severe and immediate test the most intelligent and experienced diplomatist, lawyer, and statesman to whom the affairs of the State Department can be intrusted.

SPAIN AND CUBA.

THE suggestion, so diligently put forth by the promoters and advocates of the Spanish Treaty, that unless the negotiation at Madrid is speedily ratified by the American Senate and by Congress, there will be war between Spain and the United States, deserves, in one aspect, more consideration than it has received. The country is told that the war will come if the Spanish Treaty be rejected at Washington, and somewhat in this way: The first premise is, that nothing less than a ratification of the treaty can give such a revival of business, such a relief from grinding taxation, and such popular contentment in Cuba, as will prevent another insurrection, or a civil commotion, ending possibly in a war of races on the island. Such an insurrection against Spanish authority, or such an uprising of the black and colored races against the white race, would, it is said, appeal so powerfully to a certain class of opinion in the United States, that President Cleveland could not maintain the Government in the attitude of an impartial outsider. Hence a foreign war!

The circumstances of the first premise need to be carefully examined. That Cuba is, financially and politically and in every sense, in a very bad condition, cannot be denied; but whether or not an American ratification of the pending treaty will be any remedy, or the fittest remedy, may and will be very generally denied. What has been the cause of the evils in Cuba under which the island now suffers and groans? A proximate cause may be the long war that was waged in the island from 1868 to 1876, and the depression in cane-sugar industry brought about largely by beet-root sugar bounties in France and in German-speaking countries. A more remote but a very powerful cause, however, is the circumstances of the colonization of the island, its long-continued dependence on Spain as a crown colony, its military government, the existence of slave labor, the hostility of the races on the island, the antagonism between the native Creoles and the governing Spaniards sent out from Spain, and the repeated insurrectionary movements. Can the ratification of the pending treaty remove, or remedy, the evils caused by all those circumstances? Is it reasonable to suppose that the ratification will put good government in Cuba, and take away the existing inducements to insurrection and political disorder?

The population of the island may be a million and a half, or about as large as that of Georgia, with much the same numerical relation between the black or colored and the white races, but with the standard of morals and education very much lower, of course, as to all races in Cuba than in Georgia. Quite one-half are Africans and Chinese. The population is subdivided somewhat in this way:

1. Good and bad Spaniards holding office.
2. Creoles who are planters, agriculturists, business men, and professional men.
3. Free mulattoes and free negroes, made by law incapable of holding civil offices.
4. Slaves, or those recently in slavery.

Previous to the insurrection which, on the dethronement of Queen Isabella in Spain, began in Cuba on October 10, 1868, the total annual revenue of the island was not far

from $26,000,000, of which some $6,000,000 were each year sent to Madrid. But since the end of the insurrection in 1876, although taxation has been enormously increased on the island, and carried well up to the point of confiscation, the Cuban Government cannot pay its own expenses, and has been a beneficiary of the Spanish treasury at Madrid, notwithstanding the large sums borrowed in Cuba by the Governor Captain-General, and the emission of depreciated paper money by an arrangement with the Banco Español. What the last insurrection in Cuba, from 1868 to 1876, signifies, may be inferred from a statement made in the Cortes in Madrid in 1876, that Spain had, at that date and since 1868, sent to and sacrificed in Cuba over 145,000 officers and soldiers. Besides that insurrection in 1868, there was one in 1851, one in 1841, and another in 1829. The fact, so creditable to Spain, that she, by royal orders, put an end, or endeavored to put an end, to the slave-trade with Cuba in 1853, or thereabouts, and also, not long ago, by royal orders, put an end to slave labor in the island, has intensified the difficulties of good government in the island, for reasons which every one in the United States readily appreciates.

The seat of government for Cuba is practically more than 3,000 miles distant from the island. Would peaceful industry and social order have been easily possible in any of the Gulf States of this Union if, in 1865, after General Lee's surrender and the emancipation of the slaves, each of those States had been a crown colony of Spain, with no training in self-government, and ruled by an absolute military officer subject to the orders of a superior in Madrid? It is easy for us in New York to say that Spain should immediately change the system of government in Cuba; abolish the military and feudal régime of a Governor Captain-General ruling as over a besieged place; and introduce education, the ballot, and local self-government, under the lead of financiers and civilians who would insist on an honest civil service. But is not that easier said than done? Could even the Congress of the United States, if it had the right so to do, immediately put a sound system of taxation, currency, finance, and good government into Cuba? Could we straightway and successfully deal with that problem of races—their ignorance, indolence, and poverty? When confronted with the difficult problem, is not the pending treaty a very superficial and unsatisfactory makeshift, or something worse?

President Arthur referred to the treaty in his annual message in these terms:

"It has been the aim of this negotiation to open such a favored reciprocal exchange of productions carried under the flag of either country as to make the intercourse between Cuba and Porto Rico and ourselves scarcely less intimate than the commercial movement between our domestic ports, and to insure a removal of the burdens on shipping in the Spanish Indies, of which in the past our ship-owners and ship-masters have so often had cause to complain. *The negotiation of this convention has for a time postponed the prosecution of certain claims of our citizens, which were declared to be without the jurisdiction of the late Spanish-American Claims Commission, and which are, therefore, remitted to diplomatic channels for adjustment.* The speedy settlement of these claims will now be urged by this Government."

Little attention has been given to this indication by the President of his purpose concerning "certain claims by our citizens" against Cuba, for injuries inflicted during the late insurrection, and between 1868 and 1878. The claims are said to aggregate many millions of dollars, the payment of which the Government at Washington is demanding at Madrid. What relation, if any, exists between the pending treaty and those claims? What is the nature of the claims? Why were they outside of the jurisdiction of the late Commission? If they were outside of it, how and why are they now prosecuted by the Department of State, and how or why need the negotiation of the treaty have "postponed the prosecution of certain claims by our citizens"? May it not be that Spain will go to war with us rather than pay those "claims," and that the "claims" are the real source of disquietude in certain quarters?

The suggestion that such a condition of things may come to pass in Cuba, if the Spanish Treaty is not ratified, that President Cleveland may be unable to preserve the neutrality of the United States, will not give the country much uneasiness. The suggestion is really so absurd as to be quite unworthy of serious notice. But what can, or should, be done by President Cleveland to induce, or even compel, Spain straightway to put good government in Cuba, is a very different question. About the right and duty, under certain circumstances, Governor Marcy, when at the head of the State Department, wrote in 1853:

"For many reasons the United States feel a deep interest in the destiny of Cuba. They will never consent to its transfer to . . . any other foreign State. It must be to the United States no cause of annoyance in itself, nor must it be used by others as an instrument of annoyance."

President Arthur, in his last annual message, urges a strengthening of our neutrality laws, but whether as against Irish dynamiters or Cuban filibusters, he does not say. If it be that bad government in Cuba is the source of peril, then the obvious rights of self-protection and of good neighborhood will permit President Cleveland to make very serious and peremptory representations at Madrid about the internal condition of the island, and especially if that condition be offensive and the offence can by Spain be removed. To ratify the pending treaty, and surrender thereby many millions of our present annual revenue to Cuba and take no guarantees for the prevention of excessive taxation, official venality, and stealing by Spanish officials in Havana, as well as for the prudent introduction of self-government into the island, would be most improvident and altogether childish on the part of the United States.

SLIPSHOD LAWS.

THE assembling of the legislatures of the various States for their winter's work has attracted fresh attention to the machinery of legislation, and produced many suggestions on the subject. All of these rest generally on the idea that most legislative work in the United States is defective and slipshod, that the laws are badly drawn, that they are passed without proper reference to and comparison with statutes already in force, that they are frequently jobs disguised as statutes. Governor Hill, of this State, in his first message, recommended that a lawyer be appointed as permanent legislative counsel to draft bills, to advise the members and committees with reference to proposed legislation, and to inspect the various bills before their final passage, so as to detect errors and imperfections, and to suggest necessary amendments. The necessity of taking some such step, he thinks, is shown very clearly by the fact that, during the session of 1883 in this State, some forty-five bills were recalled from the Executive Chamber, after their final passage, for necessary amendment and correction, while during the session of 1884 there were fifty such instances. The critics of the Governor's recommendation can only say in reply to this that such work ought to be done by the legislative committees themselves; but the evil to be cured is the fact that the committees will not do it. The only machinery for preventing bad legislation at Albany is the veto of the Governor, and the Governor now has to do the work of legal adviser to the Legislature, through the veto power, in a very clumsy way; *i. e.*, he has in most cases to correct defects in bills by killing the bills, when, if the Legislature could have been properly advised at the outset, amendments might have been made which would have enabled him to sign them.

In order to understand the necessity of some professional assistance, it is only necessary to recollect how lawless, so to speak, our legislative system is. The Legislature, in the first place, meets on the first Monday of January each year, sits as long as it pleases, and transacts business as hurriedly or as slowly as it pleases. A large proportion of both houses are absolutely without experience. No laws are prepared in advance by the Executive, or by any responsible body, though they may be of course by secret caucuses or committees. The first days of the session are spent in "fixing" the committees behind the scenes, in the interests of corporations and others who may desire private legislation. No notice is given of what private bills are going to be introduced. As soon as business begins, a great crop of bills are introduced, most of which are designed to give some person or corporation a special privilege under, or exemption from, the operation of laws binding on the community. These bills are drawn up not by the legislators who introduce them, but by lawyers privately retained and paid by the special interests behind the bills, and who, naturally enough, as long as they get what their clients want, care very little what the effect on the general body of the law may be. When the bills, thus prepared, get into committee, there are no rules of any value governing the procedure with regard to them. Those interested adversely have not necessarily any notice to appear; there is no attempt to take proof judicially, but "counsel" are permitted to make any statements they please. Toward the end of the sessions bills are hurried through pell-mell, without any actual previous consideration at all.

Now, there is obviously only one way to remedy this state of things, and that is to have the proceedings in committee assimilated in practice as they are in theory to judicial proceedings. A private bill is like a lawsuit. There is always a petitioner who asks the Government for something; there are adverse interests affected (*e. g.*, to take the commonest case, those of land-owners whose rights

a corporation wishes to expropriate); there are facts in the case which need to be known and which are usually in dispute, and the committee is the court which decides in the first instance, and in most cases finally, whether and on what terms the concession shall be granted. In the same way, though for somewhat different reasons, the procedure in the case of general laws requires supervision. These laws change the existing law of the State, and are rushed through without proper examination, just as private bills are, especially toward the end of the session. They are frequently merely disguised jobs.

The adoption of the system introduced in England over half a century ago, to regulate Parliamentary procedure, is the only method of reform which those who have given their attention to this subject have ever deemed practicable. It has been already introduced in a measure in Massachusetts. It embraces: 1st, the treatment of petitions for private legislation as matters requiring judicial inquiry, and the separation of them from general bills—a duty which would probably devolve upon Governor Hill's "legislative counsel"; 2d, public notice of all private bills to be given, and, whenever practicable, actual notice to adverse interests; 3d, the expenses of private legislative procedure to be borne by those who profit by it, the fees to be sufficiently large to prevent frivolous applications and to give a fund for the employment of experts and counsel by the committees if necessary, and a bill of costs to be taxed to unsuccessful applicants; 4th, an obligatory code of committee procedure to secure a fair trial of each case.

For the introduction of such reforms in this State, a constitutional amendment seems absolutely essential. Whatever may be the case in other States, there is, in our opinion, little or no hope of the Legislature here introducing any such system of its own motion, as the English Parliament did. The whole disposition of the Legislature is too deeply colored by sinister interests to make any voluntary action on its part likely, and a new law on legislative procedure would be subject to constant change and amendment. The friends of the reform must agitate for a constitutional amendment, which ought to prescribe certain elementary rules of justice, such as the requirement of notice, a hearing, the introduction of testimony, and some decent interval between the close of the hearing and the passage of the bill. These requirements made obligatory, and reinforced by the Governor's veto, the courts would do the rest of the work by holding void all acts passed in contravention of the new rules.

One of the most curious and instructive additions to the recent literature of this subject is the report of Messrs J. T. Platt, C. E. Perkins, and J. M. Hall to the Connecticut Bar Association, on the subject of a proposed revision of the laws of that State. Revisions were originally periodical collations of the statutes of a State, for the purpose of making the law more compendious and certain. An excellent and well-known piece of work of this sort was the "Revised Statutes" of this State, a compilation now some fifty years old, which has been continually altered, but seldom to be improved. In progress of time, revisions in all the States have become more and more frequent, and also more and more careless, and now in many States they threaten to degenerate into mere jobs to give the Commissioners work. The Connecticut lawyers to whom the matter has been referred, report that the statute law of that State is its "most uncertain" department, and that this is due to a considerable extent to the "frequent revising" it has undergone, and they accordingly recommend that the statutes of that State be simply let alone. The fact is, as every lawyer and most laymen know, that what we want is not more frequent but better and less law-making. It is obvious, however, that one excellent way to prevent the necessity of frequent revisions after laws are passed is to have them submitted to the most searching criticism and revision before their enactment.

A JUST MEASURE OF WAGES.

A YEAR or two ago the Pope laid his commands on good Catholics to solve the questions of social reform on the principles of religion, and to adjust the reward of labor and capital according to the precepts laid down in the writings of the Apostles and of St. Thomas Aquinas. A German priest, Father Weiss, has taken these commands to heart, and has published a monograph for the solution of the wages question on true Catholic principles. There has been not a little discussion, of a more or less metaphysical kind, among recent German writers as to the inherently just and natural law for determining wages; and it is not at all surprising that an active-minded priest, who sees this sort of discussion going on all around him, should apply to the great problem the ethical ideas which seem to him the true and eternal ones. He bases his argument on certain passages in Luke, Timothy, Romans, and the writings of St. Thomas Aquinas; and upon this basis constructs a strict mathematical formula for determining what are "just" wages, and what is a "just" return for capital.

At the very outset he draws a distinction as to what he means by wages. He says that the necessaries of life are no part of wages—the laborer must have and is of right entitled to enough to enable him to live; true wages, he says, consists only of the surplus over and above the "cost of producing" labor. Similarly, the capitalist is entitled to the return of his capital intact, and to interest on it. It is only what is left of their joint product after sustaining the laborer and reimbursing the capitalist, that really constitutes the fund to which our author applies his principles of division. We need not follow him into these principles and their consequences in detail. An algebraic formula is given, of which the basis is that the capitalist takes his share of the surplus in proportion to the amount of his capital, as compared to the amount of laborer's "capital" which the latter puts in. This laborer's "capital," we are told, is the capitalized value of the cost of producing him. The cost of producing him consists of those necessaries of life—that minimum of food, clothing, and shelter—to which the laborer was declared to be entitled at the outset. Multiply the annual amount of the necessaries of life by the average number of years, say twenty-five, that a laborer can work, and you get the total cost of producing a laborer. This total cost represents the "capital" which the laborer brings into the business—a capital to which he seems to be entitled by the laws of nature and justice. In the proportion that the united "capital" of the laborers bears to the "capital" put in by the employer, in such a proportion should laborers and employers participate in the surplus which is to be divided between them.

One cannot but smile at the intricacies into which the honest priest follows his principles, which represent to his mind the moral rules, founded on Holy Writ, which all good Christians should observe in fixing the wages of their employees. When the ethically just and right wages are deduced after this fashion to an exact mathematical certainty, the absurdity of the whole method of approaching the problem becomes so plain that there is no need of showing how absurd the details are. Yet is not such a writer doing essentially the same thing that our trade-unionists and strikers are doing when they demand "just" wages, or that politicians are doing when they promise laws for securing "fair" wages, or that many kind-hearted people do when they protest against "starvation" wages? All talk of this kind is based on the notion that there is such a thing as an abstract principle of ethics, by the help of which one can decide what wages a man is justly entitled to. We never think of anything of this kind when we come to make a bargain with a man for his labor; neither has it ever happened, nor can it ever happen in a social organization like ours, that any such principles will determine wages. Wages are fixed by the quantity and efficiency of the labor offered, and by the quantity of reward, *i. e.*, capital, which the employer has at command to hire labor with. Of course, there is such a thing as morality, a right and a wrong way in dealing with laborers, as in dealing with anybody else. If an employer tells a laborer that he is worth little, and refuses to pay him more than a pittance, when the laborer is really worth a good deal; or if an employer says he is overrun with applications for employment when he is not; or if he says he has little capital at command, and nobody else has any more, when in fact he has all the capital he wants and knows that his neighbors have also—in fact, if in any way he takes advantage of the ignorance or want of shrewdness of laborers to pay them less than some one else would give them, then his action is morally wrong, as it would be if he were cheating and deceiving anybody.

But how much the laborer is entitled to ask and get is a hard question of demand and supply with which notions of justice have nothing whatever to do. There is not even any just claim for the minimum wages necessary to keep a man and his family from starvation—a form in which the principle of ethics is often put forward in these hard times, and one which makes its appearance in a peremptory way in the scheme of our German priest. A man may be entitled to a subsistence as charity, but not as wages. The State may owe him a subsistence, and may give it to him under such precautions as it sees fit; but as wages from an employer, a man is not entitled to an atom more than the employer is willing to give in a free market.

SARDOU'S "THÉODORA."

PARIS, January 13, 1885.

HAVE you seen "Théodora"? Such is the inevitable question which Parisians address to each other when they meet. "Théodora" is in everybody's mouth. In the absence of any real social life, the first representation of a new drama by Sardou has become an event; and the great event was, as usual, prepared with the greatest art, with all sorts of rumors: the scenery will be more splendid than anything that has ever been put on the stage; *Théodora's* mantle, embroidered in silk and gold, will alone cost 10,000 francs; *Théodora* is ill, she will not be able to play; *Théodora* is better; *Théodora* is in despair, she has fallen into a state of deep melancholy; Sardou has been able to bring *Théodora* back to her work, and so on. The modern Athenians like to be amused in this way. This sort of charlatanism acts like bitters before dinner, and is meant to increase the appetite. "Théodora" is the third great drama of Sardou; the number of his light comedies is legion, and just now the first he ever wrote (the "Pattes de Mouche") is being played at the Théâtre-Français. It is well played, but it is found that its texture is somewhat too thin for the place. Sardou was very poor, very little known, when he succeeded in bringing out this light "Pattes de Mouche" at a minor theatre. This little comedy, which has all his defects and all his qualities, is made out of nothing; it shows no characters, no types; it leaves no trace on the memory. But it is full of life, it moves, it runs, it flies; it is clever, ingenious; it is amusing. Sardou is a great master in dramatic intrigue: he likes to make confusion, and to bring it to an end by the most simple and ingenious means—all the more ingenious for being simple. He is a prestidigitator, who can tie the most extraordinary knots and untie them at the proper moment. In the "Pattes de Mouche," for instance, there is a dangerous letter—a letter which, if it was read by somebody, would cause much mischief. What shall be done with the letter? It goes from one hand to another, from one place to another; it is half-burned in the fireplace; it is hidden in a dozen places; it is thrown out of the window, picked up in the street, and so on. You follow with some pleasure the fate of the letter, but you never quite understand its origin or its importance. The personages disappear—they are insignificant; the letter is everything.

I have mentioned this little piece because it is very rare for an author not to betray himself in his first work. Sardou is a dramatist, he is not a novelist; in these two words he is almost explained. Let us look at what he considers his important dramas—"Patrie," "La Haine," "Théodora." These are not light comedies, made to last for a while, to flatter some transient feeling, to expose some folly of the day. In these three dramas Sardou has really given all he can give; he looks on them with complacency, they are his favorites. All the means which the modern theatre can place at an author's disposal have been exhausted in order to bring these dramas before the public. "Patrie" showed us the local color of the Netherlands during the revolt against the Spaniards; "La Haine" gave us the local color of Vienna in the middle ages; "Théodora" is a restoration of Byzantium during the reign of Justinian.

Sardou is a victim of the ruling passion of what we call bric-à-brac. He has surrounded himself at Marly with a complete museum; he collects, he instructs himself as to the minutest details of an epoch. This mania is innocent in an individual; it may even be useful when it serves to unite precious relics of the past. But what is the use of a pasteboard collection (and the properties of a theatre are nothing but pasteboard)? What is the use of all this local color, which is more or less false, and which adds absolutely nothing to the æsthetic beauty of a play? You can perhaps give me a Justinian resembling the real Justinian as much as one of Madame Tussaud's wax figures resembles the original. What is it to me, if he is but a doll, and is not the real Justinian in thought, in language, in sentiment? M. Sardou would probably say that he not only professes to give me the dress of Justinian, but that he has studied Procopius and others, and that he has made a real Justinian, a theologian occupied with subtilties, an Emperor married to an adventuress, a coward, a tyrant, and a slave at the same time. It is not enough; his *Justinian* has no life for all that; he has, so to speak, no identity. It is not enough to attach a few traits, or words, to a personage—you might as well do as was done in some old miniatures, paint a tower and a town and write beneath it: "This is Jerusalem." What I say of *Justinian* might be said of all the other characters. *Théodora* may resemble in dress the prostitute whom an imperial caprice placed on the throne: the ornaments she wears may be copied from the ornaments which are seen on the walls of Ravenna; you may cover her as much as you like with diamonds, precious stones, with barbaric ornaments—what is all that to me? Is the theatre a school of archæology? It will never give me but a second-hand and limited acquaintance with the past.

"Le moindre grain de mil ferait mieux mon affaire."

So it is with all the characters of the play. *Théodora*, with all her extravagant dress, is, after all, nothing but a Parisian lady of the *demi-monde*, transported to an exalted sphere, who sometimes has nostalgia for her former life. She is married to a Prince, but she loves a poor young man, and goes to see him incognita. The poor young man is named in the piece *Andreas*. He is a Greek, full of old Hellenic notions, and naturally wants to give free institutions to his country and to break the rule of *Justinian* and of the wicked *Théodora*. He conspires against the woman who comes in disguise to see him in his little garden on the Bosphorus.

That is really the whole piece, the whole drama. *Andreas* and *Théodora* sing (the word is not inappropriate when you think of the silvery voice of Sarah Bernhardt) long love duos, and you, the witness—you know that *Andreas* will sooner or later find out that his love is spent on the Empress, whom he despises, and hates, and wishes to destroy. Here certainly was a ground for a true drama; but the psychological element is too completely, too constantly sacrificed to the materialistic element—I can find no better word to express my thought. The natural play of human passions is never enough for Sardou; he is like a painter who neglects his picture and works too much on the frame. What a frame was not this! Must he not show us the palace of Justinian, with its mosaics; his court, with innumerable servants, eunuchs, priests; with his general, Belisarius, and his guards? Now we are in the apartment of the Emperor: we see the old lamps burning; gold glitters everywhere. Now we are in the Hippodrome: we see the long *spina*, with its columns and statues, the long arcade, against the blue sky. We see the iron bars of the cages of the lions; here come gladiators, and here the coachmen of the Greens or of the Blues. Now we see Saint-Sophia in flames, and we hear the noise of the populace in revolt, and attacked by Belisarius. We seem to be present at a representation in the Circus. The Emperor enters the imperial box, in his purple toga, and blesses the people, in the consecrated manner, with a corner of the purple toga in his hand. This would be all very well in an opera, though I doubt if even the finest music would not suffer somewhat from such a constant, such a dazzling exhibition. I can only speak for myself, but I doubt whether I should like "Esther" or "Athalie," masterpieces as they are, played with too much Oriental luxury. Do not distract my mind too much; let me hear in silence the divine verses:

"O mon souverain roi,
Me voici donc tremblante et seule devant toi."

When *Esther* recites these verses, I would think of nothing but her, I would see nothing but her; whatever takes my mind off the sublime heights to which the poet has lifted me, will only irritate me.

It is quite true that there are no sublime heights in "Théodora." I will not speak of the style—it has no style at all. The Emperors, Empresses, Franks (there is a Frank Caribert for the occasion, come to pay homage to Justinian), gladiators, Greek philosophers, all talk as people do between the Bastille and the Madeleine, in this year of grace 1885. The incongruity between their language and their costumes is at times almost painful. Sardou is evidently not in the least conscious of it. He is a Parisian and his audience is made up of Parisians. He cares not for words, but for action. If *Théodora* leaves the imperial palace and goes to see *Andreas*, does she not sufficiently show her love? Why should she try to analyze her feelings too much? They are extremely simple. So are those of *Andreas*; as soon as he sees the Empress in *Théodora* he abominates her at once; he is not at all upset by the consciousness of what he owes to her. So even love becomes thoroughly materialistic in this drama. Sarah Bernhardt and her lover seem to understand admirably this form of love, and they give an air of reality to their passion which is quite in harmony with all the rest; for as we have real gladiators, real instruments of torture against the conspirators, a real Belisarius, a real Justinian, why should we not have real love, love in a hurry, such as you might imagine it between Balzac's Mme. de Nucingen and her dear Lucien de Rubempré?

In the end *Théodora* is found out, and she is strangled by order of the Emperor. The true Theodora died in her bed, but history has been sacrificed a little here; for nobody knows how to die so well as Sarah Bernhardt. She presents her neck to the rope of the executioner with an inimitable grace. Without her, I doubt whether the piece could be played at all. She is always herself. She throws rays of poetry across all this materialism; without her this combination of the opera, of the Circus, of the Hippodrome, of Mme. Tussaud, of the Eden Theatre, would be unbearable for a person of taste, notwithstanding all the beauty and variety of the scenery, all the cleverness of the author, all the rapidity and movement of the action. It would only leave a sense of profound regret at the incongruity between such an effort and such an end, and at the progress of decadence in a country where the pleasures of the mind are so completely subservient to the pleasures of the eye.

THE GAINSBOROUGH EXHIBITION.

LONDON, January, 1885.

THE present exhibition, though very full of interesting examples of Gainsborough, disappoints at first many of his admirers by the absence of several of his best-known works, viz., the portrait of the two fascinating sisters, Mrs. Sheridan and Mrs. Tickle, that of Mrs. Graham, the lady Ligonier (the fair and false "Penelope" who won the heart of Alfieri), the full-length of the beautiful Miss Linley, etc. The familiar "Blue Boy" has the most conspicuous place in the west gallery (the principal room). We note the careful treatment of the satin costume—breeches, stockings, and shoes, all more highly

finished than usual with Gainsborough. The manner of this picture reminds us more of Vandyke, whom Gainsborough always sought to emulate, than any other work in the gallery. The harmony of blues, from warm full bluish green gradually fading into blue-white, is very delightful; the head is full of tone and solidly painted. Another highly finished example is Sophia, Lady Sheffield. It is full-length, standing in a landscape; dressed in blue and toned white. A large blue hat, very well painted, shades her face; the draperies are studied and arranged with care, and are not dashed in conventionally as in so many instances here. The portrait of William Pitt is a serious, well-studied portrait, which looks very life-like, but is conventional in the treatment of red-curtain background and less careful than the other portraits of Mr. Pitt. The portraits here show Gainsborough not merely a successful painter of pretty women, although for grace of pose and arrangement few have equalled him. His portrait of the famous Lord Chesterfield at the age of seventy-six is full of character and modelling; the lined face has a wicked character, the mouth a scoffing expression which well suits the man. He looks wizened and dried up. The color is severe and appropriate. The Dr. Johnson, on the opposite wall, in a snuff-colored coat, his head a little bent forward by age, is an example of excellent modelling, and brings before us far more vividly than the portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds the cynical old doctor. The famous portrait of Garrick is here also (there is a print of it in the *English Illustrated Magazine* for December). It seems heavy in color—black about the coat and brown in the landscape; the face is clear and well modelled. The portrait of the artist is a very finely studied piece of portraiture; that of his wife is quite one of the best, the face is so full of expression, the color is so delicate in the half tints, and the look of a beauty already faded is so tenderly given. The hands even are better indicated than in most cases, the right being raised in the momentary action of holding back a black lace veil which encircles the head. They are wanting in bony structure, as indeed are *all* the hands and arms in the exhibition. The dress is of pink and white, the background brown. We notice in this two dabs of color on the nostrils to bring out the nose in greater relief, evidently added after the picture was finished and curiously rough in touch. These only appear when one looks carefully into the painting, but a still worse *repentir*, showing that Gainsborough could not have had much patience in repainting, occurs in the vivid, expressive head of a young man (John Viscount Bateman). The face is turned away; there is extreme individuality in the eyes and nose and excellent rapid painting. The brown locks prove that Gainsborough could paint unpowdered hair; but the line of the jaw has been hastily taken in by simply drawing a thick brushful of brown paint over it—this rough treatment strongly contrasting with the dainty collar and blue-satin jacket which finishes the work.

"Henry F., Duke of Cumberland," is a most harmonious little portrait: the bright red coat is so rich in tone, and contrasts so agreeably with the pale blue waistcoat, over which passes a broad blue ribbon with an order. The Duke holds a black three-cornered hat in his hand. In the portrait of Tenducci, the tenor, the lips are parted, the eyebrows uplifted as he looks at the music. The rich pale-olive complexion catches the eye at once, among so many English portraits. Very much in the worst style of Gainsborough is the portrait of Lady Eardley and her daughter. The lady stands holding a baby on a stone pedestal; it is badly drawn and carelessly painted. "Mrs. Walker," on the other hand, is one of the most admired of the portraits. It represents a plain, elderly woman, with a gray soft cap round her face, tied with a black ribbon. The dress is of darkest blue velvet, cut square, the neck entirely covered with a thick white fichu inside the velvet dress. The head is excellently modelled, and every detail most carefully painted, quite with Dutch-like precision. A most charming sketchy portrait, that of Mrs. G. Elliott, born Dalrymple, a lady whose life seems to have been sufficiently adventuresome, is most syren-like in its sweet voluptuous smile, complexion quite living in its downy blush, and strange fascinating eyes, with marked black eyebrows—an impression of a lovely woman very different from impressionist work of to-day. The painter's younger daughter, Mary, with head thrown back, playing a guitar, is in the same slight manner in which Gainsborough seemed to delight to paint handsome women, while he treated the plainer ones with more care, seeking to give modelling and individuality. There is also to be remarked the standing portrait of the beautiful Duchess of Devonshire, slovenly in the dirty-white draperies. A portrait of her when she was a little girl is admirable, and one of the best child-portraits shown. The little white cap, the fair hair cut over the forehead, the individual little face, the white dress with pink ribbons, so clean and pure in painting, and yet so unobtrusive, are very delightful. Another small sketch of this lady in grisaille seems to be a scheme for the famous stolen portrait. The equally famous "Colonel St. Leger" is conventional. The horse and landscape are fine, but the head is less studied than many.

In the east gallery, one of the most striking pictures is Lady M. Lindsay, a beautiful blonde with pale golden hair, in a black, admirably painted dress. She stands in a silver-gray landscape. The dress shows how Gainsborough could paint black without making it heavy. In this room there are several examples of a method of painting quite unlike his usual style—very pasty and bad in color, all of them. "The Cottage Girl" is the sweetest child-picture I have ever seen—so pathetic in its innocent expression and so admirable in color and detail; while the "Milk Girl" is very heavy in color throughout, in the girl's face especially, which is red and hot and brown.

We have many landscapes here, very different in artistic merit, the larger examples being the least beautiful. The figures and foreground are dark, the trees conventionally treated with much brown to suit much blue distance. They are harmonious in spite of impure color—the blues so green, the greens so blue, and the browns so warm, with just a splash of toned white for water (generally a brook), and sky, and a few reddish cows in the foreground. To these "The Harvest Waggon" is a notable exception, for it is very luminous. In Lord Tweedmouth's picture, a landscape with figures and cattle, the distance reminds us of Turner at his best. The smaller landscapes are much more realistic and very lovely in rendering effects of nature, as well as very varied, too, in subject. "A Study" represents a storm: the clouds are full of movement, the old oak on our left looks blown about and battered, and the herbs in the foreground (especially a hemlock) are beautifully painted. In a small landscape owned by Lord Clifden, only 9½ x 12 inches, the color is glowing: the road is bathed in sunset light, and the whole most luminous and true, and very carefully made out. The portrait of Thomas Sandby and his wife is a charming Watteau-like composition, very sweet in color and graceful in movement.

The water-color drawings of Richard Doyle are well known from the books in which they have for the most part appeared—elfs and fairies on mushrooms; charming sprites riding on bats through gray sky and landscape; witches driving large broods of young dragons; fairies and elfs flirting, and such like. The Hamelin Piper is one of the principal works. The Piper, followed by hundreds of children, is coming toward us, while the town, bathed in blue morning mist—a real German mediæval town by a riverside—forms an elaborate and beautiful background. The drawings of heads in pencil and in water-color are extremely weak and amateurish: the landscapes, too, when from nature direct, are weak in color and washy. The pen-and-ink sketches are full of character and humor, but the drawing is always defective, although the fantastic creations are full of beauty and poetry.

Correspondence.

VOWS IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for January 22d is an editorial paragraph which shows a curious misapprehension of the grounds upon which many in the Episcopal Church object to the "*Order of the Holy Cross*," and similar societies. When *you* are misled, it is reasonable to believe that the case is not as simple as many suppose.

No one questions Bishop Potter's motives, and it is very rarely indeed that there is any reason to question his wisdom. In this case, however, his earnest longing to use every weapon against the adversary, seems to have led him to snatch up a weapon which is likely to cut his fingers.

The practical view of the matter would certainly seem to be, as you say, that "any man who thinks that he can do good work better by taking a vow of some sort of self-denial, does well to take it, with whatever solemnities he thinks necessary." That is true, *provided* the vow does not conflict with the terms of some previous contract to which the man has agreed. In the case of the clergy of the Episcopal Church it happens to do so. Each one of them at his *ordination* took a vow of *subordination* to a written law to which he attached his signature, and to a constituted authority to whom he gave an audible oath. The gravamen of the charge against a priest who joins a new "order" is, that by doing so he is guilty of a breach of faith which he has pledged at his previous ordination. Of course he does not think so, but our contention is that, as an honorable man, he has no right to act upon his conviction until he has *to that extent* secured a release from his previous obligation. This release the Church so far has distinctly declined to give. The technical objection to the action of the Assistant Bishop is that it is *ultra vires*.

In the case of "sisterhoods" this objection does not hold, inasmuch as they are not hampered by any precontract. Nor is it accurate reasoning to use the officers of an army as an illustration. It is true they do swear "poverty" and "obedience" at any rate. But the true statement of the case would be this: Three army officers determine to constitute an "Order of the Field of the Cloth of Gold," we will say. Its purpose is to penetrate some particularly difficult lava beds and exterminate some specially untractable Modocs whom ordinary military operations have proven hopeless to subdue; and the society is to be a perpetual one for similar purposes. They take the vows of "poverty," "chastity," and "obedience," fortified by the sanctities of a *sacrament* (*i. e.*, a military oath). Their brother-officers—the whole service, in fact—objects. They say, "You may burn your pay and give away your emoluments if you see fit, after you once take them; but so long as you

remain in the service, we insist that you shall sign the pay-rolls and take your money like the rest of us. To do otherwise will tend to disorganize the service. As to the vow of 'celibacy,' we do not care a rap whether you marry or not, but *keep quiet* about the matter, and do not make of yourselves marked men whom it would not be fitting to employ upon certain delicate duties to which you may hereafter be assigned. The third vow, of 'obedience,' we simply will not tolerate. There is only one kind of obedience possible to an officer, and to that you have already sworn."

Now, suppose they persist, and organize the "Order of the Field of the Cloth of Gold," and get ready to proceed against the Modocs? When they returned from the expedition, they would find themselves broken for "conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman." Any army or navy officer can say whether or not this is correct.

Then, besides this, they would not be successful against the Modocs. It is the sincere opinion of those who are disturbed by the establishment of the "Order of the Holy Cross" (that is to say, by the overwhelming majority of the Episcopal Church), that the wish which lies so near to the heart of the noble Bishop Potter cannot be achieved by any such agency. The reason of their conviction is this: they have seen similar agencies tried, with comparatively so little results, and attended by so much confusion and trouble, that they are unwilling to have the Church's name (in which they have a property right) lent to the support of what they deem to be a mischievous experiment. They are disturbed all the more because the name of the Assistant Bishop of New York is such a tower of strength that it can sustain almost any weight which may be fastened upon it.

They are still further disturbed to find from the letter of the Bishop that in this case the vows are not to be received at their face value. By a private understanding, they are not irrevocable, but terminable at somebody's will. That is, instead of burning their bridges behind them in order to inflame their courage, they have only locked the gate, and thoughtfully left the key where they can lay their hand upon it if they should be too hard pushed. * * * *

PHILADELPHIA, January 22.

[We feel reluctant to argue with a clergyman upon questions of ecclesiastical law, but, taking our courage in both hands, as the French say, we will deny that the vows taken by the members of "The Order of the Holy Cross" "conflict with the terms of any previous contract to which the man has agreed," or, to be more particular, conflict with his ordination vows. The vow of chastity and poverty certainly does not do so. No clergyman is pledged to marry, or to get or keep money. The vow of obedience to the chief of the order is taken, we maintain under correction, subject to the vow of obedience to the Bishop. There is no monastic or quasi-monastic order, in the Protestant Church at least, whose ordained members claim exemption from episcopal authority. Our correspondent's military illustration seems to us all at fault. A good analogy would be a vow of implicit obedience to the commander of a corps of irregulars, detached, with the permission of the general-in chief, on special service. Nobody would think this vow inconsistent with the military oath.—ED. NATION.]

THE GREEK OF THE FUTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article in the *North American Review* for November, 1884, on "Herbert Spencer's Latest Critic," by Prof. E. L. Youmans, is a comical illustration of what we might expect if the editorial views of the *Popular Science Monthly* upon classical studies should unhappily prevail. I have no intention of discussing the article as a whole, which is a defence of Mr. Spencer against an attack of Prof. Isaac L. Rice; I wish merely to show how certain people who decry the study of Greek as antiquated folly are compelled to get their knowledge of Plato, when they need it, and what kind of knowledge they get. Professor Rice had criticised Mr. Spencer for alluding to Plato as one who made "state-enactments the sources of right and wrong," and had said that, although such language was uttered by Thrasymachus in the 'Republic,' it was "exposed and castigated by the unpitying irony of Socrates the philosopher." None but a brave man would have ventured to dispute this statement; and, whatever Mr. Spencer may have meant by his casual allusion to Plato, he certainly did not refer to the doctrines advocated by Socrates in the first book of the 'Republic,' nor will he thank Professor Youmans for coming so valiantly to his rescue armed with the well-known argument by which Socrates there silences Thrasymachus.

Professor Youmans begins with the bewildering statement that "the dispute between Socrates and Thrasymachus is whether the 'just is something that is expedient' simply, or whether it is that which is expedient to 'the more powerful'; and that the disputants do not differ (!) with regard to the authority of the State is shown by a passage on the next page." How, now, does he get at his passage of Plato which is to establish this astounding opinion? The old-fashioned way would be, of course, to go to Plato and see what he says. But our new lights have a far better way of getting at Plato than by going to him, as they have long been preaching to us; and we need not be surprised that our reviewer, when he tells us that he "turns to the dialogue," really turns to a very different thing, Bohn's translation of the 'Republic,' which he (apparently without intended sarcasm) calls "a standard authority." From this he borrows the following precious argument between Socrates and Thrasymachus, which he publishes as "Plato":

"Tell me, do you not say that it is just to obey governors? Yes, I do. Are the governors in the several States infallible, or are they capable of error? Certainly, said he, they are liable to err. When they set about making laws, then, do they not make some of them right and some of them wrong? I think so. To make them right, then, is to make them expedient for themselves; and to make them not right (that is), inexpedient; or how mean you? Just so. And what they enact is to be observed by the governed; and this is what is just? Of course. According to your reasoning, then, it is just to do what is expedient to the stronger, while the contrary is what is not expedient; what say you? Replied he, I am of the same opinion as yourself."

After this, Professor Youmans has no hesitation in proclaiming his adversary vanquished.

Let us see, however, what Plato really says; and let it be remembered that the passage in question does not contain a single sentence or a single word about the meaning of which there can be the slightest dispute. It is found in 'Repub.' I., p. 339 B-D, where Socrates proceeds to reduce to absurdity the doctrine of Thrasymachus that justice is "what is for the good of the stronger," "the stronger" being "the government of the State." (I insert *S.* and *T.* to show the speakers, in place of "said I" and "said he."

"*S.* You doubtless say, further, do you not, that it is just to obey the rulers?—*T.* I do.—*S.* But are the rulers in the several States infallible, or are they liable to make occasional mistakes?—*T.* Certainly, they are liable to make some mistakes.—*S.* When, now, they undertake to make laws, do they make some rightly and some wrongly?—*T.* I think they do.—*S.* And is making them rightly making them for their own advantage, and is making them wrongly making them for their own disadvantage? Or how do you mean?—*T.* I mean just this.—*S.* And whatever they enact, the subjects must do; and this is justice, is it?—*T.* Of course it is.—*S.* According to your argument, then, it is just to do not only what is for the advantage of the stronger, but also the exact reverse of this, what is for his disadvantage.—*T.* What is this that you are saying?—*S.* It is, I believe, just what you say."

Mr. Rice had also called Mr. Spencer to account for naming the three parts of the human mind in Plato's psychology "reason, will, and passion," instead of "reason, high-spirit (the seat of indignation and similar emotions), and desire," corresponding to the three classes of citizens and the State—guardians or rulers, warriors, and common citizens. To help Mr. Spencer here, Mr. Youmans brings up the following explanation (?) from the same "standard authority":

"The Republic of Plato is a development of the analogy between the ideas of the perfect man and the perfect State. . . . He opens the inquiry with a kind of analysis of the human mind, which he divides into three parts—first, the rational or reasoning principle (τό λογ'στιδκόν); secondly, the spirit or will (τὸ Ινμίκὸν or Ινμοιβὲς); and thirdly, the appetite or passion (τὸ ἐπιδνμητικὸν); which last, however, indicates nothing beyond that vital impulse which leads from one sensation to another. . . . He then proceeds to classify the members or parts of his ideal Republics. These he classes under three heads or divisions, corresponding with the faculties of the soul—viz., 1, The βουλευτικὸν (counsellors), those who employ reason in the contemplation of what best suits the State; 2, The ἐπικουρικὸν, those who aid the βουλευταί with a ready will; 3, The Χρημᾶτιστικὸν who are bent on gain and selfish gratification."

We can hardly conceive of a statement less calculated to give anybody real light either upon the Platonic State or the Platonic psychology. First, Plato does not confine himself, in the discussions of the 'Republic,' to either the perfect man or the perfect State. Secondly, he does not "open the inquiry" with the analysis of the mind and then proceed to classify the parts of the State to correspond with the mental faculties; he follows just the reverse order, and makes the State the model in his psychology. Thirdly, the added explanation (?) of the third element in the soul effectually conceals what is sound in the previous clause. Fourthly, who would ever detect the military class in the State under No. 2 in the classification which follows? Fifthly, the account of the mass of citizens as "bent on gain and selfish gratification" is a strange reproach, especially upon the citizens of "a perfect State." The Greek is copied here *verbatim et literatim* from the *Review*; and we can imagine the malicious pleasure with which Professor Bowen might read it (with the help of the original Plato), reflecting on the ancient days when the *North American*, under his direction, was the glory of the American Athens.

We must all feel grateful to our reviewer for giving us this timely warning of what might be in store for us in the future; although it is a little hard to be thus "tormented before our time."

Yours truly,

W. W. GOODWIN.

CAMBRIDGE, January 22, 1885.

WEST POINTERS OF THE CONFEDERATE STATES ARMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Recognizing as I do my own humble obscurity, in comparison with the world-wide renown of the distinguished principals in the so-called Sherman-Davis embroglio, I do not presume to inject myself into that unfortunate controversy. But being a West Pointer, and having read in General Sherman's letters, in the reports of remarks of members of the United States

Senate, and especially in the editorials of some of the leading papers of our country which were inspired by the controversy in question, such words as "traitor," "treason," "treachery," etc., coupled with "cadet," "West-Point graduate," "former officer of the United States Army," etc., I feel that it is not presumption to beg a brief space in your columns to put myself at least right on the record. I do not claim to speak for any West Pointer but myself, yet I believe that I shall express the sentiments of the majority of those who cast their lot with the Southern States when I expose, as I intend to, my own.

I was graduated from the United States Military Academy in 1859. I am a Virginian by birth, but was reared from an infant in Alabama, and my parents resided in that State in 1854 when I was nominated to a cadetship by the Hon. Samson W. Harris. I have, therefore, always considered myself as an Alabamian. As a cadet at West Point I considered myself as much a representative of Alabama at the National Military Academy as my Congressman was her representative in the national legislature. When I was graduated, and commissioned a brevet second lieutenant of Engineers in the United States army, I considered myself as a part of Alabama's quota to the Federal army, for purposes of national defence. All this, with the doctrines of States' rights, State sovereignty, and the principles of loyalty, fidelity, and devotion to one's native State had been instilled into me from my earliest childhood. As noble a father as a boy ever had, believed these doctrines and principles to be not only sound but *constitutional*, and taught them to me. I had heard him discuss them and reiterate them a thousand times in public and in private. I had heard my Congressman enunciate the same principles in most eloquent terms in his campaign speeches. No wonder then that I was imbued with them.

So, when Alabama seceded on the 11th day of January, 1861, and I was informed of the fact by Gov. A. B. Moore, then Governor of the State, in a telegram which closed by ordering me to resign from the United States army and report as soon as practicable to him at Montgomery, my *duty* seemed perfectly plain. It was a terrible duty to perform. I well remember the bitter, sleepless night I passed in its contemplation before I could bring myself to its performance. My whole life's dream of honor, usefulness, promotion, and perhaps fame, as an officer of the Corps of Engineers, was rudely dispelled. I saw perfectly clearly that all that I had toiled for at West Point for five long, hard years, and all the bright anticipations of an honorable career in the army, which my two short years of army life had but made more bright, were gone for ever. And yet the *duty* had to be done. And on the 13th of January, 1861, I tendered to the President of the United States the resignation of my commission in the Corps of Engineers of the United States army. In that resignation I stated in effect that Alabama, the State from which I was appointed, having seceded from the Federal Union, I no longer had a right to hold a commission in the Federal army, and my duty to my State demanded that I should obey her call to return to her; and therefore, with the deepest regret, I tendered the resignation of my commission, to take effect on the 1st day of February, by which time I trusted that I should be relieved from all responsibility for public property in my charge.

My resignation was accepted, and an engineer clerk was sent to me, at my post, and to him I turned over all United States property and got a receipt in full. Then came the second hard trial in the beginning of this dreadful drama. I had charge of the construction of a fort on the coast of Florida. The first day of February, 1861, was a beautiful, bright, warm but breezy day. The broad "star-spangled banner" which floated from the flagstaff of the fort, stood straight out from its halyards, and as I looked up to it to bid it farewell, I thought it had never looked so proud, so bright, so beautiful before. With hat off, and tears in my eyes, I bade it "good-by," and started for Montgomery. And that was the saddest journey of my life.

Now, Mr. Editor, I have told you the "truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth" in regard to my leaving the United States army "to join in the rebellion," to use the official phrase. Did I act like a traitor plotting treason and treachery? Was I a cruel conspirator engaged in a deep-laid scheme to destroy the United States Government? Was I ever false to my oath to support the Constitution of the United States, according to my understanding of it? I myself feel that none of these charges can be laid at my door. I know that throughout the whole fearful ordeal, I acted strictly in accordance with the dictates of my conscience; and it was that consciousness alone that enabled me to go through with it in such a manner that I can say to-day that I did nothing but what I conceived to be my duty. There was no ambition, no self-seeking to support me and lure me on. On the contrary, it was a sacrifice of self from beginning to end, from a sense of duty. And such I believe were the feelings and sentiments of every West Pointer who left the Federal army to join the fortunes of the Confederate States. Some of them were much older than myself, and may have had much more decided political convictions than I. But I honestly believe that politics in the ordinary sense of the word had nothing to do with the actions of the officers of the army. They left the army because their States seceded, and they believed it was their duty to do so. Many of them, like myself, may have doubted the policy of secession; many of them, I doubt not, were opposed to secession; but when their States declared themselves out of the Union (as we believed they had a right to do), nothing was left for most of the Southern officers but to go with their States. Yet some of them remained in the army, and to those I give all credit for having acted in accordance with their convictions of duty. They took a different view from myself of the conditions and circumstances which made our case a peculiar one. They had a right to their views, and a right to act as conscience dictated. I have never harbored a harsh feeling against them, nor uttered a reproachful word about them. I can easily understand that it was not perfectly clear to every one that the course I and so many others pursued was the one which the highest duty marked out. The questions brought out by those terrible times were very hard ones to solve; many cogent and almost convincing arguments were found in favor of both sides of all of them. It is but the simplest charity, therefore, for all true Americans to believe that every man who was willing to risk his life in support of his convictions was, at least, honest in those convictions. And if honest, then he could not be a traitor, could not be guilty of treachery and conspiracy.

In fact, Mr. Editor, I do not believe there is a man in the United States who sincerely feels that Gen. Robert E. Lee was a traitor. If so, then Washington was a traitor, and not Arnold; for no man has lived in America since Washington who was more exactly his peer and parallel than General Lee. And this reminds me that Washington was the first great American rebel. As such he was known and styled for eight long, dark, and doubtful years, until he succeeded. Then even the mother country recognized him as a revolutionist. So that rebellion is but unsuccessful revolution. And such rebels we of the South acknowledge ourselves to have been, and only such. Even though we did not succeed, I trust I shall yet live to see the day when our Northern brethren will have the magnanimity to expunge that word rebellion from their histories of our great civil war. Nay, more, I do believe that, if I shall live to the span of life ordinarily allotted to men, I shall see our Northern brethren not only willing to cease from calling us rebels, but willing to acknowledge that what we fought for was worth fighting for. I freely acknowledge that what they fought for was worth all the sacrifices they so freely and nobly made. They fought for union, and strength, and the perpetuity of our glorious republic. We fought for liberty, self-government, and the autonomy of States. Both are foundation-stones of our government. Both are necessary for its preservation. Take either of them away from the foundation, and the grand structure erected by our fathers will topple and fall. "Liberty and Union, one and inseparable," is the true motto of our country.

Finally, in all that I have written, I have not intended to criticise any living soul, least of all to say aught against Gen. W. T. Sherman, whom I know personally, and for whom I have the greatest admiration and respect. I know, from favors received from him, that his big heart is brimful of kindness to us whose lives have been very hard because we were on the other side. I know that he is straightforward, honest, and upright in all that he says and does. I am sorry that he and Mr. Davis should have passed unpleasant words, for Mr. Davis, too, I think, is a good man. In fact, the two men are alike in many respects—both of strong character, strong convictions, strong impulses—and are only enemies because their convictions have carried them to extremes in opposite directions.

Respectfully, S. H. Lockett,
Class of '59, U. S. M. A.

[We print the above out of respect to the writer, and not because we can well afford the room, or think the discussion profitable at this date, either in or out of Congress.—Ed. Nation.]

PLAIN DEALING WITH "THE MASSES."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Doctor Holmes, in his recently published book on Emerson, says:

"Our Republican philosopher is clearly enough outspoken on this matter of the *vox populi*: 'Leave this hypocritical prating about the masses. Masses are rude, lame, unmade, pernicious in their demands, and need not to be flattered, but to be schooled. I wish not to concede anything to them, but to tame, drill, divide, and break them up, and draw individuals out of them.'"

The author then says:

"After reading what Emerson says about 'the masses,' one is tempted to ask whether a philosopher can ever have 'a constituency' and be elected to Congress? Certainly the essay just quoted from would not make a very promising campaign document."

And yet we know of a philosopher who had "a constituency" about whom he had said much harder things than the above-quoted sentiments of Mr. Emerson. John Stuart Mill has given in his 'Autobiography' an account of his candidacy for Parliament. He says, after referring to the address issued by him:

"My frankness on all other subjects on which I was interrogated, evidently did me far more good than my answers, whatever they might be, did harm. Among the proofs I received of this, one is too remarkable not to be recorded. In the pamphlet, 'Thoughts on Parliamentary Reform,' I had said, rather bluntly, that the working classes, though differing from those of some other countries in being ashamed of lying, are yet generally liars. This passage some opponent got

printed in a placard, which was handed to me at a meeting, chiefly composed of the working classes, and I was asked whether I had written and published it. I at once answered, 'I did.' Scarcely were these two words out of my mouth when vehement applause resounded through the whole meeting. It was evident that the working people were so accustomed to expect equivocation and evasion from those who sought their suffrages, that when they found, instead of that, a direct avowal of what was likely to be disagreeable to them, instead of being affronted, they concluded at once that this was a person whom they could trust. A more striking instance never came under my notice of what, I believe, is the experience of those who best know the working classes, that the most essential of all recommendations to their favor is that of complete straightforwardness; its presence outweighs in their minds very strong objections, while no amount of other qualities will make amends for its apparent absence."

Further on he says: "I was returned to Parliament by a majority of some hundreds over my Conservative competitor."

Perhaps, then, "the philosopher" whose words Doctor Holmes has quoted might have had "a constituency" and been elected to Congress, had he so desired, in spite of the harsh words he had written about the masses.—Respectfully,

S. Watson.

Nashville, Tenn.

MR. CABLE'S CREOLE DIALECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the Note in your last issue on Mr. Cable's "Freedman's Case in Equity," I should like to call attention to the criticism of Mr. Cable's writings in the New Orleans *Times-Democrat* of January 11, 1885, continued in the same paper on January 18. This criticism is particularly noteworthy, since written by the greatest of Creole authors, Charles Gayarré. In it Judge Gayarré repeats a remark made by him to me some time ago, that Mr. Cable, just after the 'Grandissimes' appeared, acknowledged that *he was not personally acquainted with two Creole families.* Turning from this criticism, which is certainly one of the most scathing I have ever read, I should like to make two statements in regard to Mr. Cable's productions.

When about six numbers of 'Doctor Sevier' had appeared in the *Century*, in speaking of it to a friend, I said I found it strange that a negro should hold such a position as Narcisse occupies. "Why, you jack," said my friend, "Narcisse is supposed to be a white man." I had been living in New Orleans all my life, associating with Creoles as schoolmates and friends, and it was not until then that I learned that the language of an intelligent Creole, such as the bookkeeper of Doctor Sevier must have been, was that which I had never heard used except by the blacks, and even these might be limited to the fast-disappearing slaves of *ante-bellum* times. The date of the 'Grandissimes' is about the beginning of the present century. The characters speak this dialectic darling of Mr. Cable's. This broken English is supposed to be generally used. Now, it is certain that at that time fewer people in Louisiana—that is, of the Creoles—knew a word of English than can now speak Latin. Any one who has any idea of the amount of culture the average Louisianian has, will see at once the impossibility of this part of the 'Grandissimes.'—Yours very truly,

Charles B. Stafford.

Tulane University, New Orleans,
January 19, 1885.

A SUM IN UNITED STATES CURRENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a very entertaining and suggestive volume called 'Economic Problems,' recently published by Professor Sumner for the use principally of his students at Yale, the following problem is proposed. If any of your readers will take a pencil and work it out, I think they will not only be greatly surprised at the result, but will gain a fuller appreciation of the enormous losses which can be inflicted on the industrious masses by stupid or ignorant economic legislation:

"In 1880 the nickel in a five-cent piece was worth three cents. The silver in four quarters or ten dimes was worth eighty cents—'cents' being hundredths of a gold dollar. A, B, and C each paid a five-cent fare. A paid with a nickel five-cent piece. B gave a trade dollar which was taken for ninety cents. He received three quarters and a dime in return. C gave a gold dollar and received three quarters and two dimes. What value in gold did each pay for his ride?"

According to my arithmetic, the answer is three, twenty-two, and twenty-four cents, respectively. I. J. W.

Philadelphia, January 19, 1885.

Notes.

Mr. William A. Hovey, formerly editor of the Boston *Transcript*, has prepared a work on 'Mind Reading and Beyond,' which is now in the press of Lee & Shepard. It is largely a compilation from the reports scattered through the six numbers of the Proceedings of the London Society for Psychical Research, and will contain engravings illustrating the experiments described.

The Book Fellows' Club is the name of a little group of book-lovers here in New York who intend from time to time to print limited editions of the selected poems of their favorite poets. Last year they put forth their first volume, containing certain of the poems of Mr. Frederick Locker. This year they have issued 'Songs and Ballads,' by Edmund Clarence Stedman. The little book, beautifully printed by T. L. De Vinne & Co., contains just thirty poems, most of which are illustrated, not too successfully. The book is further adorned by an etched portrait of Mr. Stedman, by his book-plate, and by a graceful introductory poem written by Mr. H. C. Bunner at Mr. Stedman's request.

Mr. A. Lang's 'Ballades and Verses Vain,' published here last year by the Scribners, was in the main a selection from two English volumes, 'Ballads and Lyrics of Old France' and 'Ballades in Blue China'; it also contained the poems Mr. Lang had written since the latter publication. These new poems, with others still later, have now been gathered into 'Rhymes à la Mode' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co; New York: Scribner & Welford), a dainty little volume intended solely for the English market, as it contains not a few of the lyrics included in the American 'Ballades and Verses Vain.' But 'Rhymes à la Mode' is made of interest to American readers by a delightful little vignette by Mr. E. A. Abbey, which serves as a frontispiece.

The growing series of "Classics for Children," issued by Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston, has been augmented by Kingsley's 'Greek Heroes,' edited with explanatory notes (too elevated in style) and some changes in the spelling of proper names, by John Tetlow; and Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' edited by Edwin Ginn, with a life of Sir Walter, an abridgment of the 'Tales of a Grandfather,' notes, and a map of the Scottish lakes.

The 'Edwin Arnold Birthday Book,' edited by the poet's daughters (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.), is disfigured by printing the famous births along the margin instead of under each date, in the usual manner.

The fourth of Mr. Howells's peculiarly American plays, "The Elevator," has been reprinted (from *Harper's Monthly*) by J. R. Osgood & Co. in pocket form.

Keats in a shape for the pocket, and in scrupulous conformity to the three editions of his work published during his lifetime and under his supervision, has hitherto been a desideratum. Mr. F. T. Palgrave has undertaken to supply it, and puts out, through Macmillan & Co., a handy, and in the main attractive, little volume of the poetical works, each line thrice compared with its several originals. A few explanatory and critical notes have been added, with appropriate extracts from Keats's letters. For completeness' sake, the posthumous poems are included in this collection, though lacking their author's *imprimatur*; and the whole is offered as "a companion for the fortunate moments of travel or the country."

With Part 23, Harper & Bros. conclude the serial publication, in their Franklin Square Library, of the eighth edition of Stormonth's 'Dictionary of the English Language,' so that the whole work unbound costs a little less than six dollars. The American appendices are enlarged by the addition of the Constitution of the United States, which must be regarded as a happy thought, since our charter is a good thing to have in the house, and cannot well be bound up with the family Bible. In the nature of things, the last well-edited dictionary should be, in many respects, the best of its class, the class here being neither the illustrated nor the encyclopædic.

Despite what we said the other day of the occasional foreign complexion of our leading monthlies, the two bound volumes (68 and 69) of *Harper* for the past year show a strong infusion of American nationalism. Mr. Bigginson's major history of the United States, which has been running in the magazine, needed to be illustrated with portraits, and so we have a remarkable gallery of Presidents, Vice-Presidents, and statesmen, coming down to the beginning of the anti-slavery movement. This array is offset by the monarchs and other great English personages depicted in connection with the papers on "The Great Hall of William Rufus," which the dynamiters have now done so much to "put in evidence." In the tours of the world which our magazines contrive to make annually, the readers of *Harper* for 1884 have been able to journey almost continuously from Victoria across the continent by way of the two northern lines of railroad, the great lakes, and the St. Lawrence, with liberty to touch at Queenstown, on the Yorkshire coast, at Biarritz or at Trouville on the French coast, in Holland (thanks to Mr. Boughton's artistic strolling), at Copenhagen, at Mentone on the Mediterranean; with the Nile and Sardis still to come. Emerson, Whittier, Tennyson, Charles Reade, Sidney Smith, J. D. Hooker, and Darwin (with a magnificent early portrait) are among the literary and scientific worthies here commemorated afresh. Wm. Black's 'Judith Shakspere' has been the principal serial.

The physiognomy of *Harper's Bazar* (Vol. 17) for the same period is not so readily described; but that of *Harper's Weekly* (Vol. 28) can be briefly outlined by naming as the subjects of its chief illustrations the floods of the Ohio and Mississippi Valley, the Cincinnati riot (how near and yet how far!), the Greely Relief Expedition, and the Presidential campaign, in which the editor and the caricaturist were signally in accord, and did such effective work in behalf of the better cause.

While Philadelphia is very far from being the first book-publishing city in the United States, it is the only one, we believe, in which a book-firm exists a hundred years old in the direct line of the founder. Lea Brothers & Co. celebrate, in a modest little retrospect entitled 'One Hundred Years of Publishing,' the rounding of a century since their great-grandfather, the celebrated Mathew Carey, began to print books as well as

periodicals. There came to his successors a time when the field of general literature, which they had so actively worked, became less profitable than a special department promised to be—that of medicine namely; and this is now well known to be the specialty of the firm of which Mr. Henry C. Lea was until lately the head, he himself making an occasional innovation by publishing his own remarkable historical studies. It is worthy of note that a division of the business of Carey & Lea in 1829 led to the establishment of another house, Carey & Hart, now Henry Carey Baird & Co., Mr. Baird being a grandson of Mathew Carey, and being likewise entitled to point to "one hundred years of publishing."

The annual report of the Light-House Board to the Secretary of the Interior for the year ending June 30, 1884, is adorned with a frontispiece reproducing an old engraving of the first light-house built within the limits of the United States —in Boston Harbor, namely, in 1716. Coming to the contents, we have been especially interested in the account of the trials experienced in building a light-house on the dangerous Saint George's Reef opposite Crescent City, Cal. The rock and the sea were obstacles enough, but this narrative also shows clearly the penny-wise and pound-foolish policy of Government in making niggardly appropriations for necessary public works, and in making them at the close of the session instead of at the beginning.

Little by little, private enterprise is doing the proper work of the Government in cataloguing and advertising and selling its own publications. Mr. John H. Hickcox, Washington, D. C., sends us the first number of his *United States Publications*, a monthly catalogue, which "will include publications of every description printed by order of Congress, or of any of the departments of Government, during the month preceding the date of publication." Twenty pages, 8vo, are needed for the January number. The entries are very intelligently made, the cross-references are numerous, and the typography tasteful and accurate. Such a periodical cannot fail to be appreciated by Congressmen, and will of course find its way into every library. Examination will reveal an unexpectedly large number of subjects having a public interest quite apart from mere legislation.

As January is the favorite month for new periodical enterprises, two other first numbers are before us—the *Collegian* and the *Spectator*. The *Collegian* is to appear monthly, being issued from No. 55 Pine Street, in this city, and is to be devoted primarily "to the interests of colleges and their graduates." A "Veterinary Department" seems a queer feature. A convenient chronological register of American colleges overruns the cover. The *Spectator* is a Boston enterprise, semi-political, semi-literary, with some not obvious connection with the Webster Historical Society (of which it gives a list of members). The intention of the proprietors is to make it ultimately a weekly. The place of publication is the Old South Meeting-house: a Boston notion, truly.

Outing for February is a very inviting-looking number, the illustrations being abundant and, as usual, of good quality. It opens with a paper on "The Mont Blanc of Our Switzerland," by J. R. W. Hitchcock, the mountain in question being known as Rainier to those who respect priority of discovery, and as Tacoma to purists. The ascent is difficult and perilous, and few have succeeded in it, and probably no two parties or individuals have taken exactly the same routes in coming or going, so that Mr. Hitchcock's narrative may safely be called fresh as it is readable. He does not appear to have reached the summit, his objective point being the glaciers.

At a late meeting of the London Society of Architects, papers were read describing a new plaster (Hitchin's), which can be set up dry; a new asbestos paint, which absolutely protects woodwork from burning, though it lets it char; and a new rock composition, called Hygeian, which keeps out not merely water, but all moisture. If we can protect our houses completely from fire and damp, and when building them do not have to wait for weeks while the plaster dries, the millennium of the building art must be at hand.

The Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society for January contain a paper by R. G. Haliburton, a son of the historian, entitled "A Search in British North America for Lost Colonies of Northmen and Portuguese." The first part is devoted to an attempt to show that Vinland must have been the west coast of Newfoundland, the story of the grapes being an invention to attract settlers—a method practised successfully before by the Northmen in the case of Greenland. The rest of the paper is derived from a work by Señor Ernesto do Canto, of San Miguel, Azores, consisting mainly of "documents connected with the family of the Corte-Reals, the explorers and first governors of north-eastern America." From these it appears that the Portuguese, under one Fagundes, settled in Cape Breton in 1521, probably remaining some years. In 1567 they made a second attempt to found a colony on this island, while a third settlement was made by the Spaniards in the same place between the years 1580 and 1597. It is possible that some mounds at St. Peters, Cape Breton, which tradition says were there before the coming of the French, and in which an ancient gun was found some twenty years ago, are remains of these early settlements.

Teachers of history who wish to present the characters and customs of past times vividly before their pupils, will find Weisser's 'Bilderatlas zur Weltgeschichte' (Stuttgart: Paul Neff) very serviceable. It consists of fifty numbers, containing usually three sheets each—146 in all—extending from the earliest times to the French Revolution. It might very easily have been made better. In the first place it gives disproportionate space to ancient history—eighty-eight sheets, or ninety-five if we reckon those which depict the early Christian Church. This is probably because ancient history affords so much more abundant material than mediæval. A second fault is, that the plan has been to give a large number of small pictures rather than a few large ones. Consequently, there are a great many portraits of relatively insignificant persons, while the really great men have scant justice done them. A more serious fault is, that a great many of the illustrations are not historical except in their subject. The four sheets of Old Testament history, and the four of the life of Christ and the times of the Apostles, as well as several of Greek mythology, are composed of the designs of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and other later artists. With all these defects the work is of great value, containing portraits of all the most famous men of history, most of them fairly good, and some excellent; also illustrations of costumes, trades, armor, etc.; and, in the time of the Reformation, several interesting caricatures, *e. g.*, from the 'Passional Christi und Antichristi' of Lucas Cranach. Each sheet has a page of description. It is sold at the very low rate of 50 pfennigs (half a mark=12½ cents) a *Lieferung*, making the whole work cost 25 marks, or between six and seven dollars; so that, even if one could often wish it better, the purchaser will at any rate get ample return for his money.

The high importance of the drama in France is indicated by the number of *L'Univers Illustré* for January 3, 1885, which is almost wholly given up to the great event of the Parisian theatrical year, the production of M. Victorien Sardou's 'Théodora' at the Porte-Saint-Martin Theatre, with Mme. Sarah Bernhardt as the frail heroine. *L'Univers Illustré* gives us a portrait of the dramatist, a facsimile of his MS., a sketch of his library, and a view of the gates of his park, together with two full-page pictures of the chief scenes of the play, a page of costume-sketches, and a facsimile of the score composed by M. Massenet for one of the songs in the play. Among the literary contents of the paper is a translation of Irving's 'Rip Van Winkle,' made timely by the production in Paris of M. Planquette's operetta 'Rip.'

M. Victor Fournel has followed his excellent collection of the comedies of the "Contemporains de Molière" with another of the "Petites Comédies rares et curieuses du XVIIe Siècle" (Paris: Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern). Into the first of his two beautifully printed volumes M. Fournel has gathered seven comedies bearing on different points of literary history. One, for instance, is on the rivalry of beauty between the sonnets on Job and on Uranie, and another is on *bouts-rimés*. In the second volume are collected five other little plays, bearing rather on manners and customs. M. Fournel introduces each play with a brief biographical sketch of the author, and appends linguistic and literary notes at the foot of the page when needed.

—The February *Atlantic* continues its serial stories, of which the interest has been already noted, and among its "occasional" articles there is none preëminent. The *pièce de résistance* is the second paper on the Salon of Madame Mohl, which is more varied than was the former one, and more directly concerned with the Salon itself. The celebrities dealt with are Thiers in his youth; Julius Mohl, of whom a "portrait" is given; Jean Jacques Ampère, Chateaubriand Madame Récamier, and Loménie—all in brief strokes. Madame Mohl herself receives the largest share of attention; and the arrangements, the material simplicity and intellectual air of the Salon, and the mode of conducting conversation, are dwelt on with much effect, as the contrast with the general spirit of the Second Empire is strongly brought out. The nature article is an account of Boston winter birds by Bradford Torrey, in his usual vein, and it will prove a surprise to many Bostonians to find the number and kind of birds that haunt the Common and the Milldam. At least one catches the local touch in the author's remark, as he impersonates the promenader on a Sunday: "Yes, yes! English sparrows, of course; we haven't any other birds in Boston nowadays, you know." It appears that our faithful robin has been seen every month except February. The revival of the study of antique art is treated by Mr. Liscomb under one of the most extraordinarily inappropriate titles we ever saw, "The Quest for the Grail of Ancient Art"; and art, especially the feeling of the Renaissance, is also involved in the review of Vernon Lee, whose last work, however, receives no attention, being presumably reserved. Doctor Holmes contributes some pleasant paragraphs about his biographical labors and the curious identity that arises between the author and his hero in such employment, and a few words of farewell to the recently demolished Holmes house at Cambridge—a Revolutionary landmark of which the familiar sight was dear to many generations of Harvard men.

—*Lippincott's* for February has a predominantly foreign interest. This is marked in the new instalment of its vulgar serial, "On This Side," in which the English party is introduced to the reader; but in the other articles it is both more pronounced and agreeable. The oft-told story of the steerage passage between New York and Liverpool is again pleasantly written, and in "The Palimpsest of Paris" we have a semi-his-

torical travel-sketch; while more solid matter is furnished in the history of the gradual increase of popular representation in Parliament, and in the brief résumé of the principal points of the Prussian civil-service system. The concluding article is a suggestive inquiry as to whether there has been the same æsthetic development in children's nature, manners, education, etc., as in their garments. The scene, it is true, is on a hotel piazza, but it is not in such places only that one finds the children almost too lovely until they open their mouths to speak.

—Under the title "Pullman: A Social Study," Mr. Richard T. Ely, who has before written somewhat on socialism from the politico-economic standpoint, gives in the current *Harper's* an account of the community near Chicago, in which some people would fain foresee the model of the "industrial group" of the future. Here above 8,000 souls are gathered, and live under the supervision and largely in the employ of several independent but associated manufacturing companies. The annual product of their labor is reckoned in millions, and the owners, under the leadership of Mr. George M. Pullman, have endeavored to apply some part of this wealth beyond the necessary wages-fund for the benefit of the producers. A town has been built with attention especially directed to cleanliness, house-comforts, and a certain kind of beauty; there is a library, a theatre, a hotel—in a word, it is, in all its appointments, the best of the sort of towns that the history of the West has shown can be manufactured quickly and to order, and it stands single in its interest because the enterprise has been directed by one board of control, and has recognized as a chief end the good of the laborer. If any of our readers desire to know how Pullman looks externally, he will find its pleasantest features, without the glare and crudeness and "squattiness" that it shares with all Western towns, in the pictures and the text. Mr. Ely, in this part, had only to use his eyes and to buy photographs. But he found difficulty in getting at the interior of life in this community; the officers were slow to talk, and the employees and tradesmen also thought discretion the better part of conversation. In one way or another, however, he seems to have penetrated into the matter, and his report as a student interested in social experimentation is of much value, in spite of the obstacles in the way of investigation.

—The first point is, that philanthropy in this case is an investment, and, moreover, a paying one. Streets, houses, sewage, all things needful to a healthy, comfortable, and pretty town, were made economically but well, and rents so placed as to return ten per cent. on the outlay. The second point is, that there is, properly speaking, no civic life in the community, but, on the contrary, the citizens are taken care of on the patriarchal plan, under an arbitrary power in comparison with which that of Bismarck over Germany would be designated as democratic. Nothing is given to the laborers outright, because presumably it would be charity, and charity is corrupting to the manhood of the recipient; and nothing is left to the government or decision of the laborer, but the ruling power looks after his interests unassisted. There is no newspaper, for there is no popular judgment to be addressed, no criticism to be allowed. Churches must pay rent, and this, apparently, acts as a prohibitive tariff on public religion. Leases can be vacated by the owners on ten days' notice, without cause assigned. It is not necessary to enumerate more of such notable and significant features. If a wealthy corporation provides brick houses and wide streets and ornamental flower-plots, a theatre of real beauty, and a library-room (which is one of the most elegant that the writer has ever seen), it is a very creditable thing. Health, home, the opportunity for growth in intelligence, for amusement in pleasant surroundings, and for some cultivation, however rudimentary, of the sense of beauty, are among the things most ardently desired by friends of the workingmen everywhere. But if with these advantages goes the condition that the corporation shall have power to dismiss from employment, to turn out of the community on ten days' notice, to suppress individual initiative, criticism, and public expression of opinion—in fact, to govern without the least practical regard to the will of the governed—those who believe that the good of the laborer is indivisibly united with democratic institutions will think the philanthropy of material comfort, which, after all, pays ten per cent. interest to the corporation, incomplete. What do the workmen themselves think of it? Mr. Ely says they do not stay long in the place. In fact, an "industrial group" so governed is as alien from the republic in which it exists as is the Mormon "industrial group." It can no more become the social unit of the future than the national character can become Asiatic, a compound of tyranny and torpor. The great illustrative value of the Pullman experiment lies in its proving the feasibility and especially the financial economy of such expansion of the scope of capital in its relations to labor. The second step will be taken when the workmen, having developed, instead of suppressed, their powers of combination for administrative purposes, through the influence of democratic institutions, shall be able to place their own trustees in the seats of "the officers," and appropriate the ten per cent. rent to their own wages fund. Meanwhile, the town of Pullman, politically speaking, can only be regarded as a sort of Carlylese institution. A man, he said, should be as well taken care of as a horse; and that seems to be the ideal here practically achieved. The only sign of change is that workmen are now to be allowed to acquire titles on tracts of land adjoining the settlement. This is the first indication that the managers perceive that, though a town can be manufactured as well as a car-wheel, a social state must grow. The attempt to found a city and run it as a public institution, without regard to the underlying principles of our nationality bred into the race by a thousand years of ever-increasing popular liberty, is one of the strikingly characteristic phenomena of a machine-making age. It is not socialism: it is the complete autocracy of corporate wealth; and, as in all autocracies, the good done under the good tyrant must die when his successor is enthroned.

—The *Century* is fairly divided between literature and war. James, and Mark Twain, and Howells with a double portion, place the number on a high level of work, and Stedman gives a fresh study in his series on our American authors, in writing which he is so leisurely—the subject this time being Doctor Holmes. In attempting this critique Mr. Stedman faced unusual difficulties, for the place the venerable Autocrat fills is rather in the hearts than in the brains of his readers—in their kindly and truly social appreciation. His manner is that of talk, and criticism of it must always seem superfluous if not irrelevant. Mr. Stedman, however, has turned the corners cleverly enough. Much curiosity has been felt to see how General Grant would treat the military subjects upon which articles by him have been announced. There is always likely to be an exaggerated expectation of new light which is pretty surely doomed to disappointment. Badeau's 'Military Life of Grant' has been understood to have been prepared under the active supervision of the General himself, and the article upon Shiloh will strengthen instead of weakening this impression. The story is the same, with only such modifications as the rules of personal narrative would impose upon the author. The imputation of injustice to Halleck and of dilatoriness to L. Wallace are not withdrawn. The assertion that the arrival of Buell's army, while a welcome aid, was not a necessary condition of safety or even of victory, is reiterated. We do not notice any new presentation of facts bearing upon these controverted questions, though it is something to have the avowal of personal opinion from the chief actor in the scene. The circumstantial statement of Grant's personal movements upon the field, and his whereabouts at different hours, is, of course, authoritative, and will be useful in settling controversies which have turned on these points. The narrative is clear, unaffected, and simple in style, as well becomes such a man in writing of such events. The illustrations of scenery and the portraits have the double charm of authenticity and admirable execution which have characterized the series. The larger portraits of Buell, of Sidney Johnston, and of Beauregard will be every way worthy to stand as the final presentation of the true features of those officers; and the smaller ones of the two Wallaces, of Hardee, and of Breckinridge are hardly inferior. That of General-Bishop Polk in his Episcopal habit is also excellent, though the garb emphasizes the singular contrast between the functions of the man. The sketches of battle scenes are supposed to be necessary to complete the illustrations, but we think men "who have served" will generally find them painfully inadequate, almost as a matter of course. Col. Preston Johnston's article upon his father's part in the campaign of Shiloh is avowedly based upon his extended memoir; but it is none the less a model of literary handling in the choice of its points, its condensation, and its clever painting of the features of General Johnston's character which give dignity and attraction to his history. The *Century* has carried its purpose of hearing both sides so far as to add General Jordan's article as an antidote to the imputations upon Beauregard's generalship which are found in the article by Colonel Johnston.

—The *Law Quarterly Review* is the title of the latest addition to English professional periodical literature, published at Oxford (Charles C. Soule, Boston, is the American agent), and having among its contributors a number of well-known men. The editor is Prof. Frederick Pollock, and to the opening number Mr. Justice (Sir James) Stephen and Prof. A. V. Dicey also contribute. Mr. Dicey's article is of considerable interest to American readers, as it discusses the principles which underlie "Federal Government." He gives an excellent exposition of the actual working of our Constitution, and points out that in the Swiss Republic and in the Canadian Dominion the Federal principle seems to be at work producing results somewhat similar to those we see about us here. Mr. Dicey thinks that the position of the judiciary, and its established function of treating acts of the legislature in conflict with the Constitution as void, are the result of Federalism—that is to say, that they would never originate in a non-Federal state. Conservative Americans will perhaps find curious confirmation of the truth of this suggestion in the fact that the further we get away from Federalism—that is, the more centralized we become—the less willing the Supreme Court seems to be to exercise this function in critical cases. It was Marshall who outlined the Federal view of the judicial function, and he did the work when the Union was a nearly untried experiment. The legal-tender decision, establishing sovereign undelegated powers in Congress, seems to be a long stride in the direction of a "unitarian" government. It may, of course,

be said that there is really no necessary connection between Federation and the judicial control of the legislature. If the Union were split up again into sovereign States, would not the constitutional limitations upon legislative power be still applied by the courts in each one of them, just as they are now? It is the aim of the editor to make the *Review* include the discussion of current decisions not merely in Great Britain and her colonies, but in the United States as well, the consideration of topics of proposed legislation before Parliament, the treatment of questions of immediate political and social interest in their legal aspect, inquiries into legal history, antiquities, and institutions, Continental jurisprudence and legislation, and current legal literature. The next number will contain an American contribution on Early English Equity, by Judge O. W. Holmes, jr., of the Massachusetts Supreme Court.

HOLMES'S EMERSON.

Ralph Waldo Emerson. By Oliver Wendell Holmes. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THOSE who recall the graceful and felicitous tribute to Emerson uttered by Doctor Holmes before the Massachusetts Historical Society, need not expect to find in this book a prolongation of the same poetic treatment. That would be like asking Herrick or Andrew Marvell to compile another Boswell's Johnson. Nor can this memoir be tried by the standard of ordinary biographical works—those which tell us, for instance, a good deal about the life of their supposed subject. In truth, very little is here added to what we before knew of Emerson's career, while the greater part of what others have gathered is here omitted. Viewing the book merely as a memoir, the reader is disappointed; but taking it for what it is, a detailed review of the *opera omnia* of one man of genius by another, with running annotations, grave, gay, learned, and witty, it becomes both valuable and attractive. This is the form, evidently, in which Doctor Holmes has conceived his work—two-thirds of the pages (roughly estimating) being made of this sort of commentary. This is evidently done, to some extent, as task-work, though in a loyal spirit. There is a good deal that suggests the scissors and paste; and sometimes in the later pages, when the annotator comes back to the charge for the hundredth time, and says of an essay, "If I must select any of its wise words, I will choose," etc. (p. 299), the reader is disposed to recall little Alice's answer when Humpty Dumpty says, "If it comes to that, I can repeat poetry as well as any one"; and he is tempted to reply hastily with Alice, "O, but it needn't come to that." And yet, when we think how many capital sayings, how many delicious *obiter dicta*, are scattered through these four hundred pages—how many single phrases here occur that we should recognize as the Autocrat's if we came upon them in the desert of Sahara or the Congressional Debates—we are ready to pardon everything to the inexhaustible lapidary who thus fills our hands with gems.

Such phrases occur, for instance, when he compares Thoreau to one who insists on "nibbling his asparagus at the wrong end" (p. 86), and Bowen reviewing Emerson to "a sagacious pointer making the acquaintance of a box-tortoise" (p. 104); when he says that men describe themselves in the characters they draw, and adds, "One must have the mordant in his own personality, or he will not take the color of his subject" (p. 75); when he points out that "there is a kind of harmony between boldly-contrasted beliefs like that between complementary colors" (p. 133); when he compares Emerson to those "living organisms so transparent that we can see their hearts beating and their blood flowing through their glassy tissues" (p. 421)—but why go on with illustrations that simply prove the Autocrat to have preserved the freshness, not of his youth indeed, but that of his middle period of life, which was much better? It is delightful to find him even breaking a lance in behalf of Emerson's one mild approach to a debasing sensuality—pie. Holmes stoutly declares pie to be "a good creature, at the right time and in angles of thirty or forty degrees." He says that it is only in semicircles and quadrants that it is dangerous, and bids us observe that Emerson escaped dyspepsia, while eating pie, although Carlyle became a martyr to it on oatmeal (p. 269). And the same merit that attaches to the biographer's own scintillations belongs also to the good things that he preserves; as when he records—taking it from Professor Thayer's little book, to be sure—the commentary of the *Alta California* upon Emerson's lecture on Immortality: "All left the church, feeling that an elegant tribute had been paid to the creative genius of the Great First Cause, and that a masterly use of the English language had contributed to that end" (p. 267).

It is among the most conspicuous deficiencies of this memoir that it leaves us almost wholly uninformed as to two of the most important aspects of Emerson's earlier life—his relations to the anti-slavery agitation and to the so-called transcendental movement. In both cases there is an obvious lack of personal knowledge, not filled by any assiduous inquiry. In the days when Emerson was in his prime, Holmes was but lately returned from Europe, full of zeal for his profession and his art—medicine and poetry; the latter then belonging almost wholly to the department of *vers de société*. It is pretty evident from some of his verses of that period—for instance, those on Jean Paul, whom he called "a German-silver spoon"—that transcendentalism simply bored him; while toward the anti-slavery agitation he probably had the usual prejudices of his social and professional circle, though not in any acrid form. On these two important and almost controlling aspects of Emerson's life, therefore, he was as unsympathetic as Ticknor or Everett; and though he makes some slight effort to describe that part of Emerson's environment, the sketch has neither amplitude nor life. He deals with Emerson as literature alone, and scarcely alludes to his surroundings. Where he does he is often in error: for instance, he utterly underrates Emerson's relations to the abolitionists, with whom he says that he "had never been identified" (p. 304). It is impossible to say what Doctor Holmes means by being identified; Emerson no more merged himself in any anti-slavery society than in the "Saturday Club." But there is no doubt that from the day when his great address on West India Emancipation was delivered at Concord (August 1, 1844), the abolitionists, who were not at all given to claiming or even recognizing any half-converts, always accounted Emerson as their own. Doctor Holmes says of the Concord oration: "This discourse would not have satisfied the abolitionists" (p. 181), but he could easily have ascertained whether it actually did satisfy them or not by stepping into the Boston Public Library and looking at a file of the *Liberator* for 1844. He would then have perceived at once that the mere fact of Emerson's speaking at that time and place and on that subject was an act of self-identification with the unpopular party. The 1st of August was their day—a day of rejoicing, far more than the then incomplete and unsatisfactory associations of the 4th of July; it was their day, and nobody else celebrated it. As to the Concord meeting, they had tried in vain to obtain any church for it; but being refused, "to the disgrace of the town," as the *Liberator* said, they obtained the town-hall. The other speakers of the day were of the straitest sect of abolitionism—Frederick Douglass, Samuel J. May, and William A. White; and these assembled fire-eaters then and there unanimously asked a copy of the address for publication. After stating these facts, Garrison goes on to say: "All who were at the meeting, so far as we have seen, concur in praising the address *as a most satisfactory performance*"—the italics being ours. Which, now, is entitled to speak with authority as to the satisfaction of the abolitionists—Garrison at the time, or Holmes forty years after? As a matter of fact, the address satisfied them so well that Wendell Phillips for years kept a supply of the pamphlet to give to the more fastidious critics of the anti-slavery movement—"upper-crust scoffers" he used to call them—for the removal of their prejudices; and Emerson in return was sufficiently content with the abolitionists to be a contributor to the *Liberty Bell*, their annual volume. After he had also committed himself against slavery in a speech at Cambridge, and had there been heartily hissed by the Southern law-students—a fact which Doctor Holmes does not mention—there was no longer any doubt on which side Emerson belonged. Men with ropes around their necks generally know who are their friends.

Something of the same deficiency that mars Doctor Holmes's treatment of Emerson's anti-slavery attitude is likewise found when he comes to treat the "transcendental" movement. There is a disproportion almost absurd in giving six pages to the *Monthly Anthology*, because it was edited by Emerson's father, and only five pages to the *Dial*, into which Emerson put so much of his own intellectual life. Even of those five pages, nearly four are taken bodily from the Emerson-Carlyle correspondence, which is in everybody's hands. It is possible that the omission may be due to the fact that this period has already been well delineated in other volumes of the series. It is certainly a proof of the still living interest in that particular intellectual movement that four of the eight volumes of the "American Men of Letters" series have been devoted to its leaders; but, after all, each volume in the list should have a certain completeness in itself, even at the risk of some repetition. As a result of this want, we have Emerson isolated, whereas he can only be fitly viewed as the centre of a group.

As we go through the book, we find here and there some minor misapprehensions. Thus Doctor Holmes, like Matthew Arnold, makes the mistake of quoting in full (p. 187) Emerson's characterization of the Whig and Democratic parties of forty years ago, and assuming it as still valid of the Democratic and Republican parties of to-day; the fact being not only that the lines are changed, but the positions almost reversed. Another minor error we find where we should least have expected it: in the account of the *Atlantic Monthly* and the "Saturday Club." Doctor Holmes says, truly enough, that these two things were wholly distinct; but he leaves curiously out of sight a "missing link," which he can have only momentarily forgotten. He says that "the 'Atlantic Club' has been spoken of as if there was or had been such an institution, but it never existed" (p. 222). Yet this is only technically true. No formal organization ever bore that title, perhaps; yet it was a name often applied informally to a series of dinners held monthly at the Revere House while the magazine was yet in charge of Phillips & Sampson. Those who met at these dinners were, so to speak, the early staff of the *Atlantic Monthly;* and they included the men who were also the nucleus of the "Saturday Club"; thus, in a general way, connecting the two. They also included the Websterian presence

of Mr. Phillips, the senior publisher, and the jocund companionship of his ally, the best story-teller in New England, Mr. John C. Wyman. Mr. F. H. Underwood, then assistant editor under Lowell, organized the dinner and collected the dues. At only one of these dinners, we believe, were ladies present; the exception being an entertainment given to Dr. and Mrs. Stowe, in the year 1859. Other ladies were invited, but through some mishap none attended except Miss Harriet Prescott, afterwards Mrs. Spofford, who had just risen into fame through her first story, "In a Cellar." There were also present Holmes, Lowell, Longfellow, Whittier, Edmund Quincy, Higginson, Woodman, and a few more. A little shadow was thrown over the entertainment by the absence of wine—this exclusion being expressly stipulated by Mrs. Stowe. It was noticed that some glasses of water, sent out to be replenished, flushed with a suspicious hue on their return; and Longfellow privately suggested that the younger lady might be invited to send down into her cellar for some of the wines she had so well described, since the elder would allow none up stairs. Mrs. Stowe sat on Lowell's right, who was said to have endeavored to convince her that 'Tom Jones' was the best novel ever written; while Doctor Holmes taxed his lively wit in demonstrating to Dr. Stowe that all swearing really had its origin in the pulpit. There are those still living who can recall the astonished face of that reverend divine when his host gravely asserted that there were whole families in Boston upon whom the Fall of Man had never had the slightest visible influence—as, for instance, the Wares. We dwell on these details to convince our readers, and the Autocrat himself, if necessary, that if there never was an Atlantic Club, there were at least some very lively "Atlantic" dinners.

But all these deficiencies may be regarded as minor matters, since the main interest which will attract most readers to the book will lie in those literary estimates of which it chiefly consists. The very fact of the great difference in quality, if not in grade, of genius between the author and the subject will enhance this interest to the highest point. So remote, in truth, are the two men, that the book might almost be entitled 'Contributions to the Natural History of the Wood-Thrush, by a Canary Bird.' Sometimes, to our amazement, we find the two very dissimilar warblers singing the same note, as when Holmes endorses, with evident heartiness, Emerson's famous Divinity Hall address. Yet the divergence soon appears when the mystic bird of the woods sounds a note too high. Thus, Emerson's essay on "The Over-soul," in which so many have found, or thought they found, a jubilant delight, is to Holmes only a "rhapsody" (p. 172); and he speaks with what can only be called contempt of the "Essay on Immortality" (p. 292). But we must take a man, or a bird, for the notes that he can reach, not for those which do not properly belong to his genus or sub-order. On the whole, the criticisms on Emerson's prose, though they sometimes appear tame or perfunctory, are sympathetic as to the matter, and not unappreciative in respect to the manner; but it is when the critic comes to the poetry that we see how two fine minds may meet, despite all variations of temperament. Even here we find some criticism that is merely academical, as where Holmes complains of the redundant syllable in Emerson's line—

"By his own meek and incorruptible will"—

and calls it a "span-worm line," lifting up its back in the middle (page 329). One is led to suspect the critic of being rather led away and captured by his own stroke of wit, as will sometimes happen—for his span-worm objection would work destruction on many of Milton's finest cadences; and of Shakspere's—

"The multitudinous seas incarnadine"—

would leave not a trace.

It is a satisfaction to find, after this specimen, that when the same style of academical treatment is carried still further by Mr. Matthew Arnold, Doctor Holmes is all ready to protest against it, and declines, as it were, to allow any one else to prescribe for his venerated patient. He very neatly disposes of the main strength of Mr. Arnold's well-known criticism on Emerson's poetry by showing it to be vitiated at the outset by a misapprehension of Milton's phrase, on which it rests. It is a favorite rhetorical method of Matthew Arnold—and one which may, in time, become a mannerism—to take some weighty maxim or other statement of a favorite author, assume it as an axiom, and proceed to deduce propositions and corollaries. The plain limitation of the method is that the chain of inferences can never be stronger than the peg on which it hangs. In Emerson's case the axiomatic point of departure was Milton's supposed definition of poetry—"simple, sensuous, passionate." Holmes does not trouble himself about Arnold's chain of inferences, but strikes boldly at that which supports it, and down comes the peg. Milton, as he points out, never gave those three adjectives as his definition of poetry, and would have been very much at fault had he done so. These are Holmes's words:

"The passage containing this must be taken, not alone, but with the context. Milton had been speaking of 'Logic' and of 'Rhetoric,' and spoke of poetry 'as being less subtile and fine, but more simple, sensuous and passionate.' This relative statement, it must not be forgotten, is conditioned by what went before. If the terms are used absolutely, and not comparatively, as Milton used them, they must be very elastic if they would stretch widely enough to include all the poems which the world recognizes as masterpieces—nay, to include some of the best of Milton's own" (p. 315).

Arnold's dictum being thus neatly set aside, Doctor Holmes undertakes to make his own estimate, and begins thus:

"In spite of what he said about himself in his letter to Carlyle, Emerson was not only a poet, but a very remarkable one. Whether a great poet or not, will depend on the scale we use and the meaning we affix to the term. The heat at eighty degrees of Fahrenheit is one thing, and the heat at eighty degrees of Réaumur is a very different matter. The rank of poets is a point of very unstable equilibrium. From the days of Homer to our own, critics have been disputing about the place to be assigned to this or that member of the poetic hierarchy. It is not the most popular poet who is necessarily the greatest; Wordsworth never had half the popularity of Scott or Moore" (pp. 315-316).

He then proceeds to an analysis, not always admiring, perhaps not always just, yet sincere, faithful, and marked by that breadth which Emerson's admirers found wanting in the estimate of Arnold. When Arnold seriously said in his lecture that the whole body of Emerson's verse was not worth Longfellow's pleasing and rather tame little poem of "The Bridge," he did not really criticise Emerson, but himself; and assigned himself definitively to a certain school of poetry. No doubt, many another critic would prefer "The Lady of the Lake" to the *opera omnia* of Emerson, Longfellow and Arnold, could these all be brought together in a volume, like the "Coleridge, Shelley and Keats" of our early years. It is not really a question of preference, but of standard; and it is the supreme merit of Holmes's criticism that he shows himself able to go beyond the limitations of his own school, and do honor to a poet utterly dissimilar to himself. The reader can well forgive many a fault of omission and commission in a book that leaves to us the bequest of such generous praise for another. It is a fine act of self-abnegation when one who has so successfully cultivated his own well-defined field of genius expresses cordial admiration for a domain more vast, and recognizes the symbolic meaning of Virgil's simple maxim:

"Laudato ingentia rura,
Exiguum colito."

RECENT NOVELS.

Dorcas, the Daughter of Faustina. By Nathan C. Kouns. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Ramona. By Helen Jackson ("H. H."). Boston: Roberts Bros.

Fair Diana. By "Wanderer." Scribner & Welford.

Gladys Fane. By T. Wemyss Reid. Scribner & Welford.

Mitchelhurst Place. By Margaret Veley. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Lover's Creed. By Mrs. Cashel Hoey. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Mistletoe Bough. Edited by M. E. Braddon. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Children of Issachar. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Le Mari de la Diva. Par Fortuné du Boisgobey. Paris: Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.

Yvette. Par Guy de Maupassant. Paris: Victor-Havard; New York: F. W. Christern.

On the first page of 'Dorcas' we read of "Varus, who was terribly defeated in the forest of Teutoberg [*sic*] in the days when Tiberius was Emperor." It would be hypercriticism not to suppose that Tiberius was substituted for Augustus by an accident, for the great Emperor's mourning for the lost legions is of the "a b c" of classical story; but that such a mistake could pass to final imprint augurs ill for the writer's thoroughness of knowledge or for his full possession of his subject. There is nothing later in the book to remove this unfortunate impression. There is a good deal of heavy argument, borrowed directly from the early fathers, intermingled with episodes in which wholly modern types of feeling are displayed in most incongruous surroundings, and in which it is rather the sense of what his public will require, than his own taste, that keeps the writer within the proprieties. The preface tells us it is "a story of what I beheld as in a vision, in the subterranean darkness of the catacombs." Apparently Mr. Kouns has never heard of 'Fabiola; or, The Church of the Catacombs,' which was a familiar book in the fifties, or he would never have brought his slender outfit into comparison with the wealth of learning, the vivid imagination, the impassioned faith of Cardinal Wiseman.

As might have been expected, 'Ramona' contains many beautiful sketches. Southern California is a fruitful field for romantic subjects, whether the choice be from scenery, people, or modes of life. Mrs. Jackson has arranged her groups to present all the striking contrasts the situation can furnish. Spaniard, Mexican, and Indian all play their parts, with the old ranche, the Franciscan mission, the Indian village, the mountain cañon for background. The first half of the book is a series of most picturesque descriptions of summer life on a great California estate, in which are mingled, as episodes, traditions and incidents from the history of the missions in the days of their glory. The adopted daughter of the châtelaine (the Señora Morena deserves the title) falls in love with the head of the Indian band of sheep-shearers. That the man is a chief of his tribe, and that the girl herself is half Indian, makes no difference in the wrath of the Señora, so the pair fly to the mountains. Here begins the second half of the story, which contains the exposure of the wrongs the

Indian has suffered, the plea for justice to him which was widely advertised last year as the purpose of the book. The village of Alessandro, the Indian, had been destroyed, before his flight with Ramona, by the advancing American, and ever after he is driven from place to place, building only to have his home forced from him, planting only to leave the harvest to the merciless invader. His child dies for want of help from the hard-hearted Government surgeon. His own reason gives way at last, and he is shot dead by a miscreant in punishment for the mistake of a softening brain. Ramona is almost dying of fever when she is rescued by her cousin, the faithful Felippe.

It is all extremely well-meant. There is a pathetic grace about Ramona that is always appealing. Alessandro is chivalric in his love to his wife and his devotion to his people. But in spite of the harrowing details, the tale is just as effective, no more, no less, as one of Southey's fine-sounding metrical romances. Pleased as the reader may be by the fair landscape spread out before him, he cannot believe that the figures are alive, that either their sufferings or their joys are real. This may be explained by so simple a reason as the entire want of proper construction, understanding the word in the first place to mean simply the order of events. They are sometimes so reversed—as, for instance, the Señora's discovery of the lovers and Alessandro's declaration—that it takes a look at the numbering of the pages to convince us that they have not been misplaced by the mistake of the binder. A story that is only to be entertaining must be well planted—it must have times and seasons; how much more, then, if it is to be a convincing appeal to popular feeling. Such sweeping changes as the secularization of the church property, the crowding in of the gold-hunters, the occupation of the rich valleys for the wheat-growing, need, we will not say full explanation, but more than mere indirect allusion, to make the course of events clear. So loosely is the narrative put together that the only date given simply increases the difficulty of making the ages and positions of the personages agree.

It may be urged that a story could be so interesting that most readers would be unconscious of any such failings. Granted, but Mrs. Jackson has committed the far graver mistake of winding up her argument with a most unfortunate anticlimax. Any lawyer trained to address a jury could have told her better. Alessandro and Ramona stand for their race, and their wrongs are to appeal to our sympathy, to obtain justice for their people. The reader should be left oppressed with the burden of their sorrows. So far from that are we, that though the murdered Alessandro is left dead on the lonely San Jacinto, Ramona disappears in a halo of prosperity. It was not enough to hint that she married her cousin, but it is told in regular newspaper fashion: "The story of the romance of their lives, being widely rumored, greatly enhanced the interest with which they were welcomed. The beautiful Señora Morena was the theme of the city." There have been books written which stirred men's hearts to undo the wrong, to establish the right, but it was in no such fashion as this. Their moral force, their actual success, was in exact proportion to their simple reality, to their artistic literary merit.

'Fair Diana' being avowedly a hunting novel, technical expressions are in order. The slang of the hunting-field, race-course, and stable is abundant, but it is not so excessive as to depress a sensitive reader with a consciousness of his ignorance of his native tongue. The horse stands first in the affections of the author, who assumes humanity's moment of supreme ecstasy to be that of the dash forward to the cry, "Tally ho! Tally ho! Gone away!" His observations of men and women on their feet are not profound, and, infected by the atmosphere of the book, we can find no truly descriptive phrase for his characters except "a cheap lot." To do Diana justice, her cheapness is more of association than of nature. Her love affairs have a rashness which may be inseparable from her habit of flying fences and ditches as regularly and calmly as most girls go to church. In the management of her escapades after marriage the author excites sympathy for her, and raises his novel above the level of a hunting manual.

There is nothing very new in the story of a young girl driven to indiscretions by a stepmother's tyranny, or in the misery of a woman's love for a man who has already a wife carefully concealed from the public eye. Yet these materials form the backbone of the long novel 'Gladys Fane,' now in its fourth edition. Such incidents may manifestly be employed to illustrate the extreme either of virtue or vice, and choice is here made of the former alternative. In spite of her scorn of conventions, no one could be purer in heart than Gladys, unless, indeed, it be her lover, Rex Mansfield. The only obstruction to appreciation of Mansfield's nobility is the belief that he could, very properly and speedily, have obtained a divorce from an Asiatic woman married in his boyhood and separated from him for sixteen years through no fault of his. Chapters of gloom and a bitter end have, however, plainly been predetermined, and the author does not mean to be deterred from his purpose by a trifle. He flings much gratuitous contempt and cynicism at the world quite outside of the world with which he has for the time to do. Then he shows his extended acquaintance with vice by the introduction of the veriest blackleg of a prince, associated with a servile, lying Smyrniote, the brother of Mansfield's wife. Occasional episodes are rather remarkably well written, but they do not redeem a pervading falseness and absurdity, nor do they explain at all why the author is, in season and out of season, clamorously worshipful of the English nobility.

'Mitchelhurst Place' has a commonplace plot with a bright, natural heroine, and one or two forcible scenes. Harding's morbid ill-temper is more prominent than his proper pride, and a show of resolution in adverse circumstances would have won him more sympathy. The pathos of his love for Barbara is destroyed by his unnecessary discourtesy to her. She could hardly fail to misconceive his feeling, and, though there is actual cruelty in her attitude toward him at the last, the distinction between cruelty in fact and in intention is finely drawn.

In 'The Lover's Creed'—which is "One and one only"—there is no lack of incident cunningly fitted together, all captious objections being foreseen and provided against. A call to the Crimea separates Jack Basset from Mavis Wynn, and they are among the numbers upon whom the fatal mismanagement of the war entailed a great deal of wretchedness. In the events which keep them apart and finally bring them together, there is nothing to excite incredulity; but the development of a romance of Squire Basset's life through and with that of his son is a severe trial of faith. However, granting the circumstances, it may be conceded that the people preserve a consistent individuality throughout. Mavis Wynn is a heroine with just enough strength of character, and the Bassets, father and son, are attractive, manly figures. Add to these merits the pleasant bits of French domestic life, and Mrs. Hoey's style, familiar without vulgarity, if a trifle over-decorated with Latin, and we have a novel from which any one may extract a few hours' entertainment.

The twelve stories contained in 'The Mistletoe Bough' are an outspoken protest against an assumption of that Christmas joyousness which has long ceased to be spontaneous, in literature, at all events. Those which are not positively woful impress us as originally intended to culminate in despair, a cheerful dénouement being chosen only for the sake of variety. Not one incident is exceptionally strange, piquant, or amusing, nor is any one complete in itself. The people and circumstances would fit comfortably into almost any English society novel; and of short stories, as such, no more conclusive condemnation can be spoken.

Several attempts have been made to combine romance with a full, free, dispassionate exposition of the Reconstruction period, but the successful one is not yet. The best that can be said of 'The Children of Issachar,' viewed as a political essay, is that it presents forcibly but not completely what is already known about the iniquities of Republican politicians in the South during the years immediately succeeding the civil war. The position apparently taken by the author, that palpable wrong may be properly set right by the arbitrary action of a secret society whose authority is self-constituted, is not defensible. If the Kuklux represented the "children of Issachar," they were not, what they are reported to have been, wise men who knew what Israel ought to do. Considered as a story, the book is still more unsatisfactory. The love-tragedy does not grow out of the political situation in Georgia in 1867-'68. It is, moreover, an unpleasant variety of tragedy, not improved by the author's formal and pedantic manner. The classical love-making of Mr. Alfred Rowe has a musty flavor, and the young man in real life who may think of imitating him is warned against signing his own death-warrant. The local character-sketches, however, are decidedly strong, and suggest that, unhampered by politics or romance, the author might write something well worth reading.

M. du Boisgobey is not seen at his best in the 'Mari de la Diva,' which, although interesting enough in a way, is, after all, little more than a variant of the regulation Parisian novel. The Parisian novel may be divided into two broad classes: in the first there is an honest husband and a faithless wife; in the second there is a devoted wife and a faithless husband. The 'Mari de la Diva' belongs in the second of these classes. The diva is a model wife, while her husband is all that a husband ought not to be. She lets him waste her fortune and goes back to the stage again to make more; but on the night of her first reappearance as *Juliette*, in Gounod's "Roméo et Juliette"—a part in which she had once been unsurpassed—she sees him in the box of her hated rival; so in the potion scene she takes real poison and dies as the curtain falls. This is the chief effect, though there is a good duel afterward: M. du Boisgobey makes a specialty of duels. He is also nothing if not moral, in the old conventional manner. He shows that the best-laid plots may come to naught, and that a man may smile and smile and be a villain still; and that honesty is the best policy; and that vice is sure to be punished. In the 'Mari de la Diva' the punishment of vice is sufficiently original to deserve notice. There is a male villain and there is a female villain. To begin the just reward of their misdeeds, they are married off to each other. Then the male villain tries to drop the female villain down a crevasse in a glacier near Chamounix, but the female villain is wary and drags him in after her.

There is a sharp contrast in coming from the 'Mari de la Diva' to 'Yvette'; it is like passing from the fantasy of a fairy tale to the actuality of an essay in social science. M. du Boisgobey's dolls are stuffed with sawdust, while M. de Maupassant's men and women have blood in their veins. M. de Maupassant is the nephew and the

literary executor of Flaubert. He is also the chief of M. Zola's disciples, and perhaps the only one of them who is a man of real ability. His power no one will dispute who knows his volume of verse, modestly entitled 'Des Vers,' and now in its fourth or fifth edition, or the painful study called 'Une Vie.' He has more poetry in him than has Zola, more humor, too, both positive and negative, and a richer *esprit gaulois*. Though he is given to broad subjects, he has no liking for dirt as dirt; rather may it be said that he likes to paint the complete man, as does Walt Whitman. He rarely sinks to the sordid reality of Zola, and he is not fond, as Zola is, of holding an inquest on humanity in the presence of the corpse. In 'Yvette' a painful subject—the fate of a daughter of a leader in the *demi-monde*—is handled with sobriety and vigor. The situation is solved with inexorable logic, and although the outcome is sad indeed, it is the only possible solution according to the conditions.

A MODERN LITERARY LIFE.

Fifty Years of London Life. Memoirs of a Man of the World. By Edmund Yates. Harper & Bros.

Mr. Yates's memoirs are chiefly valuable, or will hereafter be chiefly valuable, as presenting an accurate picture of the career of a literary man of our day, of a certain well-defined type; though to become such a littérateur as Mr. Yates, is perhaps not within the power of a large number of clever young men, even if endowed by nature with a good constitution and capacity for work. In some respects he has gifts beyond the common. That peculiar kind of impudence and recklessness best known as "cheek," Mr. Yates excels in—in fact, he is rather a man of cheek than a man of the world—and he combines with this an air of bonhomie and easy *savoir-faire* which will, we fancy, take with a great many readers. He tells with great frankness the whole story of his expulsion from the Garrick Club, at Thackeray's instance, in such a way as to give the impression that he feels, and always has felt, that he was unjustly treated in the matter, and that it was one with which the club had no concern, although his offence consisted in publishing a little sketch of a fellow-member, in which he said (speaking of his lectures): "The prices were extravagant, the lecturer's adulation of birth and position was extravagant, the success was extravagant. No one succeeds better than Mr. Thackeray in cutting his coat according to his cloth. . . . Our own opinion is, that his success is on the wane." And speaking of his conversation, he added that "it was either frankly cynical or affectedly benevolent and good-natured." Club life has made so much progress since 1858, that there are, we presume, plenty of clubs in which a little "notice" of this kind by one member of another would merely cause a laugh at the latter's expense; but there can hardly be a question that, at the time, the rules governing the intercourse and behavior of members of a club like the Garrick positively forbade the publication of such sketches. Such was the view taken by the club, which Mr. Yates was compelled to leave in disgrace; and it was really a monumental piece of audacity to resort, after Thackeray's death, to the device of taking the public into his confidence as to this episode. Mr. Yates's artless tale convicts him out of his own mouth of being a man of matchless impudence, and eminently qualified for the high position which he now occupies as a "society journalist"—that is, as a vender of tittle-tattle, gossip, and scandal about titled people.

Few young men of letters could hope to reach the level obtained by Mr. Yates; but if they will read his memoirs they will clearly discover what a very hard life writing for money is, and how poorly literature "pays" in the commercial sense. Mr. Yates began as a poet, then took to novels, sketches, editing, newspaper correspondence, lecturing, and finally to society journalism. He went into literature as, we fancy, nine-tenths of the bright young men who take it up begin—not because he had anything of importance that he wanted to say, but because he was attracted by the idea of writing, liked the society of literary men, overrated the importance of "fame" in the world, and underrated the importance of money. If it were not for the generous ambition which leads young men to do this, careers would be chosen with more judgment, and there would be vastly fewer literary men in the world. Mr. Yates has managed, according to his own account, to make a living out of literature, as a man with his natural gifts would probably have made a living out of anything he undertook; but only after years of anxious toil, during many of which he could not have got along had he not derived a small revenue from the Post-office. He has written a number of novels, which curiously enough, whether on account of their badness or for some other reason, have found many readers; his lectures in this country were successful, and he has helped the circulation of his paper by getting himself sentenced to jail for its libellous character. He has left no stone unturned to get either notoriety or a cash equivalent for it; but the largest income that he mentions himself as receiving is only £1,200 ($6,000), and that for newspaper correspondence of the most arduous and wearing kind. Few men can hope to do as well pecuniarily in literature; few men would like to do as well in the same way.

It is really as a tolerably rosy picture of a not very rosy modern literary life that Mr. Yates's volume is interesting. He belongs to an altogether new species of writers, though to a very old genus — the hack. Singularly enough, he has evidently got out of literature what few people who are genuinely literary get out of it—a vast amount of substantial enjoyment. The society and friendship of literary men, the opportunity of being very nearly "one of them"—there is a boyish naïveté about his descriptions of his feelings on the subject which is perhaps the most attractive thing in the book—are nearest to his heart. His stories and anecdotes of them are sometimes good, though more often flat, and show more zeal and memory than discrimination. But his reminiscences of Dickens, Thackeray, and other of the distinguished men of his earlier days are often entertaining.

The Garrick Club episode throws a flood of light on the difference between Thackeray and Dickens which grew out of it, and which lasted all their lives. Yates was a friend of Dickens, and it is obvious that the latter did not see what there was in the little "sketch" that should make Thackeray so implacable. Nobody who reads these memoirs can fail to see that the root of the difficulty was that Thackeray felt himself to be dealing with a man who was not a gentleman in the acceptation of that term then prevalent—one who especially could not discriminate between deliberate insult and an unintentional slight. The difference goes to the root of breeding, and breeding in those days counted for a good deal more in "the society of gentlemen" than it does now. If Mr. Yates had accidentally trod upon Thackeray's foot in the club, an apology for his awkwardness would, in the then prevailing code, have wiped the whole affair out. Thackeray would have been bound to accept his apology. The difficulty with Mr. Yates's statement of his case is, that he appears to think the deliberate publication of insulting criticism for money stands on the same footing with an accident of this sort. He was perfectly willing to apologize and shake hands, and never could understand what hurt Thackeray so much. So utterly did he fail to comprehend the rancor he had excited in Thackeray's mind, that he attempted in later years to show that there was no feeling on his own side by sending a contribution to the *Cornhill*, when his enemy was editing that magazine. It is hardly necessary to say that it was returned by the editor's direction. Dickens does not seem to have understood much better than Yates did, and apparently took the view that there is a sort of absolute duty of forgiveness and forgetfulness, at any rate if your fellow-Christian apologizes—a view preached every day in thousands of Christian churches, but not, in Mr. Yates's early days, admitted in club life.

WEST-INDIA YACHTING.

The Cruise of the Montauk to Bermuda, the West Indies, and Florida. By James McQuade. 1 vol., 8vo. Thomas R. Knox & Co. 1885.

In the Trades, the Tropics, and the Roaring Forties. By Lady Brassey. 1 vol., 8vo. Henry Hall & Co. 1885.

When properly pursued there is none of the so-called manly sports more invigorating, physically and mentally, than the peculiarly Anglo-Saxon pastime of yachting. In England, its conditions are conducive to its development in its best form. The iron-bound coasts and stormy waters of the narrow seas render it a necessity that the yacht shall be a strong, able, weatherly craft, of which the first requisite is that it can hold its own against wind and water. Our coast, with its more sheltered cruising grounds, has developed a class of boats in which strength and safety are subordinated to speed, and yachting has had a tendency to degenerate into racing for prizes in regattas, lying at anchor at Newport and Bar Harbor, and even perhaps sometimes into coarse dissipation when relieved from the restraint of home and family. We are glad to notice within the past few years a disposition to a manlier development which promises to render yachting what it ought to be—an amusement which strengthens the nerves, hardens the muscles, and calls forth whatever reserve of power a man may have within him. Any one who, in a little boat, has contended with a cyclone in the Gulf Stream, will be the better of the experience, and will enjoy, with a sense of power hitherto unknown, the consciousness of man's ability to cope with the elemental forces of Nature.

It is somewhat strange, indeed, that our American yachtsmen seem, only within comparatively a few years, to have discovered what an unrivalled cruising-ground they possess in the Caribbean Sea. By keeping well to windward on the voyage thither, and making for Barbados as the first port, the yachtsman has at his command everything that an amateur sailor can ask for. He can reckon almost with certainty on a ten or twelve-knot breeze, steady in character and direction. He has before him the most charming climate, the bluest of water, rarely lashed into a heavy sea, and there lies within his reach, from Demerara to St. Thomas, a series of harbors where sea and land, mountain and tropical forest, are grouped in the most varied and picturesque loveliness, and among which he will rarely be obliged to haul his sheets close. If a yachtsman asks for more than this, he should be condemned to an eternal Malebolge of Newport dancing-parties on board his boat, with an infinity of Chinese lanterns and brass bands.

A knowledge of this delightful cruising seems gradually to be spreading, and the signals of the New York and Eastern Clubs are becoming known at Bridgetown and St. Pierre. It is to be hoped that the good work may go on, and our

yachts and their owners become better fitted for blue water, and less adapted and addicted to Long Island Sound. Such books as these before us will have a healthy influence in this direction. It is true that 'The Cruise of the *Montauk*' is somewhat painful reading, owing to its persistent jocularity. If the author had followed the example of Dr. Holmes, who tells us that he

"Never dared to write
As funny as I can,"

the function of reader as well as of writer would have been less laborious. Still, the record is one which will be followed with interest by all who are fond of sea experiences; and though the course of the cruise might perhaps have been altered to advantage, enough is revealed of the inexhaustible attractions of the Windward Islands to tempt other adventurous yachtsmen to follow the example of the owner of the *Montauk*. The volume would have been better without the stiff and somewhat harsh illustrations.

Everybody likely to read Lady Brassey's new book must already be familiar with her former accounts of sea travel, and will know what to expect from her enviable and tireless vigor of sight-seeing. Practice, we are glad to say, has given her greater facility with the pen and improved descriptive power. In 'In the Trades, the Tropics, and the Roaring Forties,' she takes us from Madeira to Trinidad, thence to La Guayra and, Caracas Jamaica, the Bahamas, Bermuda, and home by way of the Azores. There is thus ample variety of scenery and of civilization to relieve the monotony of sailing adventures, and the volume is full of illustrations, many of them of considerable artistic merit. The introduction of maps is a feature which might have been adopted with advantage in 'The Cruise of the *Montauk*'; while, as a matter of taste, one rather wonders to see her ladyship's portrait adorning the title-page.

The Empire of the Hittites. By William Wright, B.A., D.D. With Decipherment of Hittite Inscriptions, by Prof. A. H. Sayce, LL.D.; a Hittite Map, by Col. Sir Charles Wilson, F.R.S., etc., and Captain Conder, R.E.; and a Complete Set of Hittite Inscriptions, revised by Mr. W. H. Rylands, F.S.A. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1884.

Two groups of Hittites appear in the Old Testament: Canaanites, descendants of Heth, the second son of Canaan, who dwelt mainly in the mountains of Judah and Ephraim, and tribes beyond the borders of Palestine, who had kings of their own in the times of Solomon and his successors. To the first group, who were a leading people in Canaan before the Hebrew conquest, and are sometimes spoken of as representatives of the whole Canaanitish race, belonged Ephron the Hittite, of whom Abraham bought the burial-ground at Hebron; Beeri the Hittite and Elon the Hittite, whose daughters Esau married; the Hittites who fought Joshua at the waters of Merom; the Hittites on whom Solomon levied a tribute of bond-service; and probably the officers of David, Ahimelech the Hittite and Uriah the Hittite. To the other group belonged the Hittites for whose kings merchants of Solomon brought chariots and horses from Egypt; the Hittites whose presumed sudden descent for the relief of Samaria frightened away the besiegers of that city, under Ben-hadad; and probably the Hittites in whose land the betrayer of Luz built a new town of that name, as well as the Hittitesses mentioned among the foreign women who turned away Solomon's heart after strange gods. Who these independent Hittites were, whom the Pentateuch apparently ignores, and none of whose cities or kings are anywhere mentioned by name, was somewhat puzzling to former expositors; and to a few radically rationalistic critics they appeared somewhat mythical. But the Egyptological and Assyriological decipherments of our age have vindicated the Bible and restored a nation to ancient history. The Hittites of the books of Kings are the Kheta of the Egyptian monuments and Khatti of the cuneiform inscriptions, a warlike nation of northern Syria, against whom the great Pharaohs Thothmes III. and Rameses II. and the Assyrian conqueror Tiglath-Pileser I. waged obstinate wars before there was a king in Israel, and whose independence outlived the Israelitish kingdom of the ten tribes. Among their chief cities, made memorable by the boastful inscriptions of their Egyptian and Assyrian foes, were Carchemish, on the Euphrates, and Kadesh, on the Orontes. They succumbed to Sargon, King of Assyria, toward the close of the eighth century B. C.

So much is established almost beyond dispute, and it is now also generally assumed that the Hittites of Canaan and those of northern Syria were one people, the former being detached members of the main body. On this a lofty superstructure of Hittite history and antiquities has lately been reared by some Orientalists, chief among whom is Professor Sayce. The author of the book before us, who in 1872 succeeded in securing for the British Museum casts of the mysterious Hamah inscriptions, discovered by Burckhardt in the beginning of this century, pronounced the engraved stones Hittite remains. Professor Sayce reached the same conclusion, and for years he has been indefatigable in proclaiming and endeavoring to prove the Hittite origin of everything in the least resembling the Hamathite hieroglyph-like engravings that has been discovered between the upper Euphrates and the Grecian Archipelago—at Aleppo, at the presumed site of Carchemish, in Cappadocia, in Lycaonia, or in Lydia. On the ground of these discoveries the Hittites have been raised to the dignity of a nation remarkable for the successful cultivation of the arts both of war and peace, for whom no less is claimed than that they "had carried their arms, their art, and their religion to the shores of the Ægean, and that the early civilization of Greece and Europe was as much indebted to them as it was to the Phœnicians." Mr. Wright's book is, in the main, a manifold echo of this view of Mr. Sayce, with the addition of testimony from Captain Conder, Colonel Wilson, Dr. Isaac Taylor, and others. What renders this work chiefly interesting is its illustrations, comprising reproductions of the Hamah, Aleppo, Jerabis (or "Carchemish"), Ibriz, and Tyana inscriptions; of the Marash inscribed lion, Layard's and Schlumberger's "Hittite" seals, a cartouche from "Niobe on Mount Sipylos," Herodotus's Sesostris (near Sardes), the silver boss "of Tarkondêmos with Hittite and cuneiform inscriptions," etc. The inscriptions are all undeciphered and sadly forbidding in their obscurity, and the chapter contributed by Sayce, headed "Decipherment of the Hittite Inscriptions," is merely a tentative first step toward the discovery of a key. This attempt is characteristic of the Oxford professor's self-assurance in piling guesses and surmises upon conjectures and hypotheses.

The ardor with which the resuscitation of the Hittites is pursued is in part, especially with Mr. Wright, owing to a desire to vindicate and exalt the historical narratives of the Scriptures; but it oversteps the legitimate bounds of zealous inquiry. The haste with which in this field conclusions are formed and repeated is unworthy of serious investigators. Speaking of Hebron (in 'Fresh Light from the Ancient Monuments'), Professor Sayce adds: "Another Hittite city in the south of Judah was Kirjath-sepher, or 'Booktown,' also known as Debir, 'the sanctuary,' a title which reminds us of that of Kadesh, 'the holy city.' We may infer from its name that Kirjath-sepher contained a library stocked with Hittite books." Mr. Wright quotes this (page 47) without asking himself, Is there in all the Bible a warrant for calling Debir a Hittite city? Taking Sayce's guess for a fact, he says elsewhere (p. 71): "No doubt the name Kirjath-sepher, or Booktown, the name of a Hittite town near Hebron, has some reference to Hittite literature," and, in addition (p. 139), cites M. de Rougé as saying that "Hebron, the Hittite town of Palestine, once bore the name of Kirjath-sepher, or 'City of Books'"—in which, by some kind of slip or other, Hebron, which was also named Kirjath-arba, is substituted for Debir, or Kirjath-sepher. In the same manner Professor Sayce's incorrect statement (*loc. cit.*) that the Septuagint shows that in II. Sam., xxiv, 6 the true reading is not "to Gilead and to the land of Tahtim-hodshi," but "to Gilead and the land of the Hittites of Kadesh"—whereas the Septuagint shows no such thing, and the emendation is of recent origin—is not only copied by Mr. Wright without examination (p. 50), but enlarged by the equally incorrect statement that the correction is confirmed by "the best Hebrew manuscripts." On p. 80 the strange assertion is made that Aholibamah, the name of one of Esau's wives, was "doubtless" her older Hittite name, which, linguistically considered, is like saying that Andromache is doubtless a Semitic name, or Cleopatra old Egyptian. And the author adds: "This may explain the fact, which has so much puzzled commentators, that Esau's wives had double names." But what has puzzled commentators in regard to these ladies is not double names, but a whole chain of discrepancies (comp. Gen. xxvi, 35 with Gen. xxxvi, 2).

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part 2. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In a previous number of the *Nation* (No. 926, March 29, 1883) we gave, in a notice of Part 1, a general account of this great work. In the second part the same wide knowledge and the same thorough scholarship, in the highest sense of that term, are as conspicuous as they were in the portion previously published, and the unwearied industry which has forgotten nothing and overlooked nothing shows itself as before on every page. The number of ballads contained in this part number twenty-five. They are naturally of different degrees of literary merit, but in the light they throw upon popular beliefs and superstitions they are all of importance. The first three, dealing as they do with the Arthurian legend, are indeed, as Professor Child points out, a part of the equipment of the professional minstrel, rather than of old women whose duty it is to amuse children, or of young women whose pleasure it is to amuse themselves. Yet even in these there is much that gives insight into the sentiments of the past. The lofty conception of rigid propriety on the part of women which, in an age of general looseness, men delight to entertain as a sort of compensation for their own misconduct, is graphically pictured in the very lively ballad of "The Boy and the Mantle," with which this part opens. Here a standard of excessive purity is set up which no one ever desired or even thought desirable to attain; but it is, after all, the sort of ideal which men of loose lives are disposed to insist upon in the case of their female relations.

These Arthurian ballads form, however, but a small portion of the work. Some of the rest are thoroughly popular in the sense that they revel coarse and disgusting images; one of them—

the ballad of "Kempy Kay"—is, in fact, so thoroughly popular in this sense that the reading of it is almost sufficient to turn an ordinary stomach. Against such are to be set off many passages of great beauty, and one ballad in particular—that of "Tam Lin"—a ballad peculiar to Scotland, is one of the finest productions that the poetical genius of that country has given us. Poems of this kind are, indeed, so eminently an expression of the sentiments that sway great masses of men, that it is inevitable that in them both the wealth and the poverty, the elevation and the degradation, of human nature should be clearly manifested.

We seem to see that in this second part Professor Child has made more concession to the weakness of human nature than he did in the first. The introductions to the separate ballads give, in the portion of the work now under notice, the underlying plot, without breaking in upon the course of the narrative by pointing out during its progress the variations which the incidents have undergone in the different versions. This may be due to accident or design, but it would certainly be hard, in consequence, to find anywhere stories more entertaining or more charmingly told than some that are contained in these introductions. They will add greatly to the interest of the work in the eyes of the general reader; and as nothing is sacrificed by the manner of relation, they will be equally welcome to the special student.

In finishing our brief notice of this work, it would be unjust to close without saying a word as to the style in which it has been brought out. Too much praise can hardly be given to the publishers for the manner in which they have done their part. It is certainly satisfactory to find that one of the greatest achievements of American scholarship is fittingly embodied in work which reflects peculiar credit upon American typography.

The New Book of Kings. By J. Morrison Davidson (of the Middle Temple), Barrister at Law. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1884.

WHAT Artemus Ward might have called the "king business" is, like many other industries, somewhat depressed at the present time. An Emperor of Russia who cannot leave his house for fear of being murdered is not well calculated "pour encourager les autres." If the Republic lasts a few years longer in France, it will be difficult to find anybody at the next Revolution with a title to the throne which is not ridiculous. When the German Empire coolly confiscated in Hanover the sovereign rights of one of the oldest dynasties in Europe, it adopted a course which is more than likely to return to plague the inventor. The theory has been tenaciously held in England, that the House of Lords is extremely popular with the nation, and that an Englishman "dearly loves a lord." During the agitation respecting the Franchise Bill, however, that faith has been rudely shaken, and there is strong evidence that the country is nearly prepared to make short work of that venerable institution. The Prince of Wales is reported, whether truly or not, to have said that he should be the last King of England.

The mainstay of royalty at present is the difficulty of finding a substitute. It is the old case of bearing the ills we have rather than fly to others that we know not of. Mr. Davidson is troubled by no such perplexing doubts. He has the ingenuous faith of the first French Revolution not only in the wisdom, justice, and common sense of the mass of the population, but in their capacity for transmuting these qualities into logical, efficient, and continuous action. What he hates is not so much individuals as individuality. Not the fiercest ward politician in the United States has a greater horror of one-man power. He delights in the abstract and abhors the concrete. He would amend Pope by reading, "Whatever is *not* is right." While he has not a good word for a single English ruler from William the Norman to Mr. Gladstone, he has real tenderness for Harold, the last Saxon King, apparently on the sole ground that he said to William: "My royalty comes to me from my people, and without my people's consent I cannot lay it down"—as if that was not precisely the pretext with which Louis Napoleon tried to blind the eyes of the French people and the world.

The catalogue of royal crimes which Mr. Davidson presents is no doubt very shocking; but to make the picture at all a fair one, it should be viewed not from the standpoint of the nineteenth century, but of the condition of the world and other governments at that time. Thus the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth seemed a golden age as compared with the calamities of the Wars of the Roses. It was the uprising of Europe against the horrors of the feudal system; and the same halo of glory rests upon the achievements of Richelieu and of Ferdinand and Isabella. What was meant by the absence of such rulers the Thirty Years' War in Germany sufficiently illustrated. Mr. Davidson's bitterest hatred is reserved for Oliver Cromwell, not because he was the worst ruler, but because he put a violent end to the government of the Commonwealth, which embodied Mr. Davidson's cherished dreams. We will give the organization in his own words:

"What the far-sighted statesmen of the Commonwealth strove ultimately to establish was biennial Parliaments, returned by the widest and most equal suffrage practicable. The House thus constituted was to elect a large Executive Committee for one year: this Committee or Council of State to choose its own President, monthly or otherwise, as it had a mind. By this means good administrators, irrespective of party, could be secured, and the reprehensible idolatry of Grand Old Men prevented. The Executive Committee, forty-one in number, under the Commonwealth, was divided into sub-committees for the different departments of State. These, after deliberation, reported first to the full Council and then to the House, and if their policy was affirmed, there was an end of the matter."

Bless him! he need not go back to the Commonwealth for that. We can show him a plenty of examples, identical in principle, in the State legislatures and city governments of this country; and if the results under the Commonwealth were anything like those arrived at here, there are, to say the least, two sides to the Cromwell question.

The truth is, that the problem which popular government has been trying for a century to work out is how to combine executive administration strong enough to hold society together, with responsibility to the will of the people exercised through their representatives. The attempt to solve this by placing all power in the hands of these representatives has repeatedly failed disastrously, leading through anarchy to despotism. That it will ultimately be successfully solved, we are glad, for the sake of our mental peace, that we firmly believe; but it will not be by the methods pointed out by Mr. Davidson.

Archbishop Leighton: a Short Biography, with Selections from His Writings. By William Blair, D.D. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.

A DAINTIER book than this is, in its external appearance, one would not care to see. Covers of white and gold enclose 250 pages of beautifully-printed matter, and on the title-page a tiny etching of Dunblane Cathedral lends an appropriate charm. For a long time Leighton has been known to all except a few only by means of Coleridge's 'Aids to Reflection,' which are made up very largely from Leighton's writings, a fact in itself ample testimony to their excellence. "It never rains but it pours," the proverb says; and it has been made good by the recent appearance of at least two other notable criticisms of Leighton, one by Principal Tulloch and the other by Dr. John Stuart Blakie. Doctor Blair's biography is written warmly, tenderly, but without disagreeable effusion. That Leighton was of a most gentle and forgiving disposition is shown by his allowing himself to be made a Bishop and afterward Archbishop of a Church that had subjected his father to the most cruel treatment—scourging, the pillory, mutilation, branding, and imprisonment until his death. Born in 1611, his father's sufferings made him a wanderer for many years, and it was not till 1641 that he was ordained a Presbyterian minister at Newbattle, a quiet parish six miles from Aberdeen. There he remained till 1653, when he became Principal of Edinburgh University. He continued in this position till after the Restoration, and then accepted one of four bishoprics established by Charles II. in Scotland, and chose Dunblane "because it was a little city." Doctor Blair does not make a vigorous defence of this astonishing proceeding. He admits that it was a serious blemish in a man whose character was almost wholly admirable. Certainly if this action had not something sordid in its character, it was one of the most heroic actions possible. In 1669 he was made Archbishop of Glasgow, without surrendering his bishopric.

The sermons selected by Dr. Blair as examples of Leighton's finest manner are three: "Christian Heroism," "Holiness," and "Follow Christ." "Discarding the method of multitudinous divisions," we are told, Leighton "made the text in its parts his keynote." He does not appear in these discourses and in the other matter selected —Commentary on First Peter, theological lectures, etc.—at such advantage as in Coleridge's brief quotations in his "Aids to Reflection." He has not that "wholeness of tissue" the lack of which Mr. Arnold complains of in Emerson, but he has in an eminent degree those qualities of "sweetness and light" which Mr. Arnold prizes most of all. The flow of the discourses is continually broken by the introduction of texts, not with chapter and verse in the usual Puritan manner, but by way of illustration, often aptly, but sometimes too ingeniously. If Leighton's preaching had the relative superiority that is claimed for it by Dr. Blair, the average of the time must have been low. It is not to be doubted that hundreds of sermons that are better than these are preached every week in England and the United States.

Reminiscences of Army Life under Napoleon Bonaparte. By Adelbert J. Doisy de Villargennes, former Vice-Consul of Italy at Cincinnati. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1884. Pp. 98.

THIS interesting little book contains the personal recollections of an old gentleman of eighty-four of his experience in the Napoleonic wars when a very young man. He is first sent to Portugal in Junot's expedition, being then in the navy. On his return, he obtains his commission as *sous-lieutenant* in the army, and takes part in the battle of Essling, where he is wounded, and subsequently in that of Wagram, in 1809. On the conclusion of peace, his regiment with many others is sent to Spain. Here it forms a part of the army under Masséna. At Busaco it is cut to pieces in Ney's reckless attack on the English position; and "a considerable promotion took place," he says, "in our regiment." In the weary

weeks consumed in waiting before the lines of Torres Vedras, the two armies seem to have got on the best of terms with one another. Some amusing stories are given of the courtesies which the soldiers, until forbidden, were fond of exchanging with their respective antagonists. Finally, at Fuentes de Oñoro, our author is taken prisoner, carried to England, and there interned till the close of the war. He has nothing but good to say of the English; he speaks highly of their military prisons, of the regularity and justice with which they were managed, of the excellent fare served out to the men. In Scotland, where he spent a good part of his captivity, he acquired the friendship or at least acquaintance of some charming people, and even dined with Mr. Scott, afterwards Sir Walter.

There are no details of battles in this little work; M. Doisy justly says that every circumstance tends to incapacitate the subaltern from filling faithfully the office of reporter. But of the profound admiration and affection felt by the old soldiers of the Empire for their great leader, this volume bears frequent and abundant testimony. On the one hundredth anniversary of the Emperor's birthday, the French citizens of Detroit celebrated the occasion with a dinner, at which the old veteran presided, and reiterated his devotion to Napoleon and to his house. "The strict sense of justice, the generosity of Napoleon toward those who had served well, or toward the families of those who had fallen; his paternal attention to those in hospitals; his severe surveillance over the conduct of contractors for the supply of the troops; the commanding influence which he unaffectedly exerted over his most distinguished generals—all these aroused the enthusiasm of our soldiers."

There are many fresh and amusing sketches in these pages, and we bespeak for them a wide perusal.

The Book-Lover. A Guide to the Best Reading. By James Baldwin. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1885.

THIS volume is really made up of a number of classified lists of books which the author thinks may serve either as the nucleus of libraries for home or school, or as guides to courses of reading in history, literature, theology, or political science. Between these lists are inserted passages of text which are meant to be helpful in the way of advice or stimulation. For the most part these consist of quotations very skilfully put together, and ranging from the oldest and most famous to the youngest and most obscure writers. The whole makes a small and useful volume, especially for such readers as have access to any public library. It is not easy to err in such a work, since, when so much ground is covered in so few pages, the selection has practically been already made by time. In his references to contemporary literature Professor Baldwin does sometimes slip; the books he recommends in this field seem to indicate an acquaintance too narrowly limited to the monthly bulletins of American publishers. If one neglects, however, what he has to say of the *Nursery* and the various literary "Boy's" series, which have not been preëminently successful, one sees that he would bring up his "book-lover" on such pabulum as is found in any ordinary American library. In fact, his little manual, though vitiated in this respect by a redundancy in the department of poetry, is an instructive index of the scope of the literary culture provided by our public libraries outside of the great cities.

Some parts should have been expanded and made more precise. In the chapter on the very important subject of the selection of school libraries, the author gives only a few paragraphs of commonplace with no definite hints. The notes on the courses of reading, too, should have been fuller. The lists for English literature are the best, as was to be expected, since Professor Baldwin is a professor in that branch; but outside of that he merely catalogues obvious authorities, without indicating any especial knowledge of the subject in hand. The fact that he includes Mrs. Browning in the twenty-five most important authors in the literature of all our civilization, ancient and modern, is a sufficient token of the defects of his critical faculty when he trusts to it for his conclusions.

Studies in History. By Henry Cabot Lodge. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

ELEVEN essays are here rescued from the semi-oblivion of periodical publication and gathered into book form. All but two of them are on American subjects, and even the two exceptions have a quite distinct American bearing. All of them are good reading, and several of permanent value. Mr. Lodge's strong point is his cheerful disregard of the conventional spectacles through which most American historians and biographers are used to look at the events of our history. Sewall's diary, with its record of the sufferings of the early Massachusetts colonists through cold and hunger, leads Mr. Lodge to notice "the ferocious practice of baptizing new-born babes at church, in all weathers," and the consequent high percentage of infant mortality. It was "not only natural, but proper," that Cobbett should have been disliked because he was an Englishman, since "no people with an ounce of self-respect care to be lectured daily by a foreigner about their own affairs." Jackson regulating the finances and the currency was "like a monkey regulating a watch: he simply smashed everything, and then went out of office, leaving his successor to make the best of it." Webster, who saw nothing improper in accepting money presents from his personal and political friends, "protected his supporters' interests as the baron did his peasantry, and then levied tribute from them." Examples might easily be multiplied; but perhaps the clearest notion of Mr. Lodge's advantages and weaknesses might be gained by a parallel reading of his essay on "French Opinions of the United States" and Mr. Lowell's "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners.' Mr. Lodge's scolding lacks the scholarly facility of Mr. Lowell's, but it has a colloquial energy, directness, and profusion of its own.

Mr. Lodge makes the curious assertion (p. 262) that prior to the year 1860 four men—he is careful to emphasize it by adding "and only four"—Morris, Hamilton, Gallatin, and Dallas, had acquired great reputations as Secretaries of the Treasury; and not one of these four was a native of the country whose finances he administered. Surely, Robert J. Walker, if his tariff of 1846 was sufficiently iniquitous to exclude him from the list, deserved rather to be condemned than to be so cavalierly ignored.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Katherine Lillian and Constance. The Arnold Birthday Book. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Bastian, A. Der Fetisch an der Küste Guinea's. Berlin: Weidmann.
Birkhimer, W. E. Historical Sketch of the Organization, Administration, Material, and Tactics of the Artillery, United States Army. Washington: James J. Chapman.
Fornelli, N. Educazione Moderna. Turin: Camilla and Bertolero.
Ginn, E. Scott's Lady of the Lake. [Classics for Children.] Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Heness, G. Der Neue Leitfaden. Henry Holt & Co.
Holroyd, Dorothy. Within the Shadow. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Howe, E. W. The Mystery of the Locks. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Howells, W. D. The Elevator: a Farce. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 50 cents.
Hudson, W. H. Sea-Sickness: its Cause, Nature, and Prevention. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.
Kingsley, C. The Heroes. [Classics for Children.] Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 40 cents.
Mason, E. T. Personal Traits of British Authors. 2 vols. With Portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 each.
Palgrave, F. T. The Poetical Works of John Keats. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Stevens, H. Who Spoils Our New English Books? London: H. N. Stevens.
The Crime of Christmas Day: a Tale of the Latin Quarter. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
The Wearing of the Green: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Wilson, W. Congressional Government: a Study in American Politics. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wilson, G. E. Ball-Room Guide; or, Dancing Self-Taught. Excelsior Publishing House. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 5, 1885.

The Week.

THE defeat of the Nicaragua treaty on Thursday in the Senate is on all grounds greatly to be rejoiced over. Whatever there is good in the scheme is thus handed over to the next Administration, which would have to superintend its execution in any case. Moreover, the delay gives time for some public discussion of it. The committal of the country to an engagement of such an extraordinary character in "secret session" is nothing short of an abuse. Though last not least, some consideration of the obligations of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is now possible. How a lawyer as conservative and careful as Mr. Frelinghuysen came to consider that treaty as actually dead, and worthy of no further notice, even, on our side, has not yet been explained, and is difficult to understand. We need fuller discussion of this topic also. One of the oddest features in the existing political situation is the rarity with which the people is treated to a calm discussion of questions of this kind in the speech of a leading politician. In England, the views of any man of note on such a subject would have been known long ago to every newspaper reader in the kingdom, set out in the fullest manner. Here we know what Mr. Edmunds, or Mr. Sherman, or Mr. Thurman thinks only through vague rumors in the Washington correspondents' letters.

Secretary Frelinghuysen's response to the resolution of the House of Representatives asking information regarding the attitude of the United States toward the Congo Conference at Berlin, is in substance that Minister Kasson was duly accredited as a delegate to the Conference; that Mr. Henry S. Sanford was appointed as an associate delegate, and that Mr. Henry M. Stanley was introduced by Mr. Kasson in an advisory capacity, at the request of the Conference itself; that in taking part in the Conference our Government stipulated that it was to deal "solely with the commercial interests of the Congo region and of Western Africa, and that, while taking cognizance of such establishment of limits to international territorial claims in that region as may be brought before it as matters of fact, the Conference is itself not to assume to decide such questions, the object of the Conference being simply discussion and accord, the Government of the United States in taking part therein reserving the right to decline to accept the conclusions of the Conference." The report informs us, further, that Mr. Kasson has kept strictly within the lines of commercial policy thus laid down, and has been watchful that no expression should be found of record in the agreements of the Conference which might imply that its results are to be binding upon or to be respected by any Power which may not formally accept them. Mr. Kasson's latest report shows that the course pursued by him was so exceedingly cautious that it amounted to a powerful obstruction to the proceedings of the Conference, and must, we should think and hope, furnish a solemn warning to European Powers against inviting the United States to such conferences hereafter.

The shooting of O'Donovan Rossa is a fresh illustration of the contagiousness of sensational crime. The disgraceful acquittal of Madame Hugues the other day by a French jury, in the teeth of her own boastful confession, made in open court, called out from one of the few serious French journals, the Paris *Temps*, some weighty and suggestive comments on the effect which the publicity supplied by modern journalism is producing on the nervous system of the vain, the excitable, and the morbid of both sexes. The passion for notoriety is, in fact, being fostered by the press to the point at which, with people of certain temperaments, it is destructive of all scruple and all fear. To be the subject of everybody's talk, even for a day, in two hemispheres; to have columns of the newspapers filled with gossip about their life, and manners, and clothing, and food; to be followed in the streets by eager crowds, and to be dogged by inquisitive reporters, on account, not of great deeds, but deeds of any kind, has become to tens of thousands a dream of bliss. Unfortunately, too, the power which the new explosives and the revolver have put into the hands of the discontented or criminal in making attempts to destroy life and property, seems an easy and not very dangerous way of acquiring notoriety. There can, we take it, be no sort of question that the open discussion which is now going on in the most civilized countries of the world, of the desirability and justifiability of killing people and destroying houses, does tend to weaken or destroy that traditional respect for human life, and sense of the value of order, which are, far more than police or courts, the best defences of society. It is safe to say that no dynamiter, Nihilist, or Anarchist ever makes a speech or writes an article, and no minister or politician ever apologizes for him, without helping to sow the seeds of murderous intent in some weak head or faint heart, or without opening what seems a path to fame to the imagination of some drone, or crank, or fanatic.

In the case of O'Donovan the wonder is not that he has now received a dose of his own medicine, but that he has escaped so long. The long and dismal Irish quarrel has until the last year or two been confined to Irish soil. Irishmen have been attempting the redress of their wrongs by assassination for two centuries, but they have confined themselves till now to the assassination of Irishmen on Irish soil, and have in taking life generally aimed at the actual wrong-doers, and at the members of one small class—the landlords. The attempt to free Ireland which is now being made by outrages on Englishmen in England, by trying to bury innocent men, women, and children in the ruins of public buildings and railroad stations, will assuredly not long be allowed to go unavenged, simply because the wretches who light the fuses cannot be caught, or because American law cannot lay hands on the men who hire and despatch them. The scheme is something wholly new, and unprecedented in its atrocity. It has taken the English people by surprise, and thus far has puzzled and probably will continue to puzzle them, for they are a phlegmatic, somewhat good-natured, and immensely self-satisfied people. They are a people, too, who have long lived under laws so powerful and so justly administered that the habit, one might almost say the thought, of private vengeance has died out among them. But if the passion of retaliation once takes hold of them, there will assuredly be found among them plenty of fanatics who will see to it that the O'Donovans and Fords in this country do not live here in peace and security on "emergency funds," while filling every mother in London with alarm for her children whenever they go out on a holiday. Dynamite will be met with dynamite. We have probably, in Mrs. Dudley's attempt on O'Donovan's life on Monday, only seen the beginning of the trouble.

The Grand Street dynamite explosion is likely to strengthen public sentiment in favor of legislation throwing restrictions about the manufacture and sale of explosives. There is a perceptible tendency among the more ignorant of the working people to use dynamite as a redress for grievances of all kinds. Only a few weeks ago some strikers at South Norwalk blew up a building belonging to their employers, for the apparent purpose of frightening them into paying higher wages. It is easy to see that this use of dynamite might spread to alarming proportions unless something is done to check it. In small manufacturing towns, where the police force consists of only a handful of men, the opportunity to use dynamite without fear of detection is very great, and the destruction of property in case of labor troubles might soon be enormous. In the South Norwalk case, the insurance companies at once sent word to the threatened manufacturers that their policies did not cover dynamite risks, and other companies refused to give them policies on any terms. No property owner can afford to be put into a position of this sort. The best way to meet the emergency seems to be in the enactment of some such regulations as those which are incorporated in one of the bills introduced at Albany, requiring every manufacturer and seller of explosives to keep a book in which shall be registered the name and address of every purchaser.

A most eloquent silence is maintained by all our esteemed Blaine contemporaries concerning their attitude toward the dynamite Irish leaders in the late campaign. All our efforts to get an opinion upon Patrick Ford and his Emergency Fund, as illuminated by the London explosions, are fruitless. We have stirred up the *Tribune*, Boston *Journal*, and Philadelphia *Press* in vain on the subject. In the Cincinnati *Commercial* we find some very vigorous denunciation of dynamiters in general, and O'Donovan Rossa in particular, but no allusion to Ford. Yet, at the close of

two columns of indignation, there occurs this passage:

"The people of the United States—all civilized people—must join in the prosecution of the wretches who, in the name of independence and freedom, are destroying liberty, and, under pretences of sentimental patriotism, are making barbaric war upon civilization. They must do it because they must protect themselves."

Now the "wretch" who is doing more to carry on this "barbaric war upon civilization" than all other men in America combined, is Ford, with his *Irish World*. What we want to know is if the Blaine editors, including Mr. Halsted, are going to continue to encourage him in his work as they did during the last campaign, or are they going to join all other "civilized people" in prosecuting him? There was no Blaine disciple who expressed a warmer enthusiasm for Ford in the campaign than Mr. Halsted did, and his views about him now would be very interesting. Rossa was not a Blaine man, and he did not raise the money which blew up the London buildings and injured innocent people. Ford was a Blaine man, and, while he was supporting Blaine, was raising a fund for precisely what has happened in London. We put the case thus explicitly, and once more pause for the frank opinion of any Blaine editor upon it. Abuse of Rossa will not constitute a satisfactory response.

The visit of Speaker Carlisle to the President-elect has, we presume, no other significance than as it indicates Governor Cleveland's desire to possess himself of the views of representative men in his own party who want nothing for themselves, and who can therefore be relied upon for unbiassed opinions. Mr. Carlisle is one of these, and the most eminent of all, with the possible exception of Senator Bayard. Occupying already the second place in the Government, with reasonable certainty of continuing to occupy it so long as the Democrats hold a majority of the House, Mr. Carlisle can have no ambition to enter the new Cabinet. Therefore, any advice which he may give to Mr. Cleveland will be untainted with personal considerations, and will undoubtedly carry the weight which belongs to one who worthily fills the high position of Speaker of the House of Representatives. The gravity, impartiality, and fidelity to principle which have distinguished Mr. Carlisle's Speakership are in fine contrast with the turbulence and self-seeking of the Keifer régime. Mr. Carlisle was born and nurtured in the Bourbon school, but he has grown with the country's growth, and kept pace with the best political ideas of the times. He has made some mistakes, but withal he has impressed the public with confidence in his sincerity and in his desire to be serviceable to his country.

It is noticeable that all the Democratic statesmen who visit Mr. Cleveland come away strongly impressed with his honesty of purpose and his clear common sense. It is equally noticeable that they are all able to imitate successfully his capacity for holding his tongue. This persistent refusal to disclose the private conversations held between the President-elect and his party associates is, of course, very irritating to the press, especially to those journals which exerted all their influence to elect Mr. Blaine. There is a prudence and deliberation about this method of deciding upon questions of party policy which are not encouraging to people who are looking eagerly for factional quarrels and blunders in the new Administration. There have been many Democratic leaders at Albany during the past few months, but the only one who has gone away unhappy is "Johnny" McLean, the Cincinnati boss, who did his utmost to sell out his party to Blaine, and succeeded only in capturing the Republican Sheriff's advertising as a reward for his treachery. Every eminent Democratic leader has left Albany pleased with Mr. Cleveland and determined to do everything in his power to make his Administration successful. There is a good omen for the party in all this.

In response to our inquiry for information concerning the "many important cases" in which Andrew S. Draper, who has just been appointed a Commissioner on the *Alabama* Claims, was said to have been engaged, and for samples of his most conspicuous displays of a "judicial turn of mind," the Albany *Express* thus makes answer:

"Mr. Draper has had fair standing at the bar of Albany County for many years, has been a member of the State Legislature, and by the judgment of his associates one of the most useful members of it, has been President of the Board of Education of this city, and Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Republican State Committee. We have had no opportunity to confer with him in relation to the legal cases in which he has been employed, but do remember two of them which were considered important here; one of them was the celebrated case of Swinburne against Nolan for the Mayoralty of this city, in which he was associate counsel, and another was when he served as one of the Commissioners on the Viaduct Claims, also in this city. He has undoubtedly been employed in other important cases which we do not now remember. In any event his fellow-lawyers here will give him credit for being earnest, honest, and active."

That is about what we expected. The showing which the *Express* makes is not so impressive as to justify the belief that if Mr. Draper had not been the personal friend of the President, he would ever have been appointed to a judicial position of national importance.

The Committee appointed last December by the newspaper publishers of the West and Northwest to urge upon Congress the propriety and justice of reducing the postage on newspapers, have made a report of progress which is very encouraging. They found the members of the House Committee on Post-offices united in favor of reducing the postage from two cents a pound to one cent; and in order to facilitate the passage at this session of a bill making this reduction, the Committee said it would be necessary to have it incorporated in the regular Post-office Appropriation Bill. The sub-committee of the Appropriations Committee having the postal appropriations in charge have agreed so to incorporate it, and it will therefore be reported to the House. We trust that no member of Congress will object to the reduction. The present tax is a very onerous one, amounting to nearly two million dollars a year. It was put on in 1874, under the inspiration of certain men in public life who took this method of "getting even" with the newspapers for harsh criticisms received. One of the leaders in the movement was Mr. Hamlin, of Maine, and he was actuated by the belief that the large metropolitan newspapers would be the heaviest sufferers. As a matter of fact it fell most heavily upon the smaller weekly and rural papers. The great dailies avoided some of the expense by employing express companies to do part of the service at cheaper rates. In truth, a uniform postage of one cent per pound would result in giving the Government all of the business, and the result would in all probability be only a slight decrease in the present revenue. The tax at present levied is unreasonable and out of keeping with the postal policy of the Government. The reduction of letter postage to two cents ought to be accompanied with a reduction in newspaper postage.

The proceedings in the Wells failures at Galveston are fresh evidence of the necessity for a national bankruptcy law. Those creditors who are on the spot have rushed in with attachments absorbing a great part of the available assets. Under existing State laws, the prevailing practice is either a race of diligence by attaching creditors, or an assignment with preferences to a favored few. Such a state of law must of necessity breed distrust in commercial transactions, and it is probable that some amount of the present business depression is due to the want of a uniform law protecting creditors of all classes. Certainly the want of such a uniform law will retard the development of trade throughout the country in the South as well as in the North and West. There is much misapprehension of the real object to be accomplished by a general bankruptcy law, and a deep-rooted impression in some portions of the country that it would be mainly for the purpose of absolving delinquents from their liabilities. In fact, the great object to be accomplished is a fair distribution of assets among creditors. The old law, with all its faults, under proper administration accomplished some good and useful purposes, and Congress has had the experience of its working as a guide in framing a new one. The repeated petitions and efforts of merchants and financial institutions to have the bill now pending passed at the present session of Congress, are abundant proof of the need for legislation on the subject, and failure to act in the matter will show direct disregard by Congressmen of the interests of their constituents.

Bradstreet's correspondent in the Indian Territory furnishes an interesting résumé of the "boomer" controversy. The "boom" itself is a cunningly devised scheme for making money. "The real instigators," says this writer, "are those who sell certificates of colony membership at from $3 to $5 each, and the pretended colony surveyors who regularly go a few days ahead of each batch of deluded immigrants, and, upon the arrival of the latter, charge and receive enormous fees for making pretended descriptions by section, township, and range of any and all tracts selected by the colonists. Over 15,000 of these certificates have doubtless been sold at the prices named, and from $30 to $40 each are often paid to the 'surveyors' for locating a single quarter sec-

tion. When the military appear, the 'surveyors,' warned by past experience, take to the gulches and escape, and the victimized 'boomers' are arrested and marched out of the Territory sadder and wiser men. That these are swindles of the first magnitude is known to all men of general information on Indian affairs, and that all white settlements in Oklahoma are contrary to law is conceded by every disinterested and well-informed jurist in the United States. Besides this, the matter has been exposed over and over again. Presidents have issued proclamation after proclamation, warning all persons to keep off the Oklahoma lands, and informing them that the whole military force of the nation would be used, if necessary, in carrying out these declarations. But still the craze goes on. Dupes are deluded into buying these worthless certificates of Oklahoma colonists, and, backed up by those who see in this an entering wedge for opening the whole Indian Territory, and by the restless, discontented, floating population of the frontier, start for the Oklahoma land of promise, to be ignominiously expelled by the proper authorities as all their predecessors were before them."

Mr. Vedder has introduced in the Assembly another of those sapient bills for stopping stock speculation of which so many have been produced or threatened ever since the war. This one makes it a penal offence not to deliver stocks or give the number of the certificates on the day of their sale, unless the execution of the contract is fixed for some future day. Anybody who disobeys is to expose himself to fine or imprisonment. To the mind of some legislators it apparently makes no difference in the value of a law whether it can be executed or not. In the present case, suppose a man sells stocks to another without delivery, or without giving the numbers of the certificates, and the other is, as he generally is in such cases, another speculator; who is going to put the law in force and furnish evidence of its violation, particularly when neither thinks there is any moral wrong in the transaction? And is it not most ludicrous that any legislator should think his fines of $100 to $500 would be more operative in preventing speculation than the terrible penalties which befall speculators by the hundred every year, in the loss of their whole property or a large part of it? There is no folly in the use of money of which men can be guilty which is so severely punished to-day, by the mere nature of things, as stock speculation. Any addition which the Vedder bill proposes to make to this penalty is very like making murderers liable to a fine of $5, besides death on the scaffold.

North Carolina, imitating her sister State, Georgia, has begun to direct some penal legislation against the sale of obscene literature. There has been shown some opposition to the measure in the Senate of North Carolina, based upon the alleged difficulty of properly executing such laws. It was contended that an enforcement too rigid would throw Byron, Fielding, and Shakspere out of the North Carolina market, and lead to a narrow culture. We must confess that there is great likelihood of this, when we remember that in Atlanta, Ga., immediately following the conviction of a vender of the *Police Gazette*, a raid was made upon the picture and stationery shops, and every piece of art, expressed in its own language of nudity, was required to be taken away from the public view. For some time local excitement ran high, and it was to be feared that even the warm sensuous pen-pictures sent by one of its editors to the *Constitution*, from the sea-coast in summer time, might be interdicted. The proceedings in the courts under the Georgia anti-obscene literature law gave occasion to one of the ministers of Atlanta, who is also an art-lover, to write a series of discourses showing the true relation between law and art, which, it is to be hoped, have broadened somewhat the sentiments of the iconoclasts who compelled Pitchford to destroy the photographs of antique sculpture with which he tempted the public to his bookstore. The editor of the Raleigh *Chronicle*, who is, we are compelled to judge, ignorant of all the workings of the Georgia law, thinks that the broad common sense of the people will be the safeguard against such a strict enforcement of the North Carolina Act as leads to the banishment of Byron and Shakspere. But cases under such a law come before a court of limited jurisdiction and small dignity, provided generally with prosecuting attorneys almost as indifferent to the charms of literature as the jury—composed, it may be, and as in reality it was in Atlanta, in large part of ignorant negroes—which they address. It may be doubted whether the friends of this kind of legislation can rely upon "the broad common sense" of North Carolinians to preserve it from contempt, when we read that the Senator who most warmly favored it questioned "whether a healthier sentiment would not be produced by presenting statues of the great heroes and martyrs in the cause of truth and liberty than by nude figures of imaginary creations of artists."

Mr. John Bright has just delivered an address, doubtless paid for by the Cobden Club, urging the American farmers to buy their goods from the Lancashire and Birmingham manufacturers, because they would get them cheaper. The indecency of making such proposals to the people of a friendly nation we need not comment on. It may afford some consolation to those who are shocked by such propagandism of the Cobden Club in this country, however, to reflect that we are paying off the British by sending Henry George over to preach the confiscation of all the landed property in England. This is worse than anything the Cobden Club or its emissaries have recommended here. It is far worse, indeed, in our eyes than even trying to persuade people to buy things cheaply.

Mr. Goschen has long been known to be out of sympathy with the Liberal party in England, and, in fact, declined a seat in the Cabinet because he was not prepared to support the recent extension of the franchise. He has a dread of pure Democracy, which he makes no pretence of concealing. His lukewarmness or alienation has been considered a great misfortune, because there is no man in the Liberal party—perhaps no man in England—after Mr. Gladstone, who has the same mastery of finance. The speech which he delivered at Edinburgh on Saturday, therefore, has been long looked for with some eagerness, as he was expected to deliver himself freely on the existing situation, and especially on the condition of affairs in the Sudan, where it begins to be "a pious opinion" among many Liberals that Mr. Gladstone is shamefully slaughtering men whom he praised last year as "brave men struggling to be free." The speech turns out, however, to be simply a disquisition on the land question; but it shows, as far as we can judge from the meagre despatch about it, that on this subject he agrees with Mr. Chamberlain as to simplifying transfers, and forbidding the species of entail called family settlement.

The African International Association has been the means of bringing on a curious lawsuit in Brussels, which revives a very ancient laugh against the doctors. It had engaged one Roger to conduct an expedition into equatorial Africa. But Mr. Stanley, who had known Roger already in that region, wrote a letter describing his physical condition when exposed to the climate there. This letter the Association submitted to a doctor at Brussels, who gave an opinion thereupon, that if Roger went back his death was certain. The Association consequently cancelled his engagement. The crafty Roger, however, saw that the doctor had, by giving an opinion without seeing him, delivered himself into the hands of his enemy. He called on him, under an assumed name, represented himself as a resident of South America, who had contracted disease there, gave as his symptoms exactly those described by Stanley in his letter, and said that he was going to Africa for the Association, but that they demanded a certificate that this disease contracted in Brazil would not unfit him for service in Africa. The doctor examined him, pronounced him perfectly fit, and pocketed twenty francs therefor. Armed with this second certificate, Roger is now pursuing the Association in the courts, and all Brussels is laughing at the poor doctor.

Apropos of doctors, the English professional journals have been telling wonderful stories about the fees of English physicians. The *Students' Journal* says Sir Andrew Clarke makes over $75,000 a year, which the *Medical Journal* says is strictly true. Others add that Dr. Redcliffe used to make an average annual income of $35,000 a year, and Dr. Baillie $50,000; that Sir Astley Cooper took $5,000 in a single fee; that some other doctor got $10,000 for going to Pau from London; that Catharine II. of Russia paid Dr. Dimsdale $60,000 for vaccinating her. The Paris *Temps* thinks all this English boasting very immodest and unprofessional, and intimates that no French doctor would allow such facts about his pecuniary gains to become known. It observes, however, in order to give some idea of what French doctors could reveal if they chose, that it is within its personal knowledge that Nélaton on one occasion refused $80,000 to go to St. Petersburg to perform a very simple operation.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 28, to TUESDAY, February 3, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE United States Senate continued in executive session on Wednesday until 7 o'clock, discussing the Nicaragua treaty. Mr. Vance (Dem., N. C.) made a carefully prepared speech against the ratification of the treaty, his chief argument being that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was still in force. He moved to postpone further consideration of the measure until after March 4. Mr. Bayard supported the motion, urging both friends and foes of the treaty to let it go over, and not seek to embarrass Mr. Cleveland's Administration. Messrs. Morgan, Edmunds, Conger, and Miller, of California, opposed the motion. When a vote was taken a majority of those present voted against postponement, but the roll-call showed that there was not a quorum present. The Senate adjourned without securing a quorum. In executive session on Tuesday the motion was defeated by 22 to 25. The Senate then voted, in Committee of the Whole, on Mr. Sherman's proposition for negotiations with Great Britain as to a modification or abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. It was lost, 27 to 28. Afterward when it came up in the Senate, it was adopted by a large majority, the friends of the treaty hoping to placate its opponents by this concession. After a few brief remarks the vote on ratification was taken, and resulted 32 in its favor and 23 against. It required a two-thirds vote, or 37, in its favor. The treaty was therefore rejected. It will come up again on a motion to reconsider.

The Senate on Friday passed a resolution making arrangements for the electoral count on February 11.

The Union Pacific Funding Bill was called up in the Senate on Monday. There is an evident desire on the part of the opponents of the measure to postpone it indefinitely; Mr. Beck and Mr. McPherson indicating such a purpose. Mr. Hoar contended that the bill was drafted solely in the interest of the Government. The Senate decided to postpone the consideration of the bill till February 4.

The River and Harbor Bill as finally reported in the House of Representatives on Wednesday appropriates $11,243,700, exclusive of the Galveston Harbor appropriation of $750,000. The bill contains a provision for an advisory engineer to the Mississippi River Commission at a salary of $3,500 per annum, and James B. Eads is recommended to the President for that position. Taken in connection with the Galveston Harbor appropriation, this would make Captain Eads master of the river works from Iowa to the Gulf at a total salary of $8,500.

In the House of Representatives on Wednesday, the conference report on the six months' Naval Appropriation Bill was agreed to. The principal point of difference between the two houses was as to the repairs of wooden ships. As finally arranged, the repairs to the wooden ships are limited to 20 per cent. of the cost of a new ship of a similar class. Mr. Hewitt (Dem., N.Y.) attempted to call up the Mexican Treaty Enabling Act, but was defeated by a large majority. The vote is not considered very hopeful for the bill. On Thursday Mr. Hewitt made a similar attempt, but failed by 105 to 144.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Friday referred the resolutions recently introduced in the House, calling upon the Secretary of State for any information at the State Department relative to any connection that an American might have had with the recent explosions in London, to a sub-committee consisting of Messrs. Eaton, Lamb, and Rice. In the discussion upon the reference by the full Committee, the opinion was generally concurred in that no action should be taken upon the subject by the House of Representatives.

The House Committee on Claims decided on Friday, by a vote of nine to four, to report a bill providing for the refunding of the tax imposed by the Government on the States and Territories as a war tax, under the acts of Congress of August 5, 1861, and June 7, 1862, and releasing those States which yet owe the tax. The amount imposed on New York was $2,603,919, on New Jersey, $450,134, and on Connecticut, $308,214.

President Arthur on Friday sent a message to the House of Representatives expressing the opinion that the *Alert*, of the Greely relief expedition, should now be returned to the British Government with thanks. He asks for the authority of Congress for such action. A similar message has been sent to the Senate.

James K. Jones (Dem.) has been elected United States Senator from Arkansas, after a long contest. He is now a member of the House of Representatives.

The decrease of the public debt during January was $9,420,046.

The Court of Claims on Monday decided the long pending case of the Union Pacific Railroad Company versus the United States. Among the significant points of the decision are the following: The United States are bound to pay for the transportation of their passengers (troops, etc.) from Council Bluffs to Omaha, over the bridge and between Council Bluffs and Ogden, the same rates paid by private parties—those rates being fair and reasonable. The amount allowed by the Treasury Department for carrying the mails is fair and reasonable. The company is required to pay into the Treasury of the United States each year 5 per cent. of its net earnings under the act of 1862, and under the Thurman Act since its passage, in addition thereto, so much of the $850,000 as, with said 5 per cent. and the whole compensation for Government transportation, will equal 25 per cent. of its net earnings. In stating the account to December 31, 1882, the Court finds *approximately* that the United States owe the company $2,975,700, and the company owes the United States $5,734,392. The United States therefore are entitled to judgment on their counter claims against the company of $2,758,692.

O'Donovan Rossa, the notorious dynamite advocate, was shot in the shoulder by an English woman named Yseult Dudley at about 5 o'clock on Monday afternoon. They met in the District Telegraph Office in the Stewart Building, in this city. They went out into Chambers Street together, and the woman, stepping behind him, fired five shots at Rossa with a revolver. Only one shot took effect, entering his back just below the left shoulder blade. The wound is not dangerous. Rossa was taken to the Chambers Street Hospital, while his assailant was arrested. She was perfectly cool, and said that she shot the man "because he was O'Donovan Rossa," and because he is the agent of the dynamiters. The woman is a hospital nurse, and has been in this country about five months. She is twenty-five years old, good-looking, and neatly dressed. On Tuesday she was arraigned in court and remanded to await the result of Rossa's wound. The Irish claim that she is an agent of the British Government. There was great rejoicing in London over the shooting. It appears that before leaving England Mrs. Dudley attempted to commit suicide.

A bill was offered in the Connecticut Senate on Wednesday, which requires yearly licenses from the County Commissioners for making, selling, buying, or exchanging dynamite explosives. Severe penalties are attached for any violations of the law. Any one selling without a license will be subject to a fine of $500 or imprisonment for from one to three years. Any person having dynamite in his possession unable to prove his purchase will be subject to the same penalty. Any person who with malicious intent causes loss of life or injury to person or property by the use of dynamite, will be subject to a fine of $100 or more, or imprisonment for one year or more.

A more stringent dynamite bill than the one reported last week was introduced in the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday.

The annual report of the Civil-Service Commissioners of New York State shows that the number of persons subject to the civil-service regulations is as follows: In the service of the State 3,600, in New York city 5,540, in Brooklyn 1,418, in other cities, estimated, 1,765; total, 12,323. The cities that have failed to comply with the statute of last year are Hudson, Watertown, Oswego, Rome, Elmira, Schenectady, Newburgh, and Lockport The Commissioners report a gratifying abatement of the practice of political assessments. They express confidence that the work of organizing the State civil-service reform system has reached a point where its usefulness can be tested, and conclude by saying: "It is only justice to the retiring Governor to say that the successful establishment of reformed civil-service methods in the State of New York during his administration, and the acceptance of the reform by the public, are largely due to his intelligent interest in the subject, his fidelity to its principles, and his prompt and courageous action through all the stages of its progress."

The three days' enrolment of Republican voters in this city, ending on Friday night, foots up about 18,000 names, or only about one-fifth of the number of Republicans who voted the Blaine and Logan ticket in November.

The Illinois Legislative deadlock was broken on Thursday by the election of Elijah M. Haines (Dem.) Speaker by a majority of 2. The Democrats believe that this is an indication that they can elect a successor to Senator Logan.

Twenty persons were seriously injured by the wreck of an express train on the Jersey Central Road, near Greenville, N. J., on Friday.

Private information received by the Surgeon-General of the Army from Panama is to the effect that the death-rate there from yellow fever is terrible, and that the facts have been concealed.

Gen. James Chestnut, who was United States Senator from South Carolina in 1860, when his State seceded from the Union, died on Sunday, in Camden, S. C., at the age of seventy. He was a member of the Confederate Congress. General Chestnut was a graduate of Princeton.

FOREIGN.

The long suspense and anxiety about the fate of General Stewart and his forces were brought to an end on Wednesday, when a despatch was received from General Wolseley by the War Office in London announcing that the British forces were strongly intrenched not far from Metemneh, and that General Stewart was in communication with General Gordon. The official despatches indicated that the march from Abu-Klea Wells, where a battle was fought on January 17th, had been a perilous one. Almost every foot of the way was contested by the Arab foe. For two days there was a succession of light attacks easily repulsed by the British. Finally on Monday, January 19th, the enemy appeared in great force in front of the British army, when they were within three miles of the Nile. A short and fierce battle was fought, during which General Stewart was wounded. Sir Charles Wilson then assumed command. Works were hastily constructed under the constant fire of the enemy's rifles. The wounded men and the baggage train were left under guard behind their quickly-built earthworks, while the rest of the force advanced in the face of the hostile fire to a gravel ridge some distance in front. Here a large force of the rebels had established themselves in a strong position. The British troops as usual were arranged in the form of a square. The rebel hosts to the number of 7,000, led by five Emirs, charged upon them furiously. Nothing could exceed the coolness of the Englishmen under these circumstances. Their fire was so rapid and effective that not an Arab

came within thirty yards of the square. They were shot down by hundreds, and were soon repulsed; their total loss in killed and wounded being 1,300. The British loss was twenty killed and sixty wounded. Among the killed were Lord St. Vincent, Mr. Cameron, correspondent of the London *Daily Standard*, and Mr. Herbert, correspondent of the *Morning Post*.

General Stewart's wound is not fatal, but will disable him for the campaign. General Wolseley in his despatches characterized General Stewart as the "ablest soldier and most dashing commander he ever knew," and recommended him to the Queen's most favorable consideration. Queen Victoria immediately sent a despatch to General Stewart expressing her personal sympathy, thanking him for his bravery, and promoting him to the rank of Major-General.

The news of the victory was accompanied by the gratifying report that General Gordon was safe at Khartum, and had expressed the opinion that he could maintain his position for several years.

After the retreat of the Arabs the British made the march to the Nile under a continuous fire from the Arabs in ambush, reaching the river at sunset, and encamping for the night. Early the next morning, January 20, scouting parties were sent out to reconnoitre, and they destroyed some empty villages, the inhabitants of which had fled to Metemneh. The British force then advanced through the villages around Metemneh, and on Wednesday, January 21, a reconnoissance of that place was made. This revealed the fact that Metemneh is fairly well fortified, and that the works are furnished with loopholes. Shots were exchanged, but the rebels kept out of sight. Metemneh is occupied at present by 12,000 men. Five of General Gordon's steamers, under the command of Nusri Pasha, with 500 soldiers and five guns, arrived at Gubat, where the English had intrenched, on this day, and all the troops and guns were landed and turned on Metemneh, without, however, producing any apparent effect on the rebels.

On Thursday a reconnoissance was made down the river to Shendy with four steamers which had arrived from Khartum. It was found that at Shendy, which is on the opposite side of the Nile, a short distance north of Metemneh, there is one small gun, and the town is garrisoned by a small force. General Wilson bombarded Shendy for two hours, and almost completely destroyed the town, but the occupants, of whom there were few, appeared to be unwilling to surrender. The steamers afterward returned to Gubat, where a number of forts have been erected. The British position at that place is considered impregnable. Sir Charles Wilson started on board a steamer to Khartum for a personal conference with General Gordon.

Some of the wounded rebels who were taken prisoners declared that the Frenchman, Ollivier Pain, is in command at Metemneh.

Advices received at Hamdabat at 8 o'clock on Wednesday night, concerning the expedition which left Korti for Berber on January 26th, under General Earle, stated that the Black Watch and Staffordshire Regiments arrived at the Kabd-el-abok cataract on that day. Before reaching the cataract the cavalry scouts, who were two miles in advance, exchanged fire with some hostile natives. The Arabs made the attack, but were soon driven back by the cavalry and the camel corps when these came up. Soon after this these two corps captured the village of Warag. The Arabs retreated in the direction of Birti. General Earle, after the capture of Warag, started for Abu-Hamed. He has 2,500 men.

General Earle occupied Birti on Monday, and the rebels have deserted their intrenchments. Two uncles of Suleiman, the murderer of Colonel Stewart, submitted to General Earle. Hussein Pasha, and a stoker on Colonel Stewart's steamer when it was wrecked and the party massacred, escaped from Birti and reached Earle's camp before the occupation of that place. The route is now clear to Abu-Hamed.

The British on Sunday made a reconnoissance in force from Suakim with two guns. They shelled the enemy's camp at Hasheen. The rebels, who hold a strong position, were very courageous. The British subsequently returned to Suakim. It is believed the rebels lost heavily.

James Gilbert Cunningham, now under arrest in London for complicity in the late dynamite explosions, was known, it is said, in St. Louis by the name of Michael J. Byrne. He came to America to escape punishment for the murder of an Irish landlord, in which he was implicated, so he claims. Before going to St. Louis he lived in Chicago, where he went by the name of James Gilbert and James Cunningham. He had also spent some time in New York and Philadelphia. He lived for more than a year in New York city, and received instruction in the making and selling of infernal machines from Rossa and the Russian professor, Mezzeroff. Cunningham was one of a coterie of Irishmen who have their homes in the northwestern part of St. Louis, and there planned outrages against Great Britain. One of his plans was the destruction of all the public buildings in London by 100 trained dynamiters.

The examination of Cunningham was begun in the Bow Street Police Court, London, on Monday morning. Mr. Poland, the Solicitor of the Treasury, appeared for the prosecution. In opening the case Mr. Poland said that the Government intended to prove that the prisoner was an active agent in the conspiracy which culminated in the horrible outrage at the Tower of London. Mr. Poland then narrated the suspicious facts in regard to the prisoner's movements at Liverpool and at London from the time of his arrival at Liverpool from America up to the date of his arrest at the Tower, a few minutes after the explosion occurred; his travelling under the assumed names of Gilbert and Dalton, and many suspicious circumstances connected with his stay in both the above cities. In conclusion, Mr. Poland asked that Cunningham be arraigned under the Explosives Act, on the charge of conspiracy, and said that he might possibly, at a later day, request that the charge be changed to one of high treason, so that the penalty of the latter crime could be meted out to him, as the dynamite outrages could be construed as acts of war of a rebellious people. This announcement made a commotion, as it indicated that the Government believed Cunningham to be a very important arrest. At the request of the prosecution Cunningham was remanded for a week.

Queen Victoria has conferred upon Constable Cole, who was so severely injured in the discharge of his duty at the time of the explosion at Westminster Hall, the order of the Albert Medal.

O'Leary, the Fenian, lectured to 4,000 persons at Manchester, England, on Sunday. He condemned dynamite outrages, but many in the audience strongly objected to his sentiments. Three cheers were given for O'Donovan Rossa.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* telegraphed on Friday an important despatch concerning the object of the coming meeting of Irish revolutionists in Paris. He alludes to the meeting as a congress of dynamite delegates, and says that the main purpose of their assembling in Paris is to endeavor to arrange for an affiliation with the regular Fenian organization which has its headquarters at present in the French capital, where it is still led by ex-Head-Centre Stephens. The main proposition to be made to the Fenians as the price of the union is, that the dynamiters will abandon the policy of attacks upon private property and public buildings, if the Fenians will join them in a dynamite war to be carried on for the destruction of the British navy.

A great Liberal meeting was held at the Town Hall in Birmingham, England, on Thursday. A speech was made by Mr. John Bright, in which he said that the question of disestablishment would not be an opportune one in the present century. The speaker ridiculed the idea of a colonial confederation without a system of free trade, and asserted that the next Parliament would probably grant free trade in land, meaning a removal of the hindrances to land transfers. Mr. Bright, in referring to the American tariff, said that farmers in the United States are not permitted to exchange their produce with artisans of Birmingham or weavers of Lancashire, but are compelled to exchange with protected manufacturers in their own country, who in some cases do not give half of what the farmers could get from the Lancashire or Birmingham manufacturers. Mr. Bright said he had no wish to reproach the Americans, who some day, he believed, would discover the right course.

The Rev. Stephen Gladstone, rector of Hawarden, and son of the Prime Minister, was married in Liverpool on Thursday to Miss Mary Wilson, daughter of Dr. Wilson, a rich retired physician.

Mr. Frank Mantell Adams, the London barrister who recently married Miss Mary Coleridge despite the strenuous opposition of her relatives, has begun an action for libel against his father-in-law, Lord Coleridge, Chief Justice of England.

Lord O'Hagan, member of the House of Lords and formerly Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, is dead at the age of seventy-four.

The Powers have come to a complete understanding on the Egyptian financial question. The basis of settlement is England's reply to the French counter-proposals.

The French man-of-war *Triomphant*, which had been lying at Hong Kong for some time, was not allowed to refit by the British authorities, and on Wednesday sailed away for Saigon, the nearest French port, with only enough coal and provisions to enable her to reach that place. The French are indignant at this strict enforcement of the neutrality laws.

The French are carrying on vigorous naval warfare at Amoy. They are busy destroying and sinking Chinese junks and making prisoners of the crews. The latter are transported to Kelung and there placed in chains.

The French forces on January 25 carried the Chinese works commanding the Kelung mines, after a severe but brief contest, and the loss of nine killed and fifty-three wounded.

M. Dupuy de Lôme, the eminent French engineer, is dead at the age of sixty-eight. He built the first swift French steamer in 1852, transformed sailing vessels into steamers by enlarging them, and conceived the idea of protecting men of war with iron armor. In 1877 he was elected a life Senator and took his seat in the Bonapartist group.

The Committee of the German Reichstag to which the Steamship Subsidy Bill was referred has finally rejected the whole measure by a vote of 14 to 7, on the ground that it lacked sufficient scope. The majority consisted of Conservatives, National Liberals, and New German Liberals.

The Governor-General of Canada, in his speech from the throne on the opening of the Dominion Parliament on Wednesday, referred to a bill the Government will introduce, placing all mutual and benefit life-insurance associations under Government inspection, and requiring all foreign associations of that character to deposit $50,000 with the Finance Minister for the protection of policy-holders. The Franchise Bill, which was introduced last year, is again promised.

THE NEXT ADMINISTRATION AND THE SILVER BILL.

THE recent silver convention at Denver, Colorado, was undoubtedly called and held for the purpose of checking the current of opinion, now running pretty strongly in the Democratic party, against the further coinage of silver dollars. The change was first indicated by the introduction of Judge Buckner's bill to suspend the coinage pending a new international conference, to which Mr. Warner, of Ohio, another pronounced silver man, gave his support. Following the presentation of this bill there came from Albany a rumor, pretty well authenticated, that the President-elect held the opinion decidedly that the stock of silver dollars on hand was ample for all purposes, and that any further supply would be considered an embarrassment to his Administration. Above all it was seen that the Democratic party, in power and responsible for the public finances, would be compelled to look at the silver question from a new standpoint. Making trouble for business interests under Mr. Cleveland's Administration would be attended with political risks much more serious than any that have been incurred hitherto. Moreover, the evils resulting from the silver coinage are cumulative in their nature. They grow apace. They multiply at the rate of $2,000,000 per month. They cannot be staved off much longer unless the arbitrary coinage is stopped. A monetary crisis coming in Mr. Cleveland's term would be charged up against the Democratic party, and retaliation at the polls would be the consequence. No where would the blow fall more heavily than in the State of New York, to which State, and especially to the mercantile classes thereof, Mr. Cleveland chiefly owes his election. The great business men's parade in this city on the afternoon of November 2 showed where the balance of power in New York lay, and how it would be used on the Tuesday following. The tremendous column that moved up Broadway and past Madison Square was composed of men who know on which side their bread is buttered. They have a perfectly clear conception that the Silver Bill means mischief to them and to all commercial interests. They look to Governor Cleveland and to the wiser elements of the party which he represents to save them from an impending danger, and we believe they will not look in vain.

The silverites of the Denver Convention addressed themselves to two individuals by name. One of these was Mr. Bland, of Missouri, and the other was Governor Cleveland himself. The former they flattered by designating the two-millions-per-month law as "the Bland Act," whereas it is not a Bland act at all, but an entirely different thing, drawn up by Senator Allison, of Iowa, and adopted as a substitute for Mr. Bland's measure against Mr. Bland's protest. Perhaps the Denver people apprehended that Mr. Bland himself needed to be stiffened up, and adapted their phrases to that end, making him the public champion of their cause by conferring upon him an honor which he never claimed. However that may be, their appeal to Governor Cleveland and to the Democratic party is not entitled to any force or value upon mere political grounds, since they gave all their electoral votes by largely increased majorities to Mr. Cleveland's opponent. The Democratic party owes nothing to Colorado, Nevada, or California. The question which the party has to consider is thus divested of any political encumbrances. There is nothing to lose in the silver-producing States; there is much to gain everywhere else.

It is commonly supposed that the South is ardently attached to the dollar of the fathers upon sentimental grounds, since her representatives in Congress have generally supported the Silver Act, and opposed all measures looking to a suspension of the coinage. The South has no other interest in the question than the common interest. She does not produce any silver. Her people are taxed for the purchase of silver bullion in the same proportion as the Northern people. She could not escape her share of the evils of a monetary crisis. She is bearing to-day her share of the suffering which proceeds from a want of confidence in the future. This want of confidence has more than one source, but not the least of the underlying causes of the present depression is the feeling, shared by capitalists at home and abroad, that there is no certainty what will be the standard of value a year hence. If that standard is to be something inferior to the present standard, if a dollar invested now is to be repaid with 85 cents at some future time, the investment will not be made. If the Southern people do not see this now, it is because their representative men have taken no pains to make them see it, but have simply drifted along with what appeared to be the current of popular prejudice. It is time for them to take a higher stand, and to become leaders instead of followers of public opinion. Of one thing they may be sure: if it shall appear to the Southern constituencies that the continued coinage of silver is a menace and a danger to the incoming Administration, that it will weaken Governor Cleveland in the places where it is necessary that he should remain strong, and eventually overthrow the party which elected him, the sentimental considerations which now sustain the Silver Act in the South will speedily give way to the more practical one of retaining the power won after the hard struggle of last November.

We have no information regarding Governor Cleveland's personal opinions upon these questions, but we assume that he does not desire to be vexed with a monetary crisis in the first six months of his term. The Administration of Martin Van Buren, entering office with the fairest prospects of success, was smitten by such a crisis at the beginning of its career, and was swept away as by an avalanche at the end of four years. It had committed no political offences, or none that were considered such at the time. It had dealt with the monetary crisis wisely and prudently. It was simply engulfed in the pecuniary distress of the people. The lesson ought now to be heeded. By stopping the silver coinage a chief obstacle to the return of confidence will be got out of the way, and the political situation will be correspondingly brightened. If this dark cloud is now removed from the financial horizon, the relief which it will extend to all business interests will be set down to the credit of Governor Cleveland's Administration, and it will be only second in importance as a financial achievement to the resumption of specie payments in 1879.

SOME TRUTH ABOUT CANALS.

Now that the Nicaragua Canal treaty is defeated, it will well repay those who consider a canal across the Isthmus of vital importance to the United States to think a little about interoceanic canals with seriousness and sobriety. Most of the pamphlets which have been written, and most of the speeches which have been made, about the Nicaragua Canal have so much passion in them of one sort and another that even their facts and figures can hardly be depended on, much less their conclusions as to its political and commercial importance. There is to be a little breathing space now, which ought to be improved by taking a calm and rational view of canals in general.

In the first place, the notion that there is some peculiar or mystic quality about a canal, above any other piece of water, which makes it a point of honor that it should be "owned" by the nation to which it is most likely to be useful, is a quaint delusion. If a waterway across the Isthmus had been made by nature, not one hundred feet, but five miles wide, and was called a strait instead of a canal, nobody would say that it was necessary to the national security and greatness that the United States should own it—that is, should hold the land on both shores in fee simple. We should, on the contrary, confine ourselves to rejoicing that Providence had provided mankind with such a fine channel between the two great oceans. We should not mourn because the United States Government or an American company had not had the job of digging it, and that it had not cost us $200,000,000. We should confine ourselves, in our concern about it, rigidly to the task of seeing that it was declared neutral ground, and we should perform this in the usual way, by trying to obtain a declaration of its neutrality from a congress of the great maritime Powers. This would prevent any fighting within its limits, or within a marine league of its mouth; or, in other words, would secure by peaceful pledge what it would take a larger navy than any two Powers now have to gain by force.

Why people think that narrow water communication between two oceans calls for different treatment from a wide water way; why they think we must "own" or control a canal, but need not own a strait or channel; why they think that it would be desirable to have a guarantee of neutrality from the maritime Powers for the whole Pacific Ocean, but that there would be something humiliating in having it for a passage only a hundred feet wide, it would be hard to explain in any other way than by ascribing it to the natural pugnacity of man. Even the most peaceful nation—even one as little prepared to fight either by land or sea, and as little fond of war as the American nation—seems still to set great store by any possession or claim which is likely to offend or provoke somebody, and thus lead to a fight, or show that it is not afraid to fight. There is no other apparent reason for wishing to charge ourselves with

the duty of keeping a canal open any more than of keeping a strait or channel open. On any other ground, it is as absurd to refuse to allow any other Power to guarantee its neutrality as it would be for a man who had built a fine house to refuse the protection of the law of the land for it, and insist on securing its safety through his own armed retainers. Such notions carry one back to the Middle Ages, when both nations and great men were loath to owe either peace or security to anything but their own weapons.

In the second place, it is to be observed that if our experience of interoceanic canals has taught us anything, it is that in default of a general declaration of neutrality such a canal is certain to be "owned" and controlled not by the Power which constructs it, or which charters the company that constructs it, but by the Power which makes most use of it, and has the largest navy to protect it. The Suez Canal is so complete and telling an illustration of this that the references made to it in the late discussion, as proof that the United States should own or control the canal across the Isthmus of Panama, fill one with wonder. The Suez Canal was constructed by a French company chartered by the French Government, with capital raised almost wholly in France. The scheme encountered from first to last the bitter opposition of the British Government, which prevented the promoters from getting any money for it in England. Lord Palmerston declared that its construction was impossible, or, if not impossible, useless. Now mark what followed—first in peace and then in war, The canal was opened in 1869, and from the very first the business came almost wholly from British ships. In 1882, the last year of which we have any record at hand, 2,565 British vessels passed through the canal, and only 165 French. The British tonnage, too, was 5,795,584, against 405,846 French, or fourteen times as much as the French. The ships of all other nations in that year numbered only 454; their tonnage was only 806,132.

Now as to war. When the Russo-Turkish conflict broke out in 1877, one of the first things the British Ministry of that day did was to send a despatch to the Russian Government declaring their intention to abstain from interference as long as the sphere of hostilities was not so extended as to involve or threaten the security of the Suez Canal. This, they announced, they would under no circumstances permit. The Russian answer was quite reassuring, and was addressed not to France, which had built and owned the canal, but to England, which had not put a cent into its construction. Moreover, France, far from taking umbrage at this, or thinking it foul scorn that another Power should protect the canal, acquiesced in it as the most natural thing in the world. Again, when the expedition against Egypt was sent out, in 1882, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, he without the smallest hesitation made the canal his base of operations, filled it with British war ships, stopped the traffic as long as suited his convenience, and, when M. de Lesseps remonstrated, laughed at him. Not one Power in Europe said a word by way of protest.

The reason why these pretensions of Great Britain to control the canal without owning it have been acquiesced in so quietly is the very simple one, that any interoceanic waterway inevitably falls into the hands of the Power whose maritime force enables it to hold the sea at each entrance. Such a canal, it must be remembered, though some people seem to forget it, is not particularly useful for internal navigation. It is valuable only as a mode of getting from ocean to ocean. The power of closing it is therefore worth nothing, as it is the mere power of destruction, which the feeblest can use by sinking a shipload of stones. Possession of a canal which we can only prove by stopping it up, is very like the possession of a locomotive without a boiler, or a watch that will not go, or a horse with a broken leg. True possession means the power of keeping egress and ingress free at both ends. This belongs, and must always belong, in default of neutrality, to the Power which can station at each end a fleet large enough to drive all enemies away.

Now, if we apply all these patent truths to the Nicaragua Canal, we shall reach results which must provoke a smile. In talking of the advantages of such a canal to us as a means of communication with the Pacific in time of war, no mention has been made of any increase in our navy, or of its strength in comparison with that of any of the great European Powers, or even of Chili. To the naval force of every one of these it is so far inferior that comparison is useless. The only additions to our navy now talked of are fast-sailing cruisers to cut up the enemy's commerce, not heavily armed and armored ships to stand guard off the canal, and drive intruders away. The probability of war with England is one of the strongest arguments in favor of our not making and owning the canal. Let us suppose that it has broken out, and we begin sending troops and ships to the Pacific Coast, through the canal, as per programme. When they arrive off Greytown, in wooden transports, convoyed by big wooden frigates, they will find a squadron of British ironclads, which will probably, from motives of humanity, not sink them, but warn them off. Astonished at this, the American Commodore will go on board the British flag-ship to know what it means. "It means war," the British Admiral will answer. "You cannot enter the canal. I have closed it." "But the canal is ours," the American will say. "It was built with our money and under treaty with Nicaragua; we have a two-thirds interest in it, and it was intended to afford a passage for our troops to the Pacific Coast at just such a juncture as this." "Very sorry," the British commander would reply, "but I have strict orders to prevent any one entering it just at present." And then there would probably be a hearty laugh, in which the American would join, over some brandy and soda in the cabin. If Chili were to take a hand in the fray, a similar comedy might be enacted at the same time at the Pacific end.

THE CIVIL SERVICE AND THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

THERE were in the common schools of this State in 1883 1,041,089 scholars; in the normal schools 6,270. There were, too, in the common schools in all 6,723 men teachers and 24,847 women. On its educational machinery the State spends over $12,000,000 annually. It would be difficult for a civilized community to give stronger proof of the importance it attaches to knowledge even in its elementary stage, as acquired in what is called a plain English or common-school education. The political importance of such an education has for a century been one of the commonplaces of political oratory. The comparison of the sums spent in popular education by the Northern States with those spent by the Southern States, and even by the most enlightened countries of Europe, was before the war a favorite illustration of the superiority of the free States in civilization. Moreover, in this matter, even the Fourth of July orators hardly ever were guilty of exaggeration. The proportion of the public revenue spent in teaching children to read and write, the pains taken to spread knowledge among the poor, and to honor and reward those who acquire it, *are* among the highest tests of civilization.

It seems to flow naturally from all this that the State should encourage and stimulate popular education by using places in the public service to reward it. In Germany, where great value—some think inordinate value—has long been attached to the higher education, all but the lowest places in the civil service are reserved inexorably for graduates of the universities or gymnasia. In England, in 1870, the establishment of common schools, supported by general taxation, was accompanied by the throwing open of the civil and military service to competitive examination, thus giving the sons of the poorest and humblest men in the country a fair chance of filling places in the Government service, which had previously been reserved for the younger sons of the gentry with such rigor that John Bright once called that service "a vast system of outdoor relief for the British aristocracy." Indeed, it was said that "in England the opening of the civil and military service, in its influence upon the national education, was equivalent to a hundred thousand scholarships and exhibitions of the most valuable kind."

The late change in the mode of admission to our own civil service, both Federal and State, is working in the same happy direction by heightening the value, especially among the poor and friendless, of common-school education. "Influence" has, during the last fifty years, been even more necessary to an American who wished to get a place under the Government and keep it, than it used to be to an Englishman, because the tenure in England, except during one brief period in the last century, has been permanent, while here it was most precarious. Consequently "civil-service reform" is one more triumph of real Democracy. The State Civil-Service Commission truly says in its second report:

"Our civil-service reformers have noted with pride and interest the statistics which have identified the competitive system, not, as was rashly predicted, with the higher collegiate education, which was confined to the few; but with the common schools, whose advantages were intended for the many. Governor Cleveland gave a seasonable reminder of the reciprocity of the two systems when he said, in his last annual message to the Legislature, that 'the children of our citizens are educated and trained in schools maintained at the common expense,

and the people as a whole have a right to demand the selection for the public service of those whose natural aptitudes have been improved by the educational facilities furnished by the State,"

"The pride and affection with which the people of the State justly regard their common-school system must be enhanced when they remember that the common school opens the way to the knowledge, the character, and the practical experience which will give to its pupils an equal chance to compete for employment in the public service, and will thus contribute to the excellence of the service, the comfort and interest of the people, and the dignity of the State."

Of persons examined under the Civil-Service Acts in this State, 72 per cent. were educated in the common schools only. Of those who have got places through competitive examination in the Federal service, 65 per cent. were educated in the common schools only. In fact, here as well as in England, the new laws operate to convert many thousand places in the public service into scholarships for the reward of diligent and capable pupils of the common schools of the State.

What is most singular about the history of this movement in the United States is not so much that it should have been opposed by the men who make their living out of politics, or who owed all their political influence to their success in office-jobbing, but that it should have been met, and should still be met, by the fierce hostility and ridicule of the editors of popular newspapers. Some of these have fought it, and still fight it, with arguments and illustrations which rest on the assumption that ignorance, not knowledge, is the basis of our institutions; that it is a disgraceful and absurd thing to give an American office to a man who knows how to read and write rather than to one who does not know how, or to a man who can speak or write his mother tongue correctly, in preference to one who cannot, or to a man who knows something of the history and geography of his country in preference to one who knows nothing at all. In fact, no Southern slaveholder denouncing "free society" and "free schools" before the war, no English Tory, preaching, as they all used to preach before 1832, the mischief done by education among people who had nothing to do with the laws but obey them, ever fought the battle of ignorance against knowledge with more fierceness than some of our own newspapers have of late done here, or with half as much devilish ingenuity in the way of falsehood, perversion, and misrepresentation.

THE COSTUMES OF THE "COMÉDIE HUMAINE."

To the happy law of nature by which force of imagination and delicacy of taste are generally bestowed in equal measure on great artists, Balzac—poor Balzac, as from this point of view we are tempted to call him—is a tremendous exception. With all his astounding dramatic power, there never was a more unpoetic mind, so far as "poetic" is synonymous with elevation and refinement; and it is a perpetual surprise that his immense range of observation can have been obtained from a standpoint so little lofty as his, and, indeed, chiefly by moving about among only material objects. He never looks at things as if above them: he is always on their level or even looking up to them. When he sees the stars it is because he is working in a mine. This lack of poetic quality, and also his lack of humor, cause his conspicuous defects of taste. And while it cannot be said that the points of resemblance between Balzac and Swift are numerous, yet in this they are alike—that their common extraordinary want of fineness, their ignorance of the more exquisite emotions, impair as greatly the enduring strength of their work, its permanent weight, as they do its immediate charm. A wide difference, however, between them exists in the fact that the *style* of Swift in his great moments does not suffer from this deficiency, while Balzac—"poor Balzac!" once more—in his most important, his most effective, his most characteristic, his most immortal passages, is still for ever stumbling into such clumsinesses as only genius can be guilty of.

And deeper even than manner, his thought, like Swift again, has frequently a terrible inelegance, a quite appalling tastelessness. But Swift's sins in this direction, while more odious in their muddiness than Balzac's, are yet in some degree associated with the quality of humor, which is essentially a cleansing power and of clarifying effect. In Balzac, as we just now remarked, humor was non-existent; he was totally deprived of its assistance. The "Comédie Humaine" has scarcely more of "comedy" in it than the 'Divina Commedia.' It is a presentation of the tragedies of the modern world not less than the poem is a presentation of those of the mediæval world. Balzac has been compared to Dickens; but the divergence of their minds as regards drollery is immense. Who ever, we will not say laughed, but even smiled, in reading Balzac? And how rapidly we turn the pages when we find ourselves immersed in one of his humorous (!) conversations. Of humorous *scenes* there is not one, we will assert, to be found in his volumes (barring the unmentionable 'Contes Drolatiques'), except such as arise from mistakes and mortifications in "society," from falls on the ice of "the world." And if in these scenes he be compared with Thackeray, the failure which comes from want of subtlety of conception and fineness of touch is apparent at once. We may also derive a salutary lesson from placing him by the side of Goldsmith.

But while declaring that no one ever smiled over Balzac's pages, we must none the less acknowledge that our immediate purpose is to excite the smiles of the reader with a few quotations from him illustrative of his ludicrous deficiencies in artistic perception and intelligence. It would be impossible by quotation to point out Balzac's want of taste in the delineation of character, to show the absurdities of the lovely, impassioned, broken-hearted ladies who, disregarding the laws of man, and ignorant of the laws of God, arrange themselves in the most fascinating attitudes in their brilliant salons or their dim boudoirs, and lift their eyes to heaven, or "to the cornice, . . . the kindest, most acquiescent, most gracious confidant women can find at those moments when they dare not look at their interlocutor." To Balzac "the cornice of a boudoir is an institution." But if Balzac's ladies are beyond the reach of quotation, their costumes may be detached from them, and these offer *en petit* delicious expressions of his taste. They give evidence, too, not merely of his personal taste, but of the overpowering fact that our century is not a time of taste in dress, that "great" dress has long been unknown to the world. In the few years that have made Balzac's day remote from us, Time has touched with a ridiculous air its "fashions," and given to Balzac's descriptions of them that comicality and caricature which belongs to the illustrations in antiquated, silk-bound "keepsakes."

He himself suggests this comparison, for he describes one of his heroines as being "slim and delicate as one of those sirens invented by English designers for their 'books of beauty.'" She is Modeste Mignon, a "blonde céleste" of twenty years, with hair the color of pale gold, as light in quality as marabou-feathers, and curling in long ringlets, and whose figure had the elegance of a young poplar waving in the wind. The evening she is first introduced to us she is attired in "a pearl-gray dress trimmed with cherry-colored gimp, with a long waist modestly outlining her bust, and a chemisette covering her still somewhat thin shoulders, so as to show only the first curves where the throat joins the shoulders." That may pass, perhaps, under the author's previous invocation of the name of Maddalena Doni, which can "carry" the half-high chemisette, though scarcely the cherry-colored "passementerie." But a few months later we have poor Modeste appearing on horseback in "a delicious bottle-green kerseymere riding habit, on her head a little hat with a green veil, on her hands doeskin gloves, and velvet boots on her feet, about which fluttered the lace trimming of her"—*caleçon!* Imagine Di Vernon riding in lace-trimmed *caleçon!* We must add that Modeste carried, on this occasion, a riding-whip costing seven thousand francs, the handle being a fox-hunt wrought in gold, and "finished" by a ruby of such price that it swallowed up all the "savings" of the devoted lover from whom it was an anonymous and unrecognized gift.

As a balance to the lace-trimmed *caleçon*, we are elsewhere told that a "femme comme il faut," when in street dress, does *not* wear "pantalons" "with embroidered ruffles puffed round her ankles," nor open-work stockings; but "you observe on her feet either cloth slippers with buskin fastenings (*à cothurnes*) crossed over an excessively fine cotton stocking or over a plain gray silk stocking, or else boots of the most exquisite simplicity." Her dress, we are assured, is "almost always" (!) in the fashion of "a long coat fastened with knots, and charmingly edged by a cord or an imperceptible thread." Here follows a marvellous deseription of the manner in which she envelopes herself in the shawl which she wears over this "long coat"—an arrangement which makes it seem a little unreasonable to sneer at the "bourgeoise" who "in winter wears a boa over a fur coat, and in summer a scarf over a shawl." These, however, it appears, are "pleonasms of toilette"; a shawl over a long coat is just perfection. But it is the bonnet which is perhaps the most interesting point: "it is of a remarkable simplicity, and has *fresh ribands*"! "*Perhaps* it has flowers, but the most able of these women wear only bows. Feathers need a carriage, flowers attract too much attention." This "able" woman "is always accompanied either by two very distinguished-looking men, of whom at least one is *décoré*, or by a servant in undress livery who follows her at ten paces distance." The unfortunate "bourgeoise," on the other hand, who has "to gather up her dress to cross a gutter," is accompanied by a child for whose sake "she is obliged to be upon the watch about the carriages; she is a mother in public, and talks with her daughter; she has money in her hand-bag, and open-work stockings on her feet." And we cannot but fear that she never wears "souliers à cothurnes."

But it is in the creation of his evening dresses that Balzac is most triumphant, and he did his utmost for Madame Rabourdin. On a certain Tuesday in 182--, about ten o'clock in the evening, she went forth to conquest in "a delicious mourning toilette. Her hair was dressed with bunches of grapes in jet of the most beautiful workmanship, an ornament costing a thousand crowns, ordered from Fossin by an Englishwoman who departed without taking it. [Let us observe, in passing, that there seems to have been a mysterious charm to Balzac in buying articles "order-

ed" by other people. Modeste Mignon's whip had been "made by Stidmann for a Russian who had not been able to pay for it." But to return to Madame Rabourdin's wreath.] The leaves were of stamped iron, light as real vine leaves, and the artist had not forgotten the graceful tendrils which were to twist among the ringlets, just as they catch on every branch. Her bracelets, necklace, and earrings were of Berlin iron, but these delicate arabesques came from Vienna, and seemed to have been made by those fairies who," etc., etc., etc. Her black dress, of which the fashion (*décolleté* to the last point) was the invention of a "divine dressmaker"—this enchanting dress was of "mousseline de laine, a material which the manufacturer had not yet sent to Paris, a divine material [worthy of the "divine" dressmaker] which later had a wild success. This success [here Balzac changes into the *commis-voyageur*] went further than fashions alone go in France. The positive economy of mousseline de laine [divine indeed !], which requires no washing, became so injurious to cotton goods as to revolutionize the manufacture at Rouen. [The costumer now speaks again.] Célestine's foot had a superior air in a finely-woven stocking and a slipper of Turk's satin, for her deep mourning forbade real satin. Célestine was indeed beautiful when so dressed" !

As a coiffeur, Balzac is unrivalled. Who can forget the head of Mademoiselle de Verneuil when, arraying herself in "the voluptuous garment of pagan priestesses" for a ball given by the "Chouans" in Brittany, "she twisted the long tresses of her hair so as to form at the back of the head that imperfect and flattened cone which gives so much grace to some ancient statues through a fictitious prolongation of the head; and ringlets retained in front fell on each side of her face in long shining curls? In this garb, her hair thus dressed [she added a wreath of holly above the curls *à l'anglaise !*], she offered a perfect resemblance to the most illustrious chefs d'œuvre of the Grecian chisel"!

We could wish to put in juxtaposition with these elaborate sketches and others like them a few of Balzac's studies of men's clothes, to show his talents not only as a dressmaker but as a tailor. He was equally "divine" in both businesses; and there are moments when the dressing-gowns of his heroes, or more especially their waistcoats, seem almost to outshine anything a woman could wear. It would be interesting also to select passages displaying the "momentary" *manners* of his men and women—their "dress" in words and looks, phrases and attitudes; it would all show the same pervading ignorance and inelegance. But our space is filled.

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL TROUBLES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, January 14, 1885.

Is a democratic country, or let us say, is a parliamentary country, unfit to have a foreign policy? Must it, however successful in adjusting its domestic quarrels before they reach a point dangerous to public tranquillity, be condemned to see its action in the larger world paralyzed by internal divisions of opinion and the timidity or hesitation of its Executive? This is a question which Englishmen have been accustomed to put when they have observed the behavior of France since 1870: her restlessness and uncertainty, the alternate fits of boldness and of reserve, the sense of weakness in Europe relieving itself by bullying weak and semi-civilized Powers in other parts of the world. It is a question which they have now been led to consider with more anxiety and less self-complacency by the ill luck which has attended them in almost every dealing they have had with foreign Powers since foreign affairs began (in 1876) to become an important part of their national action. Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry mismanaged the Eastern question, abandoning Turkey, whom it began by wishing to befriend and uphold, making itself ridiculous by the acquisition of useless Cyprus, engaging in an utterly useless and unjustifiable war with the Afghans, allowing one colonial Governor to commit them to an attack on the Zulus, and another to annex the Transvaal, which it has been found desirable subsequently to abandon. Mr. Gladstone's Government, which began with better auspices, because it had the decisive adhesion of the popular majority to the principles it announced in 1880, has, with the exception of the settlement of the Montenegrin and Greek frontier questions in 1880 and 1881, been just as unlucky as Lord Beaconsfield was in every enterprise beyond the limits of England. It has had a constant succession of troubles in South Africa with natives as well as with the Transvaal Dutch. It has sunk deeper and deeper in the Serbonian bog of Egypt. It undertook a short but sanguinary Red Sea coast campaign for which no adequate ground has ever been assigned. It is engaged in a hazardous expedition into Sudan which must cost some ten millions sterling. It has incurred the hostility of Germany and the suspicions of France, and while the latter checks every scheme for the resettlement of Egypt, the former seems to go out of her way to show her spite by annexing territories in Africa and the Western Pacific which the British colonies, seconded by a large body of opinion at home, were anxious to retain or acquire. Your readers know the facts in all these cases ; I am only concerned to state how they affect public opinion in England and the future of parties there.

First, however, there is one doubtful point to determine. Is it really true that Germany is hostile ? For a long time people in England refused to believe this, being unable to discover any reason for it. We have no dislike to the Germans, no interests opposed to theirs, no conceivable ground for a quarrel with them. We have, therefore, failed to understand why they should seek to quarrel with us, and have disregarded the frequently offensive language of their press. The fact, however, that this language has been so persistently used by journals known to be under the influence of Bismarck was beginning to surprise us, when the annexation of a large part of New Guinea—an act for which there seemed no apparent motive of interest on Germany's part—convinced most observers that Bismarck must wish to show himself unfriendly. Why, we are still in doubt. It can hardly be the personal aversion to Mr. Gladstone with which he is credited ; that seems too small a motive. It does not seem connected with the desire to set England and France by the ears, which has been pretty patent through his conduct in the Egyptian business. It looks like a deliberate purpose to irritate England, and let her know that she must not expect good will from the great Power of Central Europe. What is behind this nobody seems to know, but the general impression among politicians here and in France is, that the act marks the isolation of England from all friends in Europe, except Italy ; and this is, of course, made a charge against the conduct of the Ministry.

As Parliament is not sitting, as few members of the Government have lately spoken in public, and as they are always obliged to maintain much reserve in discussing the behavior of foreign Powers, their defence has not been heard. The London press does little or nothing for them, and most of its strong organs are openly against them. The newspapers in the great provincial cities are more loyal and hearty, but their advocacy consists chiefly in minimizing the importance of foreign affairs, in dwelling on the successful settlement of Parliamentary reform, and putting forward programmes of radical measures for the next Parliament. Thus the assailants have it all their own way for the present, and the lull in domestic politics which has followed the arrangement of the Redistribution difficulty has left the public at full leisure to listen to their continued invectives on the shortsightedness, the timidity, the clumsiness, etc., etc., of the present Cabinet. Respect for Mr. Gladstone, and the sense that weakened health may soon oblige him to pass from power into the retirement of private life, divert the brunt of the storm from his head to Lord Granville and Lord Derby, who are respectively responsible for Foreign Affairs and for the Colonies. The Radicals have never cared for either statesman, and do not trouble themseives with the defence of great peers whose places they would willingly see filled by more advanced politicians.

That there is a good deal of exaggeration in the censure bestowed on the Government, goes without saying. People always forget how many mistakes the best foreign ministers make, and the fathers of those who now recall with a sigh the wisdom and vigor of Palmerston, abused him just as roundly and quite as justly for his meddling everywhere, for his abandonment of the Ionian Islands, for his apparent breach of faith with Denmark in 1864. The Egyptian question has been of quite unprecedented difficulty, because the complications with the Powers of Europe, as well as with the Sultan, which various treaties have created, make it impossible for England to take any decided step without incurring the imputation, particularly odious to Mr. Gladstone, of violating our engagements. The recent conduct of it has harassed and worried him as nothing in his previous political life has ever done. He generally bears anxiety with the equanimity which comes of long practice, and is able to obtain relief by turning to other subjects. But this vexation has told on his health and sleep. As respects the difficulties with Germany, Angra Pequena, Santa Lucia, and New Guinea no great harm has after all been done. The first is a strip of barren coast, perfectly worthless to the Germans and to ourselves; so, however feebly our Foreign Office and Colonial Office may have behaved, English interests have not really suffered. As this was too small a thing to care about, so New Guinea was almost too large a thing to undertake. We have so much territory already unoccupied, and can so little hope to colonize tropical regions with our own people, that it may be doubted whether the Colonial Office was not right in refusing to declare the Protectorate which the Australian Colonies wished for. It is not therefore so much the harm done that has annoyed sensible men—the "Jingoes," as they are called, who seek only a pretext to attack the Ministry on every occasion, may be left out of account—as the notion that neither foreign nor colonial questions are in strong hands, and that if there were to be the least danger of a war arising from some complications like these, we should run the risk of again drifting into it, as we did with the Czar Nicholas in 1852, merely because our Ministers would not have soon enough known their own minds and spoken out the will of the country with decision. Besides, there is the mortification of feeling one's self either outwitted or bullied. To lose £50 by sheer accident is not so provoking as to be tricked out of 5 shillings through one's own stupidity.

Although this feeling prevails, and prevails so far that even sturdy Ministerialists when they make speeches in defence of the Government, say little or nothing upon foreign or colonial matters, and dismiss Egypt with the remark that though the Ministry may not have done very well, Lord

Salisbury would doubtless have done much worse, still it must not be supposed that the bulk of the voters are much affected. The class which cries out at little mortifications to national pride, the class which assumes that British interests are always to prevail against other interests (just as so many Englishmen expect always to get the best rooms at a Swiss hotel), the class which takes the whole ocean to be a British possession, and islands appanages of the English Crown, as the Popes of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries claimed them to be appanages of the tiara—this class is and has for years been hostile to Mr. Gladstone and to advanced Liberalism. It includes very few of those who have helped to seat him in power. Its opposition may always be reckoned on, and this outbreak is, therefore, no desertion, no transfer of force to the opposite camp. The great bulk of the Radicals in the towns and in those manufacturing and mining counties which the Redistribution Bill makes so much more powerful, is usually almost indifferent to what happens outside England. I do not say that a great crisis, involving unmistakably the honor or the naval and colonial greatness of the country, would not rouse it, but discussions like the present do not. It is thinking only of getting good Radicals to fill the new seats, and of the reforming measures which will then follow. It is willing to believe that Lord Granville may be getting rather too old for such a difficult post as his, that Lord Derby has always been too timid and undecided, but it thinks nothing can go far wrong while Mr. Gladstone is at the helm, and calls the attacks of the London papers "Jingo nonsense." So far as one can see now, it would take greater mistakes than have been made, a far greater catastrophe than any which past mistakes seem at all likely to involve, to prevent the Redistribution scheme from bearing its natural fruits in a large Liberal majority at the next general election in January, and that is the point of time on which all eyes are now fixed.

Nevertheless, it must not be assumed that because the Radicals stand by the Government, therefore the Government is not damaged. The confidence of many moderate men, who mostly take no active part in agitation, but influence the public by their attitude even more than they do elections by their votes, has been seriously shaken. For instance, whereas five or six years ago people thought of Lord Granville as a probable Prime Minister, and of Lord Derby as a valuable member of a Cabinet, no one thinks so now. The fighting Tories are, of course, horribly mortified that the compromise on Parliamentary reform, with the passing of the Franchise Bill, has made it useless for them to try to throw out the Ministry. Both parties are now pledged to carry the Redistribution Bill; both parties feel that the general election of 1886 will decide their respective positions, and the Tories would have little or nothing to gain by winning office now if they were to be thrown out then, while they would find themselves confronted at once by these foreign complications which are now telling against the Government. Had the Franchise Bill not been passed, they might, by defeating the Ministry, have succeeded in postponing Parliamentary reform for a session or two, and perhaps settled Redistribution in a way favorable to themselves. Events have more than ever proved how little they are a match for Mr. Gladstone in Parliamentary tactics, while the Liberals plaintively murmur that it is a pity their leaders cannot show in foreign and colonial policy the same admirable skill with which they have played their game at home. Y.

Correspondence.

GENERAL JORDAN AND GENERAL JOHNSTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your critic, in his review of the *Century* articles regarding the battle of Shiloh, can hardly have done me the honor to read more than cursorily my small share thereof of less than six pages; otherwise he would not have fancied that the *Century* "has carried its purpose of hearing both sides so far as to add General Jordan's article as an antidote to the imputations upon General Beauregard's generalship, which are found in the article by Colonel Johnston."

What I wrote consisted of brief notes of separate events or incidents connected either with the inception of the campaign or with the battle. In not one of them did I refer to the impugnment of Beauregard's generalship adventured by the writer who has undertaken to supply the readers of the *Century* with the Confederate story of the battle of Shiloh, as the pendant to General Grant's version of the affair. Nor, in fact, did I write a word, in my notes, of General Beauregard's generalship, antidotally or otherwise. I simply confined myself to certain matters with which I had been officially connected as Adjutant-General of the Confederate army that fought the battle in question, about which I had been specifically asked by the editors of the *Century* to write as compactly as possible. Not aware that Mr. Preston Johnston had found it seemly to avail himself of such an occasion to rake the grave for evidence with which to impugn General Beauregard's generalship, I certainly did not attempt to administer an antidote to a *bane* of whose existence I was ignorant.

I have only to add that probably the greater part of the readers of the *Century* have found an efficient antidote to Mr. Johnston's *bane* in what General Grant said of the Confederate generalship, pages 608 and 609 of the *Century*. Another antidote, however, military men generally will find in Mr. Johnston's article itself, in the fact that General Johnston received his death wound as early as 2 P.M., in the first day's battle, at the extreme Confederate right—extreme Union left—while, according to Mr. Johnston, in the act of leading a single brigade into action, at a time, be it noted, when the Confederates were in the full tide of success in all quarters of the field. Now, assuredly, it cannot be regarded as the office of the Commander-in-Chief of an army in battle to occupy himself exclusively, as Mr. Johnston studiously represents his father to have done, in leading isolated brigades, one by one, into action. To men professionally acquainted with the supremely momentous responsibilities which weigh upon the commander of an army in battle, and who must understand that it is his true part, as Shakspere tells us, to

> "——contrive how many hands shall strike,
> When fitness calls them on, and know, by measure
> Of their observant toil, the enemies' weight"—

I need not point out that a commanding general can only efficiently discharge his functions from some central position, carefully selected, from which he may give the constant continuous propulsion and direction to that tremendous aggregation of mental, physical, and mechanical forces which constitute a modern army. Therefore, the mere historical fact that General Johnston did not take such a position at any time during the battle of Shiloh, but, on the contrary, sought the very front edge of the battle, must show to military men conclusively that General Johnston, for some reason sufficient to himself, must have seen fit to abdicate to his "second in command" the conduct of the battle of Shiloh from the beginning of the combat.

The antidote, it seems to me, to any criticism adventured by Mr. Johnston of Beauregard's generalship must arise spontaneously in the minds of the *Century* readers generally, as they find this critic gravely representing his paternal hero parading *bareheaded*, just before he was mortally wounded, in front of a brigade, encouraging it with his "fine voice and manly bravery," with his "sword rested in his scabbard. In his right hand he held a little tin cup. . . . It was this plaything which, holding it between two fingers, he employed more effectively in his natural and simple gesticulation than most men could have used a sword."

Need I say that it is only on the melodramatic or comic-opera stage that a commanding general of an army upon a battle-field is made to brandish his sword, or carry that insignia of command otherwise than resting in its scabbard?

It is certainly far from my purpose to say or intimate aught in derogation of the soldierly capacity or personal worth of Albert Sidney Johnston, the right appreciation of whom, however, is, as I sincerely believe, not to be formed from the pictures of him on the field of Shiloh or elsewhere—so florid, overwrought, and fanciful—which have been so profusely presented by his son to the public gaze in the *Century* article.

Thomas Jordan.

New York, January 28.

RUSSIAN NOVELISTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad that your Paris correspondent has called the attention of the public to Count Leo Tolstoi's magnificent novel, 'War and Peace.' I cannot speak as to the merits of the French translation referred to, as I have not seen it, but no praise can exaggerate the merits of the original in the directions pointed out by your correspondent.

It is time that the English-reading public should learn that Russia has produced other authors besides Turgeneff. The inimitable Gogol, whose tales Turgeneff declared that he knew by heart, and of whom he said, "We are proud of him as one of our glories," is as unknown here as is Count Leo Tolstoi; while Count Alexei Tolstoi is known only by a translation of his fine 'Prince Serebranny.' This, like the translation, from the Dutch, of Van Lennep's 'Ferdinand Huyck' (under the title of 'The Count of Talavera'), is absolutely incoherent in its abridged form.

But I fear we are not likely to see either Gogol or Leo Tolstoi at present. As in the famous case of Mr. Daddy Longlegs and Mr. Floppy Fly, opposite causes produce identical results. Mr. D. Longlegs could not go to court because of the length of his limbs, while Mr. F. Fly was forced to stay at home because his were too short. Gogol's inimitable tales are pronounced too short by the very publishers who would call Tolstoi's 'War and Peace' too long. Still, in case any publisher should feel inclined to venture on the latter, there are two mistakes which I sincerely hope to see avoided: 1st. If it be considered necessary to abridge the story, let the work be done with skill, that it may not prove a mutilation. 2d. And above all, let the translation be made directly from the Russian, and not through any French or German version, however good. No language can endure the double strain, and Russian least of all.

If Turgeneff be voted "dull" by the majority of people, and left on the booksellers' shelves, it is due, in part, at least, to the above cause, viz., a double translation.—Yours truly, B. H.

Boston.

A DISTRACTED HISTORIAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of 'John Adams,' in the "American Statesmen Series," you note among Mr. Morse's qualifications as a biographer that he possesses "a considerable power of sympathy." Perhaps it is this "power of sympathy" with his subject which has led Mr. Morse to make certain statements in this last work which do not harmonize with those previously uttered by him. In his 'Life of Alexander Hamilton,' published some years ago, he touched upon some points of dispute and the general lack of harmony between Hamilton and Adams; in the biography of Adams he has had to deal with the same points a second time, and the statements made in the two biographies seem to me to warrant their comparison. On the question whether Pickering, McHenry, and Wolcott were guilty of any political or moral obliquity in submitting to Hamilton's judgment and dictation while they remained members of Adams's Cabinet, and in general of their relations to Adams, Mr. Morse says in

'Life of Hamilton.'	'Life of Adams.'
"If indeed the Secretaries betrayed Cabinet secrets, . . . they did wrong. Nor does any evidence of such conduct upon their part exist." (Vol. ii, p. 234.)	"They [the Secretaries] were in such a frame of mind that they betrayed all official discussions to Hamilton; they sought and followed Hamilton's advice. They did this for the purpose of gaining Hamilton's invaluable aid in their opposition to their proper chief." (P. 311.)
"Neither is it by any means clear that the Secretaries should have insisted upon retiring from office." (Vol. ii, p. 236.)	"According to received principles, fair dealing to Mr. Adams, even justice to themselves, would have led them to resign when they so utterly differed from him that their sole aim was to thwart him. But however this may have been, certain it is that any decent sense of propriety—nay, for the word must be used, of honor—would have led them to refrain from communicating Cabinet secrets for use against the President by his avowed enemy." (P. 312.)
"Nor does any evidence of such conduct upon their part exist. . . . Yet even to such allegations the lax custom of the day might be pleaded in extenuation, if not in full excuse." (P. 234.)	
"Three members of the Cabinet [Pickering, McHenry, and Wolcott] *had long been obnoxious to the President* as being more amenable to alien influence than to his own. They were now ejected in rapid succession." (Vol. ii, p. 296.)	"Pickering richly deserved unceremonious expulsion; but Mr. Adams courteously offered him the opportunity to resign." (P. 314.)
"Wolcott had made an admirable Secretary of the Treasury, nor would it be easy to fill his place. He was therefore retained a little longer until the matter could be arranged without prejudice to the public affairs, when he also was compelled to retire." (Vol. ii, p. 297.)	"*Wolcott* . . . had habitually spoken the President so fair that he *was regarded by Mr. Adams as a friendly adviser*, though very far from really being so. He now continued for some months to combine external civility and deference to the President with the function of Cabinet-reporter, so to speak—and to avoid the word spy—for Mr. Hamilton. In the following November, amid all the vexations which that ill-starred season brought to Mr. Adams, he sent in his resignation, leaving the President to look for an incumbent who would be willing to hold the office for two months." (P. 315.)

Again, in speaking of the probable rupture and consequent chasm likely to be opened in the Federalist party by the nomination of a Minister to France, the author says in

'Life of Hamilton.'	'Life of Adams.'
"Adams would not stand quite alone upon his side of it. Men who loved peace and economy at any price would probably adhere to him. His influence and position would attract others. *The bulk of the party would not go with him.*" (Vol. ii, p. 280.)	"In no caucus of the Federalist members of Congress could the Hamiltonians ever muster a majority against Mr. Adams. *Neither does there seem any reason to doubt that* upon a simple vote of all the Federalists in the country taken at any time during his administration, *much more than half would have sustained him.*" (P. 307.)

Other equally noticeable inconsistencies occur in the two books. It is not necessary to decide here which set of statements is nearer the truth. The comparison was made simply to show that the inconsistencies exist, and to illustrate the effects of a "power of sympathy" that is occasionally over-strong. In one work the author exhibits a tendency to uphold Hamilton at the expense of Adams, while in the other he favors Adams where the two men differ. Perhaps this is what might have been expected, and yet, in the case of a writer like Mr. Morse, whose opinions we have a right to consider authoritative, such a wavering of opinion—not to say contradiction of statement—is far from satisfactory to the reader.

George W. Knight.

Ann Arbor, Mich., January 27, 1885.

HAULING OFF ON THE WHIPSTAFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The English marine-novelist, Mr. Clark Russell, in a magazine article wherein he falls foul of Fenimore Cooper savagely, calls the phrase in Gulliver, "we hauled off on the whipstaff, and helped the man at the helm," a piece of meaningless nonsense. Per contra, the phrase is shown to exist in a respectable Seaman's Guide of that date, and the question arises what may it mean.

Russell says that the "whipstaff" is the stick from which the pendant (still called a "whip," I believe, by sailors) hangs, and which itself is lashed to the mast-head. Very good, but was that always its sole meaning? Now, it is to be noted that the build of ships has much altered since Swift's time. In his day, if a ship carried the fore-and-aft mizzen-sail, which we call a spanker, it at least did not reach to the poop, which was high and peaked, and furnished with an ensign-staff that doubtless went down as far as the deck, behind the man at the helm. Now, it is a feasible supposition that this went in those days by the same name, "whipstaff," which is now given to its smaller variety at the mast-head. If so, it gives ground for an intelligible explanation.

I remember once, in the long-gone days of sloops and pettiaugers, coming from down the bay in New Jersey with a strong wind abeam. The vessel heeled so, and made such way, that the man "could not hold up his helm," as the Guide says. So they got a block and tackle, hooked one block to the windward bulwark, fastened another to the tiller, and gave the helmsman the end of the tackle to haul on; thus helping the man at the helm. Now, what if in Captain Gulliver's ship they did substantially the same thing, only hooking the block (or blocks) to the whipstaff, and hauling at the helmsman's order? If so, the matter is very simple and reasonable.

One matter in which Mr. Russell pitches into Cooper is the incident, in the 'Pilot,' of a whale being killed off the Yorkshire coast. But this event seems hardly beyond that moderate license allowed to novelists *as well as* painters and poets. What is more objectionable, though I think Mr. Russell does not mention it, is the collecting a shoal of sharks round it in a few hours. And I conceive it is still more incorrect to have a large, vigorous whale killed by one wound of a harpoon. If so, Mr. Russell has fairly missed the pigeon and hit the crow.

S. A.

Hartford, January 30, 1885.

BOHN'S TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Professor Goodwin's letter (in the *Nation* of January 29) on a misrepresentation of Plato's 'Republic' is of value not only in showing up the immediate mistake, but in adding weight to the disesteem deserved in general by the translations in Bohn's library. So many persons unable to read the originals read these translations believing them to be faithful, at least to the author's meaning, that it is much to be desired that proof after proof should be given that this is not the case. Long ago Mr. Matthew Arnold exclaimed: "Think of the difference between the translations of the classics turned out from Mr. Bohn's library and those turned out from Mr. Nisard's collection!" using it as an illustration of the lack of literary *training* among the men who do such work in England. And though since then better scholars have occasionally done excellent translations which have appeared in Mr. Bohn's various series, yet much the larger number of "Bohn's" translations are comparatively worthless; and it is astonishing that readers with any literary training themselves can fail to see this—to *feel* it, even when they do not know the originals; just as one can tell whether a portrait is a likeness or not without seeing the person.

These thoughts are fresh in my mind, because very lately, in turning over the leaves of the translation of Goethe's 'Aus meinem Leben' and the 'Italienische Reise,' published forty years ago but reissued in 1881, I was struck with the constant outrageous absurdities of rendering, and not infrequent serious mistakes, which cannot all be charitably ascribed to misprints, though misprints are numerous, and often of a bewildering kind—as where we are told that the women of Verona "are well made and have a decided *pupil*, but are for the most part pale." The fact is they have an "entschiedene *Profile*." But one of the many serious mistakes is this. The translation makes Goethe say, in a passage describing ancient monuments: "Here a man in armor is on his knees in expectation of a joyful resurrection." The original is the exact opposite: "Hier ist *kein* geharnischter Mann"! Even if the edition used by the translator had the misprint, "Hier ist *ein*," not to perceive it to be wrong shows that he did not the least comprehend the context, with which the one statement is in unison, the other perfectly at variance.

As Baron de Grimm said, a hundred and thirty years ago: "If it were only for example's sake, I would have every such translator condemned to a month's confinement in a lunatic asylum." (I wish to confess that, not having the original at hand, I quote this sentence from a translation, an anonymous translation dated 1814; but such vivacious authenticity is in every line of the book, that I am ready to vouch for its essential truth, without comparing it with the original.)

Yours truly,

A Lover of Trustworthy Work.

WHITTIER'S FREMONT CAMPAIGN SONGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your note in No. 1019 (January 8), relative to Whittier's missing campaign song of 1856, sent me to my Fremont campaign scrapbook. I found there words to the air "Suoni la tromba," but none by Whittier; nor do I remember ever to have seen his song beginning

"Sound now the trumpet warningly."

I found, however, a copy of his "Song, inscribed to the Fremont Clubs," after the election, bearing date November 10, 1856, and beginning,

"Beneath thy skies, November."

I do not find this song in the complete edition of Whittier's poems published in 1870. Is it also out of print?

James O. Pierce.

Memphis, January 29, 1885.

PRIMITIVE COLOR-PREFERENCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those scholars who advocate the theory of the development of color-perception maintain that the ancients (as well as the savages of the present day) preferred red and yellow objects to those of any other color, on account of their

being more luminous. There is no doubt that red and yellow were favorite colors with them, but this explanation is not satisfactory. A savage of to-day will choose red, even if it be dull, in preference to a bright green or blue. Scientifically it can be explained as follows: Primitive man passed his life chiefly out of doors. The green of the vegetation and the blue of the sky almost constantly meet his eyes. As is well known, when the eyes grow weary looking at one color for a considerable length of time, they are immediately refreshed when the complementary color is presented to them. Accordingly, primitive man took the greatest delight in the complementary of green, namely red, and in the complementary of blue, namely orange (yellow and red).

W. O. SPROULL.

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI, January 24, 1885.

Notes.

THE publishers of Lady Brassey's 'In the Trades' are Henry Holt & Co., notwithstanding the strange fashion in which their name got misprinted in our last issue.

The third volume of Schouler's 'History of the United States,' covering the period 1817-1831, will be published by William H. Morison, Washington, in May next. This will be welcome news to those who know the singular value of Mr. Schouler's work.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish this month a new edition of the late Geo. P. Marsh's works, with important additions and revisions; the fourth volume of Doctor Schaff's 'History of the Christian Church'—'Mediæval History'; an illustrated edition of J. G. Holland's works, in fourteen volumes; and 'Instructions in Rifle and Carbine Firing,' by Capt. S. E. Blunt, U. S. A.

D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, announce 'Southern Alaska and the Sitkan Archipelago,' by Miss E. R. Scidmore; and 'Philosophiæ Quæstor; or, Days at Concord,' by Mrs. Julia R. Anagnos.

Mr. Edmund Gosse, who returned to England on January 27 to resume his duties as Clark Lecturer on English Literature to the University of Cambridge, left behind him the MS. of the lectures on English Poetry from the death of Shakspere to the rise of Pope, which he delivered in the course of the Lowell Institute at Boston, at Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore, and in a circle of private houses in New York—for New York is wholly without the administrative machinery and the endowment which give stability and dignity to the lecture system in Boston and Baltimore. These lectures will shortly be published by James R. Osgood & Co.

Mr. George J. Coombes is about to publish a book likely to interest those who have taken delight in the excellent performances of the company of the London Lyceum Theatre. It is entitled 'Henry Irving in New York,' and is a revised reprint of the several criticisms of Mr. Irving's acting in this city, written from day to day by Mr. William Winter. The book will be printed with the utmost care, in emulation of the editions of M. Jouaust and M. Quantin.

Henry Holt & Co. will publish during February a volume containing a 'Choix de Contes Contemporains,' edited by Mr. B. F. O'Connor, Ph.D., Instructor in French at Columbia College, which is likely to be as interesting as it is useful. It will contain short stories by Alfred de Musset, Théophile Gautier, and Edmond About, now dead, and of Alphonse Daudet, François Coppée, and André Theuriet—all past-masters in the art and mystery of writing short stories. Mr. O'Connor will append such literary and linguistic notes as the tales may seem to demand.

The same publishers have brought out a substantial work on 'The Civil Service in the United States,' by John M. Comstock, chairman of the United States Board of Examiners for the Customs Service in this city. The very size of it (more than six hundred pages) is emphatic testimony to the permanence of the reform which it illustrates. In brief, it is a complete enumeration of the places in our present civil establishment—both the classified service, with competitive and non-competitive offices distinguished, and the unclassified, not subject to competition. Salaries are everywhere indicated. These schedules are followed by minute practical information as to the methods of gaining admission to the civil service, with specimens of examination papers in the several departments. Finally, the New York and Massachusetts State and municipal rules, fixed by the latest legislation, are given in full. This timely volume is therefore a landmark in American progress toward good government. The thoroughness with which it has been edited is a guarantee of its popular acceptance as the highest authority on the subject. It will be revised from time to time.

An arrangement of Federal offices by States perhaps warrants the continuance of 'The United States Blue Book' (Washington: J. H. Soulé), of which the fourth edition is before us. In all other respects it would seem to be superseded by the work just described.

The critic readily abdicates his function in presence of type so fine as that in which 'Webster's Condensed Dictionary,' edited by Mr. Dorsey Gardner, is set (Ivison, Blakeman & Co.). Though beautifully printed, no one ought to use it except for occasional and momentary reference, and even then with a *loupe*, if possible. It would, for instance, be ruinous to a schoolboy's eyes. The compression is got by omitting certain classes of technical terms and of compounds, and by a German arrangement of root-word and derivatives. Illustrations have been retained, and the etymologies have profited by the latest works on the subject. So far as we have tested this dictionary, it bears out the publishers' claim that it has been carefully wrought over, and is not a simple reprint.

The *Magazine of American History* for February is exceptionally even in the quality of its articles, though Doctor Vermilye's entertaining "Early New York Post-office" has a rambling character which belies the writer's age, and Judge Gayarré's illustrations of General Jackson's piety have a naïveté also suggestive of a past or passing generation.

Every visitor to the Centennial Exhibition of 1876 remembers the wonderfully effective screens of photographic transparencies, chiefly representing our Indian population. The New Orleans correspondent of the *Photographic Times* tells of like transparencies in the photographic department of the Cotton Exposition—brilliant, dazzling, elegant, splendid, stupendous, he calls them. He notices especially the Kentucky series, geological and scenic, and those illustrating Indian life in New Mexico.

The second leading article in *Le Livre* for January is a translation, by M. de Sainte-Heraye, of Mr. Pascoe's article on "The English Magazine" in the *Atlantic* of September, 1884. M. Champfleury, this journal announces, is at work on a new volume on Caricature. From the same source we learn that a committee of the Société des Gens de lettres has resolved that there should be a Literary Congress in Paris in 1889 (as in 1878) at the projected World's Exhibition. A sub-committee has been charged with drawing up a programme.

An English edition of R. W. Bucke's 'Walt Whitman' has just been published by Wilson & McCormick, of Glasgow. It differs from the American edition in having an appendix of twenty pages contributed by Prof. Edward Dowden, and entitled 'English Critics on Walt Whitman.' Professor Dowden summarizes the statements of some forty English critics who have in one way or another expressed opinions concerning Whitman's writings. A letter from Mr. William Bell Scott, printed in this appendix, gives an account of how copies of the first or Brooklyn edition of 'Leaves of Grass' reached England a few months after the publication of the book in 1855. A wandering book auctioneer brought copies from the United States to Sunderland in the summer of 1856. These copies were bought by Mr. Thomas Dixon, the cork-cutter, to whom Mr. Ruskin addressed the letters afterwards published with the title 'Time and Tide by Weare and Tyne.' Mr. Dixon sent copies to Mr. Scott, who writes:

"This is, I think, worthy of record, as, no publisher being interested in this first edition of the book, it might have been long enough before reaching this country, but for the travelling James Grindrod with his Dutch auction. Besides, his having a number of copies in his miscellaneous pack shows the small value of the book in America at its first appearance."

Messrs. Robert Boyle & Son, of London, have devised an arrangement for ventilating prisons which will be very inconvenient for those novelists whose plots demand that the prisoners in contiguous cells should be able to communicate with each other through the air passages. In their plan a single horizontal shaft drains the air from ten cells, but they are all isolated, for a metal plate or partition extends from the opening of any one cell along the shaft and past the openings of the next two. To deafen the plates near the opening, they are made double, and the space between the two is packed with sand, and the horizontal shaft is similarly deadened as it passes through the cells.

The flag-staff on the roof of the Capitol caught fire on January 26 from a spark. The autograph messages of the earlier Presidents, and many messages to Congress in the handwriting of the members of the early Cabinets, were stored close to the fire. Congress was alarmed at the thought that these had a narrow escape. It would be well if Congressmen would remember that a considerable part of the National Library is stored in the same upper story, and that the whole is not too far distant to be destroyed if a fire once got a good hold upon the building.

We note with pleasure that Doctor Story has lately published, in the Johns Hopkins University Circular, No. 36, for January, 1885, a list of the models of mathematical surfaces for facilitating geometric instruction, which the University has been accumulating within the past two years. The models are in wood, card, thread, and plaster, and were made by J. Schröder and L. Brill, of Darmstadt. Doctor Story classifies this valuable collection of models under three heads, the first of which, representing simple solids, comprises forty-one wood models, the second, surfaces, including 123 models chiefly in plaster, and the third, descriptive-geometry models, of which there are fifty.

The Congo bids fair soon to be as well known as the Rhine. In addition to elaborate maps by the English, French, and Portuguese, there has been recently published one on a still larger scale by Asher in Berlin. It is in twenty-five sections, on a scale of 1.1 geographical miles to an inch, and plots with great minuteness a strip of country, averaging twelve miles in width, through which the expedition sent out by the German Government under Major von Mechow passed. He followed down the Quango nearly to its junction with the Congo above Stanley Pool.

The sharp contrast existing between the position of the drama in France and the position of the drama in England and America is shown by

a comparison of the theatrical year-books of the three countries. In France the drama is an art, having its necessary mercantile side overshadowed by the æsthetic, and the *Almanach des Spectacles* is as dainty and beautiful a little book as one can find anywhere. In Great Britain and the United States the drama is a speculation, having only occasional relations with art—and the British *Era Almanack* and the American *New York Clipper Annual*, the issues of both of which for 1885 lie before us, are the year-books of a prosperous trade. The *Era Almanack* has as its chief object of interest a collection of facsimile autographs of famous actors and actresses of the past, and a series of views of old provincial theatres. The *New York Clipper Annual* is disfigured by a vulgar chromo-cover. The sporting chronology and record are both fuller and more accurate than the list of "dramatic notabilities."

A hitherto inedited treatise of D'Alembert's, "Réflexions sur l'état de la République des lettres," written in 1760, is appended to Brunel's 'Les Philosophes et l'Académie Française au xviiie siècle,' recently published by Hachette. The intrigues of the philosophers, especially D'Alembert and Voltaire, to overthrow the rule of the "Throne and the Altar," and establish freedom of thought and speech in the place of despotism, political and religious, is the special subject of Brunel's scholarly study.

The French periodical *Bulletin Astronomique*, whose inception we noted some months ago, has now completed its initial volume of between six and seven hundred pages with the number for December, 1884. The journal has been so far exclusively devoted to the publication of the observations and original researches of the French astronomers, as was contemplated from the outset, and there appears to have been no lack of material of the first order. The pages in each number which have reviewed the astronomical publications and magazines of other nations have been prepared in a thoroughly satisfactory manner, and have added an international element greatly desired. It will be remembered that the editor-in-chief of the *Bulletin* is M. Tisserand, of the Paris observatory.

The 200th anniversary of the liberation of Vienna from the Turkish siege of 1683, in which the Polish King John Sobieski played so famous a part, is made the occasion of the publication of a bibliography entitled 'Sobiesciana.'

The fresh light thrown upon the life and times of Lorenzo de' Medici by late research and the discovery of new documents has induced Herr Reumont to bring out a second edition of his biography of the Florentine prince. For the new edition, Reumont has profited in a great measure, says the *Archivio storico italiano*, by the letters of Lorenzo, which have lately been restored to the archives of Florence, after a disappearance of many years.

Mr. Christern sends us the prospectuses of several important works: 'Saint François d'Assise,' a literary and artistic monument to the founder of the Franciscan order, illustrated in various styles (including color), after the great masters, miniatures, etc., etc. (Paris: E. Plon); a German translation, the first ever made, of the Babylonian Talmud, with note and comment (Innsbruck); and 'Deutsche Drucke älterer Zeit, in Nachbildungen,' edited by Dr. Wilhelm Scherer of the University of Berlin (Berlin: G. Grote). This interesting series of facsimiles of rare early-printed German works will find a ready sale among all book-lovers. The 'Biblia Pauperum,' Brant's 'Narrenschiff,' the so-called first edition of the 'Germania' of Tacitus, 1470; the 'Faust' of 1587; Fischart's 'Gargantua'; Luther's 'Geistliches Liederbuch' (containing his "Ein' feste Burg") and 'Passional Christi und Antichristi'; 'Reinke de vos,' 1498; selections from Hans Sachs's 'Bildergedichte'; 'Ritter vom Turn,' 1493; 'Volksbüchlein vom Kaiser Friedrich Barbarossa,' 1519; Ulrich von Hutten's German writings, etc., etc., are a part of the long list. Only 300 copies will be printed of each work.

We learn from the *Athenæum* that Dr. Alexander Schmidt is preparing a new edition of his incomparable 'Shakspere Lexicon,' which is out of print. It will be some years, however, before the work can be printed.

German scholars are diligently cultivating the domain of old British literature. Prof. J. Schipper, of Vienna, has lately placed himself in the front rank of workers in this field. In 1882 he began the publication of a work on 'English Prosody' (Bonn), the first volume of which is devoted to 'Altenglische Metrik.' Last year he followed it with an extensive monograph on William Dunbar, "the darling of the Scottish muse," the most considerable British poet between Chaucer and Spenser. Of this work we shall shortly speak somewhat at length. Its critical analyses have been received with marked applause in Edinburgh, and its translations by competent criticism in Germany. It may be remarked that the diction of the same Scottish poet is the theme of another critical monograph by a German writer, Dr. Johannes Kaufmann, but composed in French: 'Traité de la langue du poète écossais William Dunbar, precédé d'une esquisse de sa vie,' etc. (Bonn, 1873).

The historical treasures of the Vatican archives were never as freely accessible to scholars of all nations as they have been during the Pontificate of Leo XIII. Shortly after his accession German, French, Spanish, and other investigators of the past flocked to Rome to enlarge the histories of their respective countries from the new sources. In Hungary, the highest Roman Catholic clergy, under the lead of Cardinal Haynald, Archbishop of Kalocsa, instituted a systematic course of research in the light of Pontifical reports, which promises most ample historical results. Bishop Ipolyi and six learned canons formed a committee for the elaboration of the plan, and Canon Fraknói, Secretary of the Hungarian Academy, was sent to Rome as a critical compiler. The first fruit of these labors is two quarto volumes of 'Monumenta Vaticana Hungariæ,' published in Buda-Pesth at the close of last year. The theme of the first is the elevation of the House of Anjou to the Hungarian throne early in the fourteenth century, and of the second, which bears the sub-title 'Relationes Oratorum Pontificiorum 1524-1526,' the political decay and anarchy which prevailed in the last years of the Jagellonian dynasty down to the fatal battle of Mohács, which subjected Hungary to the sway of the Sultans for 160 years. The reports of the Papal nuncios throw a great deal of fresh light upon the period preceding the catastrophe.

—We appreciate the flattery implied in the bodily transfer, without credit, to the literary columns of the Philadelphia *Evening Item* of our recent review of Johnson's 'Oriental Religions.' Persistence in such practices, however, will, we warn the editor, be highly injurious to his moral sense, however much his readers may profit by his obliquity.

—We have received from Mr. Thomas H. Dudley a copy of his speech on the operations of the Cobden Club and kindred subjects, delivered at Astoria, L. I., during the recent campaign, together with a letter explaining what he meant by saying that the Club had issued a pamphlet "for members of the Club alone." Mr. Dudley insists that such a pamphlet was issued, and that he has a copy of it. We inferred from Mr. Dudley's speech, as reported, that he intended to convey the impression that the Club had issued a secret pamphlet giving a statement of large expenditures in the United States for the promotion of free trade; and such, we think, would be the inference which most persons would draw from the speech which he sends us. Still, it is fair to say that Mr. Dudley did not make that statement directly. The truth is, that the Club makes an annual business statement "for members of the Club," but it is in no sense a secret or confidential statement. It is merely such a business statement as all clubs make to their members annually.

— A note from the conductors of the *Magazin für die Litteratur des In- und Auslandes* assures us that in following the *Academy* in our issue of January 1, we did injustice to the *Magazin*. A writer in the English journal pointed out what seemed to be a piece of gross ignorance, on the part of a reviewer in the *Magazin*, in regard to Laurence Oliphant. This, we are t ld, was a typographical error (*einen Druckfehler*), and further, that the writer in question, who is described in no flattering terms, is ever on the lookout to discover flaws in a journal to which he formerly contributed till cut off for incompetence by the present editor, Mr. Eduard Engel. Dr. Fr. Hirsch, who on April 1 will resume editorial charge of the *Magazin*, has meantime replied to this critic in its columns. The shocking misprinting of English verses in the number for January 10 cannot, we fear, be explained away.

—A pamphlet entitled "A Sketch of the University of Virginia" has recently appeared, from which we learn, with some astonishment, that of the gifts it has received since its establishment in 1819, amounting to $719,700, $653,600 have been contributed since the war—a fact of which the moral does not need to be pointed out. This total of $719,700 is exclusive of the gifts constituting part of the fixed endowment of the University, yielding revenue which amounts to $282,600, all of which, except $2,600, have been also given since the war. Virginia has always been liberal to its University—"the glory of the Commonwealth"—allowing it at first $15,000 a year, and latterly $40,000. Probably nothing could better illustrate the reverence felt for it by the people of the State than the fact that when the Readjusters came into control and secured a majority on the Board of Visitors, not only was no change made by them, though political passion urged it, in the faculty corps, but they filled vacancies occurring therein entirely regardless of political bias. That the University deserves this consideration is made clear by the pamphlet before us. In Mr. Jefferson's day the schools of Virginia were, to use his own words, "paltry academies." He is said to have spoken mournfully on one occasion of the fact that of the students at Princeton one-half were Virginians, obliged to obtain outside of the State even a moderate education. Since the organization of the University, Virginia has become the dispenser of liberal education to the South and West. It has to-day more of its alumni in the Senate of the United States than has any other college in the Union. About 200 of its alumni occupy professorial chairs, while many others are conducting first-class academies.

—Those who are especially interested in the question raised by Mr. Bright as to the condition of the rural population of England under the system of free trade, are likely to find much that is of interest and value in the elaborate articles of Henri Baudrillart, which have been published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, on the "Rural Population of France." The number for November 15 was devoted to Brittany, that portion of the country which in point of soil and climate is most like England. The object of Baudrillart is to measure the general progress of the region during the last century, and to point out the

condition of the agricultural holders and laborers at the present time. Perhaps no part of France has resisted with more energy the introduction of labor-saving machinery. The first ploughs of a modern pattern introduced into the region were broken by the peasantry, as were also the first threshing machines, and it is only recently that the peasants have denied themselves the luxury of carrying the products once a year to Paris in their own wagons. So we find the laboring classes here less affected by civilization than almost anywhere else. The allotments of land are very small, the farms ordinarily containing only about twenty acres. The largest farm in one of the departments has only thirty hectares, or seventy-five acres, while there are hundreds of not more than a tenth of that area. The region in the time of Arthur Young was the poorest in France; but under the tillage of this century it has become so productive that the arable lands are worth in the market from $100 to $300 per acre. Such as are tilled by leaseholders bring to the owners a rent of about four per cent. of their estimated value. The writer enters into a careful comparison and analysis for the purpose of showing how far the condition of the peasant has improved during the past hundred years. The improvement, he thinks, has been considerable, but the present condition of the peasants is not far from wretched. The food of farm laborers, he says, may be correctly described as about the following: Soup two or three times a day, a little bacon, black bread (of wheat, rye, or barley), with a little butter, oatmeal porridge, and potatoes. His drink is cider, which he takes to excess, with a little distilled liquor on Sunday. The board of a male farm hand is with some uniformity reckoned at 200 francs a year, that of a woman at 150 francs. The wage of a farm hand is about $40 a year, besides board. Day laborers on the farm command from 75 centimes to 1 franc 50 centimes, without board. Laborers almost invariably sleep in bunks ranged one above another, in a small room in which there is often neither window nor port. Though the population is already very dense, it is increasing with considerable rapidity, every man considering it his first duty to leave children behind him. We have no space to analyze the interesting details given, but economists will find ample opportunity for instructive comparisons between the methods of France here presented and those of England.

—The February number of the *Magazine of Art* is an unusually interesting number, and the illustrations are a considerable advance on anything it has hitherto produced. The frontispiece is a curiously faithful reproduction of a black chalk drawing with a tint of red in the cheeks, a profile of Lady Maria Waldegrave, after John Downman, R. A. The "In School," from a German picture, is, with some slips, an excellent example of good, honest line wood-cutting, a style which Mr. Barnett energetically (and we think one-sidedly, if not unfairly) advocates in a review of Linton's work on wood engraving. The notice of Vedder by A. Mary F. Robinson is an interesting example of the feminine gush which seems to pass for criticism in ill-edited art journals; but Miss Robinson hardly shows enough knowledge of art to have been able to perceive that Vedder is not matter for her capacities. But empty as is her screed, there is nothing worse to be said against it. Jane G. Harrison, on the contrary, in "Pompeii in Black and White," shows what it may be permitted to call relatively a positive ignorance of art—especially in the dogmatic and absurd statements that,

"Illustrations are a modern monstrosity, unknown to Greek art, nay, more, unknown to all good art at all [*sic*]. I would not be misunderstood. For scientific purposes illustrations are necessary. . . . I do not say that a poet and a painter cannot both be inspired by the same thought, the same situation, the same story; but I do say advisedly that they cannot illustrate each other. . . . I have said elsewhere, and need not repeat at length here, that the ancient vase-painters never *illustrated* the poem of Homer. They conceived of and embodied myths they had in common with him, but by separate, independent inspiration. Here, as elsewhere, they felt by instinct the truth we ascertain by analysis."

What the writer of this superlative rubbish knows by analysis is hardly worth cumbering magazines of art with, if this article is an example. The curious statement we quote not only is untrue in its assertions and singularly misrepresents the general ethics of art, but is diametrically opposed to the opinions and practice of the best artists who have ever lived. Michael Angelo, Botticelli—in truth, the whole of the Italian, German, and Dutch religious art, is simply a course of illustrations of the Bible. Miss Harrison must permit the entire body of artists (including the Greek) to judge what they can do lawfully.

—Americans have been thought to be sufficiently forgiving and tender-hearted toward those persons who have been so unfortunate as to be guilty of little peccadilloes that brought them within the reach of the law; but no American city has been quite so considerate as Paris. Nor was it to be expected; for Paris is the centre of civilization, and of course the gradual softening of manners that is characteristic of modern life would have its highest expression there. No languishing in deep, damp dungeons, lighted only by a faint ray from the top, where straw is the only bed and rats the only visitors—in fact, no stone walls, no bars, no locks even. The prisoner chooses his own prison—a sanitarium at Passy, for instance, or Dr. Beni-Barde's hydrotherapeutic establishment at Auteuil. Prince Napoleon chose the latter; so did Mlle. Marie Colombier, when the correctional police found fault with her stupid 'Mémoires de Sarah Barnum.' Certain prison reformers of the last century advocated solitary confinement as the sovereign remedy for crime, and sure to cure the most hardened patients. Perhaps Mlle. Colombier did not want to be reformed; certainly she did not choose to be solitary. She sent word to all her friends where she was to be, and invited them to come and see her. They came in flocks, to the disgust of the concierge. They were admitted to see the "prisoner," as a matter of course, till at last the other patients, provoked at this invasion of their quiet, protested, and compelled the doctor to send away Mlle. Colombier as soon as her term of detention was over, though she would gladly have stayed. If we should introduce some such system of imprisonment as this, it might save many of our bank cashiers the trouble of a journey to Canada at inclement seasons of the year.

—M. Salomon Reinach pays a tribute in the *Revue Critique* to his friend Charles Tissot, of whose 'Géographie comparée de la province romaine d'Afrique' he has just published the first volume and is carrying the second through the press. Tissot was an enthusiast. In the eyes of the world, his work was as Consul at Corunna, at Salonica, at Adrianople, as Secretary of the Embassy at London, and then as Chargé d'Affaires there during the Franco-Prussian war, as Ambassador at Morocco, at Athens, and at London; and all this work he did well, as his constant advancement shows. But in his own eyes, setting aside his duty to his country, this was merely his pot-boiler; his real interest was in his discoveries in the north of Africa. He was an Africo-maniac. From 1853, when he made his first excursion in the Regency of Tunis, till his death, July 2, 1884, fresh from correcting proofs of his first volume, all his spare time was given to explorations in that neighborhood or to study of the ancient authors who have treated of it, and the modern authors who have misunderstood these predecessors. According to M. Reinach, his zeal has been rewarded with success. Without pretending that everything is settled, or that what Tissot has affirmed can always be maintained, he declares that a very great advance has been made in the identification of ancient sites, and many long-established errors uprooted. Unfortunately, not the least interesting part of the projected work—a complete account of the Roman administration of the Proconsulate—remains in the state of detached notes utterly unfit for publication. M. Tissot had given special attention to the ruins of Carthage; M. Reinach has also made excavations there; and "it is pretty to see," as Pepys used to say, how the former despises the work of Dureau de la Malle, of Beulé, and of Nathan Davis, and how the latter tries not to speak disrespectfully of the theories of his friend. The disagreement of doctors is nothing to the divergencies of antiquarians. In the present case M. Reinach has already shown our readers on what secure basis his own identifications rest.

—It would be a work of supererogation to discuss at this late date the significance of Eckermann's 'Conversations with Goethe.' Yet it will not be amiss to call the attention of our readers to the latest edition, edited by Heinrich Düntzer (3 vols., Brockhaus, 1885). Although the sixth, the present edition is probably the first to be put into practical shape. The text, it is true, has been left as Eckermann wrote it. For this we have the guarantee of his son and literary executor, Karl Eckermann (see p. 5 of vol. i). Would that James Boswell's heirs had had like foresight! We should then have escaped Croker's dismal vagaries, bought too dearly even with Carlyle's analysis of Hawkins's entire and Piozzi's ginger-beer, and the other pennyswipes and alegar. But Eckermann, like every other biographer, needs elucidation, and this has been supplied by the veteran Goethe-scholar whose name alone is an assurance of accuracy. Düntzer's introduction, twenty-six pages, treats at length the peculiar relations between Goethe and Eckermann, clearing up many current misconceptions, and placing the biographer in a somewhat novel and more favorable light. The notes (at the end of each volume) explain personal and literary allusions very satisfactorily, so far as we have had occasion to test them. The index to all three volumes has been revised, and is complete with respect to names of persons, but its topic-references are scarcely full enough to justify the subtitle of *Sachregister*. We congratulate ourselves and all other lovers of Goethe upon this re-acquisition of Eckermann.

—Professor Bartoli, the literary historian, while examining in the Laurentian Library at Florence the Ashburnham MSS. lately restored to Italy through the efforts of Senator Villari, came upon a paper codex of the early part of the fifteenth century, containing the Canzoniere of Petrarch, together with various Rime by Dante, Fazio degli Uberti, and others. Turning over its leaves, he was suddenly struck by the canzone, *Spirto gentil*, having these words, written in red, above it: *Mandata a messer Busone da Gubbio essendo senatore di Roma.* The question of the person to whom this famous canzone was addressed has long been a burning one among the historians of Italian letters. The earliest commentators of the poet stated that it was written to a Senator of Rome, giving him no name, but from Vellutello (1525) down to De Sade (1764) writers on Petrarch generally agreed that the person was Cola di Ri-

enzo. De Sade was the first to assign this honor to Stephen Colonna. His theory was warmly supported, in several essays, by Salvatore Betti, and espoused by both Ginguené and Cantù; but the majority of critics—Voltaire, Zefirino Re, Papencordt in his life of Rienzo, Bulwer Lytton in his romance, Reumont, Gregorovius, Fracassetti, and lastly D'Ancona—have adhered to the old hypothesis. The poet Carducci, however, who is the foremost of modern Petrarch commentators, in an argument marked by great erudition and subtlety, opposed the pretensions of both Rienzo and Colonna, and endeavored to prove that the poet had in his mind Stephen Colonna the younger, who, like his father, was Senator of Rome.

—The discovery made by Professor Bartoli makes it not improbable that the canzone was inspired by a man whom no one has hitherto indicated—namely, Busone of Gubbio—of an old Italian family, and, like Petrarch, a poet, a scholar, and an adherent of the Empire. He had been podestà of Arezzo, Petrarch's native town; was subsequently appointed by the Emperor, Lewis the Bavarian, to be his vicar or governor in Pisa, and in October, 1337, was elected Senator of Rome. It was in January of that year that Petrarch paid his first visit to Rome, and witnessed the condition of misery to which the city and the adjacent districts had been reduced by wars and misgovernment. After his departure Busone entered upon his office, and, if the new supposition be correct, his accession gave Petrarch the hope that a better era might now open for the city of his affection. In some respects, this latest candidate for the honor of Petrarch's praise and prayers answers, better than his predecessors, to the slight hints given in the canzone. He was *un cavalier*—which Rienzo was not—and is so styled in the dedication to him of Armannino's "Fiorita"; he was Senator of Rome at the time when the poet, fresh from a sight of Roman woes, was most likely to portray them vividly—which neither of the Colonnas then was. Petrarch, moreover, states that he never saw the person he addresses, which certainly is not true of the Tribune or the Colonnas, while there is not the slightest evidence that he ever met Busone. Professor Bartoli declares that he does not wish to be considered the special champion of the new claimant, but he calls attention to the fact that the testimony of a manuscript of so early a date is not to be hastily set aside, and that Busone—whose name was not so famous as to be still fresh in the minds of men after the lapse of two or three generations—answers perfectly, in his quality of Senator of Rome, to the simple indication given by Antonio da Tempo and Filelfo, the two oldest of Petrarch's commentators.

—Bismarck's seventieth birthday, on April 1st, will no doubt be celebrated with great enthusiasm, and cannot fail to occasion many additions to the already abundant Bismarck literature. Undismayed by the difficulty of saying anything new on a subject that has been so thoroughly exploited, Dr. H. Wiermann publishes a small volume, 'Prince Bismarck, Seventy Years, 1815-1885' (Westermann). It is nothing more than a summary of the great events in which the German Chancellor has acted so conspicuous a part, and rehearses once more the most familiar anecdotes, from the smoking scene in the Federal Council at Frankfort to the interviews with Favre and Thiers. The only new story is, that at a reception in February, 1881, in speaking of a letter of his which had been unjustifiably published, Bismarck said it reminded him of a statesman who, on being informed that one of his letters had been sold for thirty thalers, said that for one thaler he would gladly write thirty such letters. The political vagaries of the most recent years not having been so exhaustively discussed as the other notable episodes of the Prince's career, afford more opportunity for saying something new; but on this subject the author is discreetly reticent. Perhaps he recognizes the great contrast between the brilliant achievements of Bismarck as a diplomatist and the failure of his domestic policy; a contrast which pointedly illustrates Matthew Arnold's remark that the talents of aristocracies are for wielding the force of their country against foreign Powers with energy, firmness, and dignity, but not for the work of making human life natural and rational. If we subscribe to this theory, and remember that by inheritance, training, and innate bent Bismarck is the typical aristocrat, his career ceases to be a puzzle and is seen to be a symmetrical, logical whole. The good he has done will live after him, and the evil will be interred with his bones. An almost comical feature of Dr. Wiermann's book is its rudimentary index, which kindly translates for us such phrases as "advocatus diaboli," "vogue la galère," "rocher de bronze," etc., and gives condensed biographical information concerning Coriolanus, Cromwell, and other distinguished persons.

—Some months ago, in the Berlin *Gegenwart*, the well-known philosopher Eduard von Hartmann called the attention of his countrymen to the alarming diminution of German interest in good books. He thinks that Germany's scientific preëminence is in danger; for although the Empire still produces more books than France and England together, yet there is a steady decline in the demand for solid works, whether in science or belles-lettres. Several causes are assigned for the growing evil: the diminished leisure of the educated class, causing distaste for any reading that requires concentration; increasing absorption in politics, which drives out of mind all other intellectual interests; increasingly frequent changes of residence in the cities, making the possession of a library burdensome; the increased wages of book compositors, with consequent rise in the price of books; the multiplication of cyclopædias and other books of reference, cheap editions of the classics, gift-books, novels of the season, etc., rendering it possible to make a show of being a lover of books and the owner of a library without really doing any reading. The final count in Hartmann's indictment, and the one to which he himself evidently attaches most importance, deserves to be given in his own words:

"The habit of reading journals and newspapers destroys the taste and the capacity for reading connected works, and already the time is drawing near for us Germans when the 'leading article' will be thought too heavy a tax upon the power of concentration, and will be hashed up into a mosaic of *entre-filets*."

—The evils to which Hartmann calls attention are not a new discovery, nor are they confined to Germany. His description applies with depressing precision to this country, and doubtless explains some of the humiliating differences between the German, French or English, and the American book-markets. Every person who has need of the best scholarly literature on any subject will understand at once what we mean. In scientific publishing (using the word "scientific" in the broad sense of the German *wissenschaftlich*) we are simply not "in the race." Our publishers say they cannot afford to handle such books as are printed yearly in large numbers on the other side of the ocean. We have been disposed to believe, and there are certainly indications, that a better day has already dawned upon this country, and that we shall henceforward move, slowly perhaps, but unfalteringly, toward the position occupied by Germany. And now comes Hartmann saying that Germany is moving rapidly toward the position occupied by us. Everything in his article, and not least of all his prophecy of coming catastrophe to the German editorial, points to that conclusion. America rather than France is the true land of the *entre-filet*. One might think that this dark outlook is only a part of the general badness which a pessimist is professionally bound to see everywhere. But the true pessimist has no answer to the question: What are you going to do about it? Hartmann, however, has a remedy, or rather a number of them. He proposes heavy subsidies to city and State libraries, and a law compelling publishers to deliver books to these at bottom trade prices. As a means of dodging the middlemen he suggests a Book-buyers' Association (*Literaturbezugsverein*), or better a Book-distributing Bureau, to be managed as part of the postal service. His chief hope lies, however, in fighting the newspapers. The young must be taught that to read the journals of the day is to "sell their souls." Adults must learn to despise the newspapers, and speak contemptuously of them, or, looking upon the press as a necessary evil, they must favor the little papers and frown on the great ones. Finally, young men must have nothing to do with politics until they are over thirty years old.

JOHN WILSON CROKER.

The Correspondence and Diaries of the Late Right Honorable John Wilson Croker, LL.D., F.R.S., Secretary to the Admiralty from 1809 to 1830. Edited by Louis J. Jennings, author of 'Republican Government in the United States.' Three vols. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

People have long looked forward with considerable expectations to the publication of the Croker Papers, and now that Croker's 'Correspondence and Diaries' are before the world, readers who have anticipated either historical revelations or interesting anecdotes will find themselves bitterly disappointed. Mr. Jennings's book contains no information which may not be obtained from sources which have long been open to every student. His hero, it is true, was the acquaintance or friend of many eminent persons; but Croker had none of the Boswellian faculty for portraying the character and conversation of his associates, and it is also probable that Croker, who was constantly lecturing every one, great or small, with whom he came in contact, and whose own conversation became at last, to judge from his letters, no better than monotonous variations on the well-worn theme of "I told you so," did not contrive to elicit much either of brilliancy or of confidence from the companions who had the misfortune or the advantage of his acquaintance. To "the Duke," indeed, Mr. Croker was compelled to listen, and the few anecdotes of interest to be found throughout Mr. Jennings's three volumes consist of stories about Wellington's career told by Wellington himself. The best remark of the Duke is one of which Croker does not appear to have appreciated the full bearing or humor. The vehement opponent of the Reform Bill wrote to Wellington explaining at length the grounds which made his seeking a seat in the reformed Parliament an impossibility. The reply ran thus: "I have received your letter. I am very sorry that you do not intend to be again elected to serve in Parliament. *I cannot conceive for what reason.*" The words underlined are an inimitable example of the terseness with which the Duke exposed the follies of a friend and admirer. Croker treasured up the letter; he liked to be snubbed by the Duke.

The letter, and the way in which Croker took it, curiously illustrate a side of Croker's character which must be appreciated if we are to do

justice either to Croker himself or to Croker's enemies. Never was a man better hated, and one cause, at least, for the abhorrence which Croker excited in men of genius such as Macaulay, Thackeray, or Disraeli, was his brutal toughness and obtuseness. He was cursed or blessed with the hardest and coarsest nature which ever fell to a man who obtained any eminence in literature. We do not wish to dwell on what Mr. Trevelyan well describes as the "unsavory portions of that gentleman's private life." One would fain believe that the correspondent of Scott, the adviser of Peel, and the friend of Wellington was not the base and unscrupulous sycophant whom Mr. Disraeli has painted under the name of Rigby. But to any one who carefully studies Mr. Jennings's own account of the relations between his hero and Lord Hertford, one thing is clear—no impartial critic can ever, as regards the gravest charge against Croker, give a more favorable verdict than "not proven"; and even this modified form of acquittal can be gained only by an apologist who frankly admits the moral coarseness or want of delicacy which, perhaps, explains conduct that, in any person endowed with the ordinary sense of what is becoming and of good report, would argue the most disgraceful turpitude. We can just believe that Mr. Croker's relation to Lord Hertford was not disgraceful, because we are fully convinced that he had not the capacity to perceive all the discredit which must rest on any man of average respectability who thrust himself into Lord Hertford's service, and took thousands of pounds as a legatee under Lord Hertford's will. There is no one among Croker's assailants who could, without a blush, have appeared, as did Croker, in the witness-box to prosecute Lord Hertford's courier. And it is, we think, more than possible that Disraeli and Macaulay mistook abnormal coarseness of feeling for disgusting baseness of conduct.

The permanent interest of Croker's letters and diaries lies in circumstances independent of the rumors or slanders which still cast a dubious hue over his private character. Croker was a moral and political survival. He died in 1857; he was intimately known to many men still living, and was seen and spoken to by persons who are now not far past middle age, but he remained essentially the man of 1800. Amid a changing world, in the age of Cobden, of Bright, and of Louis Napoleon, he retained unaltered the sentiments natural to a stanch Tory official who remembered Pitt, and who had served under Perceval and Liverpool. He was the incarnation of official Toryism as it flourished during the Great War and the Regency. Some gift or defect of nature made his mind armor-proof against influences which moulded and transformed the policy, if not the character, of Peel, and which told upon the conduct of the Iron Duke himself. In Croker one can see, not indeed the heroism—for of everything heroic he was absolutely devoid—but the strength and the virtues, no less than the weaknesses and the faults, of the Tories who resisted with unequal success the attacks of Napoleonic France and the advance of social and political reform. It is well worth while to take Croker as the representative of a class, and to note his typical excellences and his typical faults, as far as may be, with equal impartiality.

The Toryism of Croker was something much more than a political doctrine. It may almost be described as a political, a social, and a religious faith. To men who remembered the Reign of Terror, and who saw it much in the light in which it is again revealed for the present age by Taine, the Revolution was little else than the outburst of the powers of hell, and Napoleon was the devil who ruled the new pandemonium. Grant, as every rational person now must, that this view of a world-wide movement was partial and distorted; grant, as, even with the pages of Lanfrey before them, most calm judges will concede, that Napoleon, and still more the work of Napoleon, presented a good as well as a bad side, yet the fact remains that the Tories of the Revolutionary and the Napoleonic era did in very truth regard the Revolution as the work of the devil, and had far more cause for so regarding it than a generation who know the "Terror" only as a matter of history are apt to think. The conviction, further—which was ultimately held by Whigs like Lord John Russell and Sydney Smith as firmly as by Tories like Perceval or Liverpool—that French aggression would, unless resisted, be fatal to the national independence of England, and in fact menaced the independence of every state throughout Europe, gave to the Toryism which flourished during the Great War, not only an impress of patriotism, but a good deal of sympathy (in the case, at any rate, of Spain and Germany) with what a later generation called "the cause of nationalities." Under the inspiration of political zeal and patriotic fervor, Croker, and hundreds better or worse than he, did a great work. They manned the ship of state, and carried it through a storm which wrecked vessels as noble and apparently as strong as that which carried the fortunes of England.

The best trait about Croker was his strenuous work at the Admiralty. That he got fair day's wages for the day's labors may well be admitted; but it must also be borne in mind that he threw his whole heart into the task before him, and gave to the country a kind of unremitting toil which cannot be bought for mere money. What is true of Croker was, we may be sure, equally true of hundreds whose names are now forgotten. A party which holds power for nearly half a century is certain, in Anglo-Saxon countries at least, to become corrupted by its own success. But it is not in virtue, but in spite, of vileness and corruption that a great party controls for more than a generation the destinies of a great state. It were curious to trace the mode in which "character," which has always told for more in England than talent, has passed at different times from one party to another. For our present purpose it is enough to note that between 1784 and 1820 the Tories possessed a repute for moral worth which did not belong to their opponents. There were hundreds of Tories whose public and private character did not deserve any special respect; there were scores of men among the Whigs who represented the highest moral feeling of their age. But no candid reader of history can deny that during the earlier part of the century the Tories were, on the whole, the moral and religious party. Most good men were Tories, and this fact gave currency to the utterly erroneous notion that all Tories were good men, and that persons who were not Tories were bad men. This was the undoubted creed of Croker and of far better men than Croker, such as Walter Scott. And one cannot doubt that the identification of political prejudices or principles with the cause of morality did lend to the Tory party an amount of force and of earnestness which both caused, and, within certain limits, justified, the success and triumph of Toryism.

With parties, however, as with men, their strength is also their weakness. Toryism displayed the bigotry, narrowness, and blindness no less than the fervor of a religious creed. The tacit assumption that a Tory was a good man, accounts for the tolerance or favor with which Scott and Peel regarded Croker. That any one endowed with Scott's nobility of nature could have failed to be shocked by the mean side of Croker's character, and the odiousness of what one may call Crokerism, is inexplicable, unless one allows for the fact that Croker was, in Scott's eyes, a soldier fighting manfully for the cause of virtue; and according to a Tory standard, Croker was, it must be admitted, the stanchest of fighters. He never missed giving a blow, fair or unfair, at a Whig; he never, like Lyndhurst, dallied, to say the least, with Liberalism; he never, like Canning, was carried away from his Tory standing-point by rhetorical enthusiasm for freedom; he never, like Peel, was shaken by the force of argument; he never, like Wellington, acknowledged the necessity of yielding to the logic of facts. He was one of those blind leaders of the blind who step out with all the boldness of a guide gifted with the clearest foresight, who, when kept by wiser heads from irreparable disaster, turn round and swear at the friends by whom they are saved, and who, when they and their followers fall into a ditch, lay the blame of their mishap on everything except their own blindness. Croker, who never failed to mistake the patent signs of the time, asseverated with such good faith the dogma of his own infallibility that he persuaded a generation of Tories to believe that he never was wrong. Yet every fact showed him to be gifted with neither insight nor foresight. He knew Peel with intimacy for years; he had watched him closely and had studied every turn of Sir Robert's sinuous, not to say tortuous career. He would, one would have thought, have soon perceived that the essential difference between his own and Peel's views of statesmanship must at last lead Peel away from the path of rigid Toryism. Yet Croker, at a time when every Liberal perceived that Peel was tending, and rapidly tending, toward free trade, made himself the political surety for the Prime Minister's steadfast adherence to protection. Let us grant, as we are afraid must be granted, that Croker was the dupe of his hero, and concede that Sir Robert set an example of political casuistry which has done so much harm to the public life of England as to constitute an immense set-off to the services which he rendered to the country. But when every concession is made, Croker's tremendous blunder can be explained only by the fact that Croker was, as a judge of character, the dullest of men.

But persons who cannot discern traits of individual genius, may occasionally be good judges as to the general course of politics. Such, to take a notorious instance, was Burke. We doubt whether he ever estimated a friend or a foe with fairness; but as regards events, he was endowed with a gift which amounted to prophetic foresight. Not so Croker. His reputation for statesmanship was staked on his judgment of the Reform Bill. By that test his credit must stand or fall. Now, it is a simple matter of history that at every stage of the reform movement Croker's judgment was at fault. He maintained in 1831 that there was no genuine demand for reform, and that the cry was created by the intrigues of the Whigs. We now know, by every kind of evidence by which an historical fact can be proved, that the popular feeling in favor of reform was so strong that lengthened resistance would have produced revolution. Reform would, he was convinced, be itself the immediate precursor of revolutionary change.

"If it be carried," he writes (5th April, 1831), "England no doubt may be still great and happy, but it would be under a *different* form of constitution and administration from that which has raised her to her present greatness and happiness: no king, no lords, no inequalities in the social system: all will be levelled to the plane of the petty shopkeepers and small farmers; this perhaps not without bloodshed, but certainly by confiscations and persecutions. 'Tis inevitable, and this is to be perpetrated by a set of men, like Lambton and Johnny Russell, whom a club in Regent Street would not trust with the management of their concerns."

More than half a century has given the lie to

Mr. Croker's predictions. To conceal this fact by saying, with Mr. Jennings, that Croker "exaggerated the immediate effect which the bill would produce," is simply to mislead students. Croker and Croker's friends did not assert that there was a gradual tendency in the course of events to produce democratic institutions, but confidently asserted a totally different thing—namely, that reform was the harbinger of immediate revolution. On the truth of this prediction the wisdom of the Tory guide and his followers depends. The prediction has been absolutely falsified by events. The only honest course to pursue is to grant that Croker and those who believed in Croker totally mistook the signs of the time. Croker himself avoided all necessity for admitting that he was in the wrong, by a very singular course of action. The reformed Parliament was, according to his predictions, to turn out an assembly of Jacobins and levellers, in which a good man like Croker could find no room. Events did not verify his prophecies, but Croker acted as if his forebodings had turned out true. He withdrew from the House, which, if good enough for Peel and Wellington, was no fit place for the prophet of Toryism. The reign of revolutionists was to commence, and since the era of lawless violence in fact never dawned, Croker consoled his self-love by detecting Jacobinism at least as late as 1852 in some proposal made by that most respectable of country squires, the late Mr. Henley. His political career ended, in truth, with the passing of the Reform Bill, and from that time he employed his critical energy in spheres for which it was far less well suited than for the rough-and-ready, not to say brutal, party contests which marked the reign of George IV. and his successor.

Mr. Croker as a literary critic is only less out of place than Mr. Croker as a writer on matters which concern the Church and, to a certain extent, religion itself. One can in a measure pardon the political pugilist for taking a part in ecclesiastical controversy when one finds that Samuel Wilberforce (who, by the way, found old Lord Lyndhurst an agreeable and impressive supporter of orthodoxy) used to correspond with Croker on Tractarianism, on Newman's sermons, on the Hampden controversy. No doubt the Bishop addressed himself rather to the editor or guide of the *Quarterly Review* than to the hardened political controversialist. Still, the friendly communication between the two men on matters of religion is not a very pleasant trait in the character either of Wilberforce or of his correspondent. Here, however, we touch upon one of the points on which Croker was, as on so many others, the representative of his party. The Tories to whom he belonged were, as part of their political creed, guardians and protectors of the Church. They stood toward the Church of England much as French Conservatives now stand toward Roman Catholicism; they looked upon religion (when it assumed a respectable form) as an ally of the State, and treated the cause of the Church as part of the general cause of social order. To suppose that men like Croker professed to be religious men in the sense in which the term might be applied to Newman, or Maurice, or Arnold, or Zachary Macaulay, would be to impute to Croker and his associates a kind of hypocrisy of which he was entirely guiltless. But unfortunately Croker, who admired George the Fourth, and who served Lord Hertford, was, like other men of his type, the official defender, so to speak, of religion and of the Establishment. This was, take it all in all, the worst side of the Toryism which flourished during the Regency. It was this official connection with religion which roused the moral indignation of men who themselves made no pretension to fervent religious convictions, but who hated cant. "I might add," says Macaulay with reference to Croker, "a hundred other charges. These are things done by a Privy Councillor, by a man who has a pension from the country of £2,000 a year, by a man who affects to be a champion of order and religion." When we weigh the full meaning of this language we can well understand why, in 1830, all that was youthful and generous in the spirit of England condemned ruthlessly the whole régime of which Croker was the representative.

AN ARCHÆOLOGIST IN MEXICO.

Report of an Archæological Tour in Mexico in 1881. [No. II. of the American Series of the Papers of the Archæological Institute of America.] By A. F. Bandelier. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1884. 8vo, pp. 326, with maps and illustrations.

In the present volume Mr. Bandelier has given us the results of a trip which he made to Mexico in 1881, under the auspices of the Archæological Institute of America. His stay was but short, lasting only a few months, and was chiefly passed at Cholula, where he devoted himself to a study of its antiquities and of the manners and customs of the Indians who still live in that neighborhood. He seems, also, to have found time for a brief visit to Mitla and the other ruined pueblos in that vicinity, which are described at some length; and under the heading of "Notes about the City of Mexico," he gives an account of several of the idols and other carved stones which have been discovered in that city, and which have, we trust, found a permanent resting-place in the National Museum of the country.

Although his visit was made in the interests of archæology, Mr. Bandelier did not go, as do so many of our "practical" explorers, spade in hand on a wild hunt after curiosities, but rather as a trained and careful observer, whose object it was to see these remains precisely as they are, and to interpret, as far as may be, the story which they have to tell. Accordingly, he has produced a work which, while it does not startle us with accounts of the discoveries of artistic treasures, does contain a very satisfactory description of the present condition of these ruins, with pertinent suggestions as to their origin and use, based upon a thorough knowledge of the mode of life and of the artistic and industrial development of the tribes that dwelt in Mexico at the time of the Conquest. In adopting this method of investigation, Mr. Bandelier is but following the plan which he found so effective in other fields, and which, we are satisfied, is the only one that promises certain and durable results. Obviously we can never know whether a piece of work, be it a so-called palace, a statue, or a simple earthen pot, was executed by the ancient Mexicans, unless we first know whether they had arrived at that stage of progress in which it was possible for them to build houses, carve statues, or manufacture pottery; and this knowledge, we may observe, is only to be attained by a careful study of trustworthy records; or, possibly, in a few instances in which aboriginal customs and industries have survived the contact with a higher civilization, it may be gained by an investigation into the condition of the tribes themselves. Be this as it may, there can be no doubt that it is essential to the formation of a correct opinion, as it not only acts as a check upon wild theories and speculations, but furnishes us with a basis of known facts from which, by a safe logical process, we may hope to reach the unknown.

This is the method of the school of which Mr. Bandelier is an acknowledged leader, and, applying it to these remains, it has led him to the conclusion that they do not indicate a higher civilization than that which the natives of Mexico, at the time of the Conquest, are known to have reached. Thus, for instance, in regard to sculptures like the statue of Huitzilopochtli and the Stone of the Sun, formerly known as the Calendar Stone, which our author thinks may have been the one described by Duran as that on which prisoners were made to fight, we are told that while the art displayed was "considerably above that of the Northern Village-Indians, it is still not superior to the remarkable carvings on ivory and wood of the tribes of the Northwest Coast, and often bears a marked resemblance to them." So, too, in reference to the large buildings in the valley of Tlacolula. Instead of the ruined palaces of which we have heard so often, our author sees nothing but the remains of communal houses in which the sexes found shelter in different apartments; and he tells us that life in these communities "differed from the communal life of the Indians in other regions only by the exigencies of another climate and of varying natural resources." As to the pyramid, or, as he prefers to call it, the mound of Cholula, he thinks that it may have been the site of a fortified pueblo, its topmost point a centre of worship, and the "plateaux and aprons around it covered with houses, possibly of large size, like those of Uxmal and Palenqué, or on a scale intermediate between them and the communal dwellings of Pecos and many other places in New Mexico." This is certainly a pregnant suggestion, and in the picture which it presents of the pueblo as restored, we are forcibly reminded of the account given by La Vega of the origin and use of the truncated mounds of our own Gulf States. Exactly who were the builders of this immense work is unknown, and our author wisely declines to speculate on the subject. He is very positive, however, that it could not have been the Nahuatl tribes found here by Cortes, though there is no reason why they may not have destroyed it, for "destroyed" it seems to have been. At least this is the testimony of tradition, and it is borne out by the fact that, when the Spaniards first arrived, it was already deserted save and except the summit; and this was occupied not by the shrine of Quetzalcoatl, the tutelar god of Cholula, but by the "medicine lodge" of Nine Rains, an inferior deity, whose cult "was practised in sight of the volcanoes from which Quetzalcoatl," who presided over the winds, "was supposed to carry the beneficial moisture over the parched and arid plain."

Thus far we have confined ourselves to the archæological results of this tour, though it is not in this part of the work that our author is seen to the best advantage. His forte, if we may be allowed the suggestion, is in ethnology, and those of us who are familiar with his former publications will find much in the present volume to remind us of the method of critical research of which he has elsewhere made such effective use. Especially is this true of that part of the "Reconnoissance into Mexico" and of so much of the "Studies about Cholula" as refer to the present condition of the native tribes. Of them he has evidently made a very close study; and after eliminating, as far as practicable, everything that savors of European influence, he finds a phase of civilization that harmonizes well with the pictures which the early authors have left us of the ancient Mexicans. Nor does he stop here, for, though he does not expressly say so, yet, to any one who will read between the lines, it is very evident that he does not intend to limit the assertion as to this uniformity of development to the early Mexican tribes when compared one with another, but that he is quite ready to admit it as between them and the Indians east of the Mississippi, especially those belonging to the Iroquois confederacy. Differences may and must have existed between them in some of their cus-

toms, their industries, and perhaps in their mode of worship or their social organization; but these are not probably any greater than can be found to-day in different sections of our own country, and hence they are not believed to indicate the existence of different phases of civilization. This is but one of the inferences that may be drawn from Mr. Bandelier's premises, and, however opposed it may be to the usually received opinion, it is believed to be as true in fact as it is simple and satisfactory in theory.

There are many other matters in these suggestive pages to which we would gladly call attention did time and space permit. As it is, we can only refer approvingly to the statement that "the aboriginal population of Mexico has increased within the past three hundred and sixty years," the Spanish Conquest having resulted in a displacement rather than in a diminution of their numbers. We may also add that there is abundant food for thought in the assertion that "as soon as the commotion of the Conquest was over, the men of the 'sword and gown' were gradually supplanted by tillers of the soil and by mechanics," who, we are told, "rapidly prospered." This will be news to many of our readers, though we do not see how it can be doubted in the face of facts and figures. The truth is, that we have never gone into this matter very critically, for the reason that, whenever it was necessary to approach the subject, we have been so busy covering up our own sins by abusing what a recent writer calls "the diabolical atrocities" of the Spaniards, as to leave but little time for anything else. Horrible enough these undoubtedly were, though it is probable that in many instances the accounts are too highly colored. But even if they are not, and the statements as to the destruction wrought by the Spaniards are literally true, it would ill become us to single them out for condemnation, since there is not an "atrocity" attributed to them, from the deliberate murder of prisoners down to the deportation and enslavement of captives, that does not find a parallel in the first hundred years of our own history. Human nature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was probably much the same everywhere just as it is to-day; and it would be as reasonable to expect to gather grapes of thorns and figs of thistles as it would to find that the Spanish conquerors, or the English colonists, had been actuated by a spirit of justice and humanity in their treatment of the Indians.

A Greek Grammar for Schools and Colleges. By James Hadley, late Professor in Yale College. Revised, and in part rewritten, by Frederic De Forest Allen, Professor in Harvard College. D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

A PROFESSOR of physiology, not long ago, seeking advice about the purchase of a Greek lexicon for his son, told his friend that he had always supposed the Greek language to be a thing as fixed and settled as anything could be in this world, but that it now appeared the changes and advances in Greek studies were almost as great and constant as in modern physiology. The comparison suggested is not without point. It may, we suppose, be assumed that the physical constitution of man has undergone no changes of moment since the scientific study of physiology began. But advances have been made in that study, and further advances are to be expected. Even so with Greek studies. Probably a good many classical teachers would wish to see truth in the saying of another professor—one of the shining lights of one of our great centres of enlightenment: "With Greek it is different; you either know it, or you don't know it; and if you know it, that is all there is to it." But, for the plaguing of their indolence, there are always some men who will study; and even the most modest schoolmaster is called upon from time to time to accept a revision of the familiar statements.

Hadley's 'Greek Grammar' has been well known and widely used for almost a quarter of a century; and, in spite of all that has come and gone, the appearance of such a book in a new edition better adapted to present needs is an event of some importance to a great many people. Scholars should be grateful to Professor Allen for the care and tact and wise moderation with which he has used the results of the eager and fruitful studies of the last decades. The traces of learned reconsideration appear throughout the book, and the changes are very numerous and important, but there is no sign of a hankering for mere novelty. In his preface Professor Allen says, with reference to the explanations of the origins of inflectional forms:

"I hope no one will suppose that this book professes to embody the latest results of comparative grammar. These results are at present partly in a very chaotic condition, partly very ill suited to be set before a learner. Much that in Professor Hadley's time was thought certain has been entirely upset or become very doubtful, and in many cases nothing positive has taken its place. All that can be demanded of a school-grammar in this respect is that its classifications and analyses shall not be at variance with *well-established* facts of genesis. I have occasionally gone a trifle further than Professor Hadley in these historical statements; but oftener, I think, have retrenched or modified explanations which he gave, and have been entirely content to leave much unexplained."

This might almost seem to an impatient critic to be the language of an extreme conservatism. But the true interpretation is, that the only purpose to which scientific grammar is to be applied in this book is the practical purpose of helping learners to a practical command of the language. This purpose G. Curtius, in his efforts for reform in the teaching of Greek grammar, kept steadily and chiefly in view. A schoolboy has a right to the simplest and most rational statements possible in the existing state of knowledge; he has also the right to be left undisturbed by discussions which, however important in themselves, can only burden and delay him while striving for his immediate goal. On this point the fair-minded critic must be disarmed when he examines such statements as those of pp. 8-9 upon "Strong and Weak Root-Vowels" (λείπω, λέλοιπα, ἔλιπον), a fine specimen of judicious innovation.

More important, and perhaps a trifle more venturesome, is the experiment of presenting to schoolboys the present-stems of verbs in such forms as λεγ°|ε. We are glad to see this experiment tried. It is tried here with skill, and we can think of no reason for doubting its entire success. In the classification of verbs the changes are considerable. Seven classes are given in place of the old nine. We should hesitate about adopting the sharp distinction made between the "variable-vowel" class and the "strong-vowel" class. Surely there is no fundamental difference of formation between λέγω and λείπω; both have the "variable vowel," and both have the "strong vowel." We should hesitate also to classify the reduplicated verbs, of which the "weak vowel" is characteristic, with λέγω and its kind. By the way, the note about the reduplicated verbs is rather misleading: "In γίγνομαι and ἵσχω the present has the reduplication." But this is made right in the catalogue of verbs (p. 157), so that the danger of mistake is perhaps slight. The doubts we express here, however, are intended rather to indicate the difficulty of the subject than by way of finding fault with Professor Allen's handling of it. In the paradigms a good example of regard for genuine Attic words and forms has been set. Here so much has been done that we almost fear some few teachers may lament the loss of old familiar errors. But it was high time they should be discarded, and it is hardly likely that any scholar competent to judge will think Professor Allen has gone too far. We could have wished to see the form βασιλῆς, which is shoved aside into a note, treated with more respect, but that is a trifle.

Touching the statements of syntax, it would, of course, be possible to make endless suggestions; but as no teacher can teach much syntax unless he knows some himself independently of his class-book, a reviewer can hardly do anything more profitable than to call attention to the general merit of the presentation as a whole. Still, at the risk of seeming to propose mere subjective views of a possible further perfection, we shall offer a few notes. In the treatment of case relations we could wish more distinct adherence to some probable theory of the origins of usage, even though the theory were still open to debate, as any theory of this most difficult subject must be. We are sure that a practical gain could be made in this way. We should like to see a sharper sundering of the instrumental and locative from the true dative constructions, and a clear recognition of the fact that the true dative is, in Greek, a *personal* case. And we should like to see a similar thing done for the genitive. Why should it not be a help to a boy who knows Latin to be taught to regard the genitive of comparison as an *ablative* genitive? By the way, it is at least a doubtful (and hardly helpful) theory which treats κάλλιστος τῶν ἄλλων as an inexact expression, or which recognizes a partitive genitive in μόνος τῶν ἄλλων. In the syntax of the verb, ample use has been made of Professor Goodwin's well-known statements, and this is a decided gain. It would have been well, we think, to give more heed to certain papers by Professor Gildersleeve published in the Transactions of the Philological Association and in the *American Journal of Philology*. For example, the treatment of conditions expressed by εἰ with the future indicative and the treatment of πρίν might, after a careful weighing of those papers, have been made less curt and perhaps somewhat more exact. Among the examples of usage quoted there are, of course, not many of a kind directly calculated to provoke dissent. Now and then it might be a good joke upon puzzled schoolmasters if the book could be sent out with this or that statement unaltered and a perfectly legitimate substitute for the example. Perhaps a few cases may occur where the weary teacher, pinning all his faith upon his book, might find it hard to escape from a quick-witted tormentor quoting the example given. Thus, in section 900, where "the supposition relates to the future, but no expectation of its being realized is implied," one of the examples (and a perfectly typical example of the construction under discussion) is this: εἴ τις κεκτημένος εἴη πλοῦτον, χρῷτο δὲ αὐτῷ μή, ἆρ' ἂν εὐδαιμονοῖ. Why should not a boy say that when anybody conceives a case of that kind he not only has an expectation, but an absolute certainty in his mind—that the conception has been realized in the past, and is realized in the present, and will be realized in the future? Shall the teacher take refuge in the saving words "is implied"? He may manage to do so if he knows how, but there is danger the boy may learn to think the whole business a little uncanny. In our judgment, the statement that "no expectation is implied" in sentences of this kind is at least no better warranted than it would be to say that no futurity is implied. It would be worth the while of some investigator of syntax to count the cases in which a simple present or past condition or a "general" condition could be substituted for the form under discussion without serious disturbance of sense. To complete his experiment, he should try to see how often he could make the same substitution,

with the same degree of harmlessness, in conditional sentences having the future indicative in apodosis. Possibly he might then reach the conclusion that the difference between the two forms in respect to futurity is even more decidedly characteristic than that in respect to "expectation." In the example quoted, the conception seems to us to have presented itself to the speaker's mind without definite reference to any one of the spheres of time. But, as we have already hinted, dissent in occasional details is not a damaging form of criticism upon such a performance. It would serve no purpose to enumerate felicities of the revision in this part of the work; a single specimen is the remark (sec. 683, b) that "the real office of the reflexives is to emphasize the *identity of the person* with some one named in the sentence."

The chapter upon versification has been both extended and simplified. In its present form it is all that so brief a treatment of so large a subject can be. Another gain is the doubling of the matter given in the chapter on word-formation. It is greatly to be wished that all teachers might be brought to see how much time may be saved by giving a good deal of time to this subject. We think the book as it has left Professor Allen's hands richly deserves to retain all its old friends and to win new ones.

On Tuscan Hills and Venetian Waters. By Linda Villari. Illustrated by Mrs. Arthur Lemon. London: T. Fisher Unwin.

THE charm of Italian life is as inexhaustible as inexplicable, and they who have enjoyed it for years are those who find its magic most irresistible and its ramifications most complex. Is it in the sun and the sky; the olive orchards and stone-pines, with their dreamy rest and their quaint majesty: the impress—the all-pervading impress—of human thought and sentiment on the hills and valleys; the serenity of a civilization which has no disquiet for further progress—or is it all these together and heightened by associations of a golden antiquity, that so enchant the foreigner who has once come under the charm? They who fly from Venice to Palermo, see all that Murray and Baedeker prescribe, and even as much more as ingenious and enterprising Yankeedom can discover with all its prying, still know little of Italy—less than one who will become domiciled in thought and habit in a single province. All the world knows the history of Rawdon Brown, who went to Venice in search of the tomb of an historical personage, and found there his own, unwilling, like many others, again to throw off the enchantment (Circean only in its force) which bound him there. And if Venice, with its drawbacks of fogs and east wind, the nauseous odors of its canals and their monotony, is so entrancing, how much more Florence, with its blue crown of hills and its infinite valley recesses, and the unbroken shell in which the Renaissance grew and died, still standing in its delusive perfection. Could human progress so far penetrate the Tuscan hills as to make the municipalities understand sanitation, and chase away the malaria which broods in the drainage and cesspools of the cities, Tuscany would become the sanitarium and paradise of the intellectual life.

No wonder that when one lives in the city of Dante and Boccaccio one takes to bookmaking, or, as the common saying is there, that every foreigner who comes takes to painting or to literature! Every hill and villa and stone-pine has a story, and every opening in the surrounding hills leads to fields of pictures with the accessories all ready. And for an English woman like Signora Villari, sharer of the labors of her illustrious husband, not to make books would be inexplicable. The service we outsiders must demand—that of expert exploration of what, among all the attractions of the country, has not yet become hackneyed and guide-book matter—is what she renders us in 'Tuscan Hills.' Her description of Barga is the history of a nook in the Apennines whose existence is a summary of the history of Italy in the middle ages, and her sojourn in the Abetone (a resort scarcely known yet to foreigners) will be found of positive utility to those who like Italian life, and find the summers of the peninsula unbearable from the heat and foul smells of the cities. An example taken almost at random will show the perceptive and descriptive powers given to her work by Signora Villari:

"Then there is a delightful bullock track winding through the recesses of the forest to the lower crags of the Libro Aperto—the double peak on which winter snows rest in the semblance of the page of a half-opened book. From this track one can branch off into hidden glades, where the secret of the woods is revealed to the solitary wanderer. The incommunicable trees begin to persuade us to live with them and quit our life of solemn trifles. Looking out from the dense shade of the firs, the strong summer sunlight transforms the clusters on the crest of steep banks into screens of gleaming emeralds. On all sides is a fascinating dance of light and shade—now of pure white sunshine, and then, toward evening, showers of gold fall on the lichened trunks. The air is full of bird voices, and their songs are accompanied by the buzz of innumerable unseen insects. But there come moments of utter stillness, when all nature seems hushed to sleep; then suddenly the spell is broken—birds and insects awake; there are mysterious cracklings and rustlings all about you; the woodpeckers tap more noisily than before; a brown or black squirrel darts up a tree close beside you and frisks from branch to branch; a family of tomtits flutters down in short playful flights, and you fancy the mother bird is peeping from the nest overhead to superintend the children's sports. Suddenly, at touch of wind or wing, a shower of fir needles rains down, and the timid tomtits disappear."

With Venice Signora Villari is less familiar, though still an habituée, and some of her driftings about the lagoons will have novelty to most visitors to the city. But why should she adopt the unfounded attribution by Ruskin of the juvenile pictures of St. Albise to Carpaccio? She had better authority to consult on that matter than Ruskin, and ought to know that in the opinion of the best judges of Italian art in Italy (among others C. F. Murray, *facile princeps* of them) the so-called Carpaccios are simply blundering imitations by a later painter. What, however, is refreshing throughout the book is that, unlike most of the *litterati* of the Florentine school, the author does not pretend to be an art oracle, and launch out into disquisition in what is generally regarded by them as no-man's-land, and like a blank sheet of paper fit for anybody's scrawling—the philosophy of art and the merits of the Renaissance. If now and then she is led, in the way of writers of padding articles, to diffuseness and inflated diction, she at least never talks of what she knows nothing about.

The Life of Abraham Lincoln. By Isaac N. Arnold. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Company. 1885.

MR. ARNOLD was an almost life-long friend of Lincoln in his own home; and when the war came, he went to Congress, and while there saw the President with the frequency and intimacy natural to old acquaintances. He desired to write down his impressions of the great man he had known so well, and in this large volume he has done so. Unfortunately, he was not content to confine himself to the facts of his own knowledge, out of which he might perhaps have made a personal biography of Lincoln, or have contributed something to it; his imagination was impressed by the great work Lincoln did, and the way of his doing it, rather than by the personal qualities that made up the strong, patient, and temperate character of his hero. Consequently, his 'Life of Abraham Lincoln' is a history of the public affairs in which Lincoln bore a hand in his early career, and of the great events both civil and military of the Rebellion: it is a history of Lincoln's political life almost exclusively.

Biography which rests on the theory that a man is what he does has long been out of fashion, and any one used to modern methods will recognize at once the incompleteness of Mr. Arnold's presentation of Lincoln. In a general and rather discursive manner he writes a history of events, with little regard to the doubtfulness of details, and thus traverses ground already gleaned to the last straw of the stubble. Hence the contents of this book for the most part merely duplicate what may be read in hundreds of others. The portion which deals with Lincoln's personality is, on the other hand, very small, and the new material meagre—hardly more, in fact, than Mr. Arnold's own impression of his friend. One would have expected, not perhaps new anecdote, but some account of how Lincoln's character expressed itself in private life, in the little matters of his own domestic or friendly or business circles, in which the quality of his nature must have shown itself as frequently as in the large sphere of his national relations; but of such fresh knowledge there is nothing exact and definite. Upon this friend, it would seem, Lincoln made the same impression as upon many others—that is, an essentially public impression, as of a resolute, faithful, God-trusting patriot, a statesman wise through the temper of his mind, a man born for his deed. But as a man apart from his task, he made, so far as this book shows, no distinctive impression at all. The volume is consequently disappointing; it fails through being too ambitious. It is, too, a provincial book; it sets Lincoln not by himself, but merely as one of a group of extraordinary men—the head of it, truly, but still not dissociated from it. There is thus a certain lack of perspective. Lincoln himself seems lessened by the fact that Mr. Arnold takes so many members of the Illinois bar into the same horizon. They were strong men, but their strength was of a different kind; it led to eminence, forensic or intellectual or political, but eminence is a position far below greatness, and Lincoln, though he included their might in his powers, was lifted to his place in both the memory and the imagination of mankind by other qualities than they were noted for. To put it briefly, Mr. Arnold sees in Lincoln too much the Illinois man, and recognizes scarcely at all his national character as "the first American." It is a great pity, or else a great good fortune, that no fine observer with power of moral interpretation seems to have known Lincoln. Mr. Arnold's book does nothing to supply the want. Lincoln was "one of Plutarch's men," we know, but, must we, too, wait for a Roman decadence before our Plutarch shall be born?

Old St. Augustine: A Story of Three Centuries. By Charles B. Reynolds. St. Augustine: E. H. Reynolds.

IT is hardly necessary to have seen the quaint old town of which Mr. Reynolds writes, to feel interested in his narrative of its "changing fortunes"—"unstable as the shifting sands of its harbor bar." He tells us graphically of its founding in 1565 by the Spanish bigot Menendez, who enforced his claims to Florida by that terrible slaughter of French Huguenots which gave name to Matanzas inlet. Many were the vicissitudes of massacre, sack, conflagration, and siege, to which different foes, the Frenchman, the Englishman, the Indian, the Boucanier (Buccaneer), subjected St. Augustine before it was ceded to Eng-

land in 1763. During our Revolutionary War it was loyal to the British crown, but the enterprising Englishmen who had infused new vigor into it received a poor reward for their loyalty, when its retrocession to Spain in 1783 compelled them to seek other homes. From that date St. Augustine remained in Spanish hands until Florida passed into the possession of the United States in 1821. All these changes are exhibited by our author in a series of well-selected historic pictures, on which he has succeeded in throwing a strong light. Various characters of greater or less note enliven his pages, from Admiral Sir Francis Drake to Coacoochee and Osceola, heroes of the Seminole war. The story of Fort Marion—of the first building of San Juan de Pinos, of its destruction, its rebuilding, its resistance as San Marco to obstinate siege, its rechristening as Fort Marion—is an interesting one.

The book is graced by various illustrations, some being copies of drawings made three centuries ago, and the remainder mostly artotypes of old buildings, the Cathedral, City Gate, Fort Marion, etc. A list of dates and a full index add to the value of the little volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ancient and Modern History. [Catholic School Book.] Wm. H. Sadlier.

Blind, Mathilde. Tarantella. A Romance. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.50.

Clingman, T. L. The Tobacco Remedy. O. Judd Co. 25 cents.

Ewing, Juliana H. Daddy Darwin's Dovecot. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 35 cents.

Flatland. A Romance of Many Dimensions. By A. Square. Illustrated. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 75 cents.

Gardner, Dorsey. A Condensed Dictionary of the English Language. Chiefly Derived from Webster's Unabridged. Supervised by Dr. Porter, President of Yale College. 1,500 Illustrations. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

Gosse, E. The Works of Thomas Gray, in Prose and Verse. In 4 volumes. A. C. Armstrong & Co. $6.

Holcombe, W. H. Letters on Spiritual Subjects, in Answer to Inquiring Souls. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1.

Jones, B. W. The Peanut Plant; Its Cultivation and Uses. Illustrated. O. Judd Co. 50 cents.

Miller, Mrs. F. Fenwick. Harriet Martineau. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Sanders, Dr. D. Ergänzungs-Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache. Berlin: Abenheim.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 12, 1885.

The Week.

THE story of Gordon's romantic career and unhappy fate will long hold a leading place among the records of English prowess by land and sea. He was a genuine survival of another age, and not the age of chivalry either, but of the age of Naseby and Marston Moor. Burnaby was as restless and as fond of adventure as Gordon, if not more so, but his impulses came from high health and overflowing animal spirits. Gordon roamed the world sword in hand, as one of Cromwell's "russet-coated captains" might have done, seeking out the Lord's work and doing it, and considering himself, under whatever sky, whether in peace or war, "the humble instrument of a wonder-working Providence." There probably has not been in England for two hundred years a more genuine Puritan. With his Bible he never felt alone, and amidst the thickest rain of bullets he never felt in danger, so sure was he of the divine protection. There was mixed in with this religious zeal, too, a strong dash of the professional longing for great things to do with little means, which has been bred in the British army by a century of conquest among barbarous races against great odds. His professional interest, like that of, one might almost say, a majority of British soldiers in our day, and very unlike that of Continental officers, lay not so much in grand strategy as in the art of making great successes out of small and desperate ventures, and imposing the English will on inferior races as a kind of missionary influence. And the British Empire, spread as it is now over a vast area of semi-civilization, and covering so many tribes and nations which move uneasily in the strong cage of British power, keeps alive, among all men in uniform, a restless ambition from which even a man whose temper was so religious as Gordon's was not exempt. He was a fanatic, and he was undoubtedly superstitious, but he was also a soldier of the stuff out of which Clive, and Wellington, and Havelock, and Lawrence, and Nicholson were made. He probably never rose from his prayers without feeling impelled to cry:

> "Blow, blow the clarion, fill the fife;
> To all the sensual world proclaim,
> One crowded hour of glorious life
> Is worth an age without a name."

Of the effect of his death on the war there is little doubt. It, of course, makes the capture of Khartum and slaughter of thousands of Arabs certain. Hecatombs of these poor savages will be sacrified to Gordon's memory, and yet they are probably engaged, as Mr. Gladstone has acknowledged, in as good a cause as any in which men have ever drawn the sword. They are struggling to be free after long and patient endurance of shameful oppression. Of the Mahdi there will probably be little left, *quâ* Mahdi, by the time the war is over. Whether he be an arrant impostor or honest fanatic, his power will be gone when his armies have been slaughtered and he has himself been driven back into the deserts of the far south. Of the effect of it on the Ministry it is more difficult to speak. If Khartum had fallen under a direct assault of the Mahdi's forces, or had succumbed to famine after a long struggle, Mr. Gladstone would probably have fared worse than he is likely to do now. Treachery was one of the dangers to which Gordon was exposed from the hour of his arrival in the place. It has been a constant wonder ever since that he escaped it so long. It was something, too, from which neither Wolseley nor anybody else could have saved him. But Gordon himself evidently did not fear it, and nobody on this point was half so good a judge. This will, in the acrimonious debate which will doubtless take place when Parliament meets, help to neutralize the charge of delay which will appear in the forefront of the attack on the Ministry, and then there will be the old reluctance "to give the Marquis of Salisbury a blank check," as Mr. Goschen said, which has served the Ministry in good stead before now. Public attention, too, will be absorbed by the further progress of the war, and, all things considered, it is probable that the "Grand Old Man" will once more escape with an admonition to be more careful another time.

The mission of General Gordon to the Sudan is commonly thought to have been the result of a piece of brilliant journalistic insight on the part of Mr. Stead, the editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*. We have excellent grounds, however, for believing that it originated in an entirely different manner, and this fact, which has not been made public before, is of special significance at the present moment of uncertainty regarding Gordon's own fate. General Gordon, it will be remembered, was about to visit England prior to his journey to the Congo in the service of the King of the Belgians, and it was stated, and commonly believed, that he was met at Southampton by a despatch from the editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, requesting him to receive a representative of that paper with a view to discussing the Egyptian question and his own peculiar qualifications to attempt the task of settling it. Gordon is supposed to have assented with much reluctance, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* then started that cry of "Gordon to the rescue!" which at last grew to such proportions as to compel the Government to send him to the Sudan. The "truth about Gordon"—to borrow our contemporary's own peculiar phraseology—we believe to be, that Gordon telegraphed in the first place to the editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, suggesting himself as the man to solve the problem, and asking whether the editor would support him. An affirmative answer was sent, the editor "represented" the paper in the famous interview at Southampton, and the two or three articles which were supposed to be expressing the demand of the people were written by Mr. Stead in Gordon's own study, and submitted to him in manuscript before being sent to London. We wonder whether Gordon sought divine guidance on that occasion by his usual method of tossing a halfpenny. If so, his fatalism betrayed him at the crisis of his life.

The English press has not shown much more Roman gravity and fortitude under the news from the Sudan than some of the more mercurial of our own papers would show in like circumstances. The *Times*, which seldom gives way to emotion, screeeches at the Ministry and at Wolseley in the most hysterical fashion. The fact seems to be that had Gordon managed to avoid the treachery of his subordinates a week longer, the Ministry would have been held to have done the right thing at the right time, Wolseley would still have been the luckiest and most skilful of commanders, and the wisdom of choosing the Nile route would have been fully demonstrated. As matters stand, the delays of the Ministry have been most culpable; Wolseley ought not to have believed Gordon's own account of the security of his position, and, instead of taking the long Nile route, ought to have taken the Suakim route, which was well known in every newspaper office in London to be the only safe and quick one. Yet Wolseley is beyond most generals a great master of details, and both studies and prepares them with extraordinary care. There has probably seldom been a question of strategy more minutely investigated than the comparative merits of the Nile and Suakim routes, although, to read the English newspapers to-day, one would suppose that it was only now after the disaster that the authorities were looking into it. Their own files of a year ago, however, would amply expose the folly of all this. The Suakim route is 250 miles long, through a howling desert, with but two wells, and those poor. Most of it, too, runs through a very difficult mountainous country, admirably adapted to guerilla fighting, in which it would be very hard to manage or protect long baggage trains. There are no maps or charts of the region, or, indeed, anything but memory about it to rely on.

We do not profess to know any more about Mr. Cleveland's Cabinet than the rest of the world, except on one point. We know that the expectation which many people entertain, and which has been making a prodigious amount of talk during the last week or two, that Mr. W. C. Whitney is to be Secretary of the Treasury, is without foundation. Mr. Whitney is one of the ablest and most promising of the younger generation of Democrats. He is high, and deservedly high, in Mr. Cleveland's confidence. It would be a mistake for Mr. Cleveland not to turn his administrative talent and political sagacity to account in making up his Cabinet. But nobody would oppose Mr. Whitney's being put in charge of the Treasury more strenuously than Mr. Whitney himself—and, of course, nobody's opposition would be more effective—for the simple reason that the Secretary of the Treasury,

as every one who wishes well to the new Administration sees, must be somebody whose capacity and experience in financial matters are known not only to his friends, but to the whole country. In short, he must be a man whose name, when announced, will explain to all the world of politics why he was appointed. The length of time which has elapsed since the Democrats held office, the attitude which some of their prominent men, as well as some of the Republicans, have occupied toward the currency, and the popular uncertainty about their financial policy, all render it necessary that there should not be for one moment either ignorance or doubt in the public mind about the management of the Treasury. We venture to predict that there will not be, and that in filling the Secretaryship worthily President Cleveland will have in Mr. Whitney one of his soundest and most sagacious advisers.

Senator Morrill, in his speech on the pending Silver Bill, drew attention to the peculiar dangers threatening the wage-workers of the country from the establishment of a silver standard, or from any depreciation in the value of the money with which they are paid. This is a matter of great importance to workingmen as a class, and if they could be made to see it they would demand the cessation of the silver coinage in tones much louder than those with which they have ever called for an eight-hour law or a discontinuance of prison labor. The continued coinage of silver must eventually bring about a change from the gold to the silver standard—that is, it must cause a depreciation of 15 or 20 per cent. in the purchasing power of the money in everybody's pocket. The time within which this depreciation will take effect may be longer or shorter, but come it will. Whether it be slow or sudden, its effect will be to lower the wages of every workingman in the United States. Every person receiving a fixed income will suffer in the same way. Wages and fixed incomes are payable in dollars, and if the dollar of to-morrow has less purchasing power than the dollar of to-day, the man who receives it is by so much the worse off. The employer can and must advance the prices of his goods to make up for the lessened value of the money he receives. The laborer cannot advance his wages without going through the doubtful experiment of a strike. Before a strike would be resorted to, the laboring man's loss must be sensibly and keenly felt. But the losses consequent upon a depreciating currency come insensibly and by slow degrees. They are not felt till they have been for some time in operation, and even then the causes which have produced them are only dimly perceived.

Efforts have been made by Republican journals to show that the River and Harbor Bill this year is an almost unprecedentedly bad one, and that it is the first grab of the Solid South upon the Treasury. As a matter of fact, the most indefensible items in the bill were those known as the Eads appropriations, and these have all been erased. They were much more in the interest of Captain Eads than of the Solid South. The Hennepin Canal scheme is not a Southern one; neither is the Sandy Bay, Mass., harbor-of-refuge project, which would cost from $8,000,000 to $10,000,000. The worst River and Harbor Bill in the country's history was passed by a Republican Congress and vetoed by President Arthur. Every bill of the kind is more or less filled with "jobs" for the improvement of creeks and streams which are unknown to geography, and for the excavation of "harbors" which never had any commerce, and never will have. One party is as bad as the other in supporting these annual raids upon the Treasury, and the abuses will never be completely eradicated until the President has authority to veto single items in the bill without killing the whole measure.

There are twenty or thirty "permanent appropriations" on the national statute-book—*i. e.*, appropriations which do not require to be annually passed upon by Congress. They are exceptional and peculiar in the fact that Congress has lost control over them. All other appropriations of public money are subject to yearly scrutiny, first by the proper committees of the two houses, then by Committee of the Whole, and afterward by the two houses and the President. Inasmuch as government in the last analysis is simply the power to tax, it is fitting that a free government should never relax the power, or abdicate the duty, of passing upon the public expenditures and voting yes or no upon them from time to time. Two or three years ago this anomaly was taken up in the Senate, and a bill was passed repealing all permanent appropriations except those for the salaries of the President and of the Judges of the United States Courts, and for the interest on the public debt. When the bill reached the House it was discovered that among these permanent appropriations was one for the purchase of not less than $24,000,000 worth of silver bullion each year to be coined into standard silver dollars, and that if the repealing bill should pass, an annual appropriation would be necessary in order to continue the coinage. The war-whoop was raised against the bill and it was tomahawked.

Is it not time that Congress should resume control over an expenditure of $24,000,000 per annum which yields no other result than that of keeping the entire business community of the United states in a shiver of apprehension? If the silver-men dare not submit their claims to Congress annually, they must confess their own weakness and insincerity. They must acknowledge that continuance of the silver coinage depends upon the clandestine character of the appropriation for it. They must admit that they dare not bring to public vote and discussion each year an appropriation of many millions for the purchase of bullion, plus the appropriations required for new storage vaults, and for transporting the stuff from one vault to another. We are led to believe that some action is contemplated in the House to bring the subject to a vote, with a view to putting appropriations for silver on the same footing as appropriations for the army and navy, for rivers and harbors, for pensions and Indians, for public buildings, for the survey of public lands, etc. Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, in an interview with the *Herald's* Washington correspondent, is reported to have said that the subject would come up when the appropriation for new storage vaults should be reached in the Sundry Civil Bill. He did not indicate in what way a remedy would be sought, but, looking at the state of the public business and at the rules of the House, it is evident that the only measure which has any chance of passing at the present session is one repealing the permanent appropriation for silver bullion. This will be germane to the Sundry Civil Bill, and will be a measure reducing and not increasing public expenditures.

Admiral Shufeldt had a letter in the Washington *Post* of Tuesday week which strikingly confirms the view we have taken of the folly of supposing that making the Nicaragua Canal with our own money, and calling it ours, will give it any special value to us, either for military or commercial purposes. Common sense, we have no doubt, as the discussion goes on, will rapidly get the better of sentiment. Admiral Shufeldt was one of those who originated the naval surveys of the canal routes at Tehuantepec and Nicaragua in 1870, though afterward compelled to abandon the work through ill health. He thinks the generally received estimates of the cost of the canal are much too low, and then goes on to say:

"As to its commercial advantages, I submit that a canal across Nicaragua or any other part of the Isthmus will operate to the very great disadvantage of the commerce of this country. The United States now holds, by virtue of its railroads, the right of way across this continent, and has, or ought to have, the commercial control of the Pacific Ocean. To open a canal would be to throw into the hands of England and the other European Powers this commerce; or, in other words, we would build a canal through an American isthmus for the benefit of foreign commerce, as the French built the canal at Suez for the benefit of English commerce.

"The first result of this canal would be the domination of England, or Germany, or France in the Pacific; and the first victim to fall into the hands of either one of these Powers would be the Sandwich Islands, which, in a military or naval point of view, are essential to our supremacy on our western coast. The construction of a canal, therefore, from a commercial standpoint, is merely a matter of sentiment. I have no idea that England would object to it on account of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, as it would redound to her very great commercial advantage, and I can fully understand why Captain Bedford Pim, R.N., the author of 'The Gates of the Pacific,' should be so earnest an advocate for its construction; but I cannot understand why the people of the Pacific slope should be in favor of a project which must inevitably shunt San Francisco off on a side track, and confine that emporium of the West to her exports alone of wheat and wine. In my opinion, California should look for a market in the Great Orient, teeming with population, which must eventually consume everything which she can produce."

Looking at the canal from the naval and military point of view, Admiral Shufeldt considers that it promises us "portentous evil." He says that to hold it in time of war, we should have to reach it by railroad communication through Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua, and "dominate" these States for that purpose. He holds, as we pointed out, that each end of the canal would in time of war be blockaded by a superior naval force, and the canal would be "utterly useless for naval purposes, and even worse than useless, because it would require an ad-

ditional navy to protect it." "No single man of war," he says, "could go from the port of New York to San Francisco in time of war with any degree of certainty. The voyage would be one continuous running the gauntlet through an enemy's fleet." That these considerations, obvious as they seem, should be made public only now, after the canal treaty has been rejected, shows what an escape we have had, and what an abuse the discussion of such a matter in secret session is.

At the conclusion of their notes on the question of the Egyptian finances, the Governments of Germany, Russia, and Austria have called England's attention to the subject of the neutralization of the Suez Canal, and it will be well for American advocates of private inter-oceanic canals to give close heed to the matter. In January, 1883, England having put down the revolt of Arabi and being in undisputed possession of Egypt, Lord Granville called the attention of the Powers to the question of the neutralization and free navigation of the canal, inviting their coöperation to that end. His proposals aimed at constituting the canal, as it were, an arm of the sea, through which ships of all nations, whether vessels of war or trading vessels, and whether under belligerent or neutral flags, should be entitled to pass freely in time of war as in time of peace. This sort of neutralization would, of course, be for the advantage of England, as it would give her the unquestioned right to send her war vessels through the canal at all times. All other Powers would have the same right, subject, however, to the chances of their being able to reach and depart from the three-mile limit which bounds the two ends of the canal. England could be reasonably sure of effecting her entrance and her offing at all times, not by virtue of her possessing control of Egypt, but by the strength of her ironclads in the Mediterranean and the Red Sea.

No action was taken in response to Lord Granville's suggestions at the time, and England was left to manage the canal as she saw fit. Now, however, the three Powers have indicated their desire to take up the subject, and settle the principles of public law applicable to the canal, in the sense of securing "perfect freedom of the canal and the unimpeded transit through it, in time of peace as in time of war, of all European Powers without distinction." No country proposes to have its own private canal. Nobody asks for an unimpeded right of way to the canal or from it. They recognize as an established fact that the only thing open to negotiation is the treatment to which the ships of all nations shall be entitled when they have once got within the canal or within a marine league of its entrance. And here they are in substantial accord with Lord Granville. The London *Times* thinks that there ought to be little difficulty in coming to an agreement. It must strike the advocates of the Nicaraguan treaty as remarkable that England should be willing to relax any hold which she now has on the canal, and that France, whose subjects built the canal and own the greater share of it, manifests rather less interest in the question than any other Power concerned.

The Illinois Legislature has been relieved of its deadlock by the election of Mr. Haines as Speaker, but the question who shall be Senator is as far from being settled as ever. The Democrats have a majority of one in the House, and the Republicans have a majority of one in the Senate. The joint Convention stands 102 to 102. General Logan has received the Republican caucus nomination and Mr. Morrison the Democratic. But there is a handful of bolters on each side. Three Democratic members have announced that they cannot support Mr. Morrison on account of his tariff record. Two Republican members absented themselves from the caucus without assigning any reason, or giving any indication of their preferences. Both parties appear to be determined to adhere to their respective nominees. In the Republican caucus it seems to have been made an article of faith to stand by General Logan under all circumstances. The prospect of an election is, therefore, very remote, and the question has been raised whether the Governor can appoint a Senator in the event of the Legislature adjourning without electing one. The constitutional provision for filling vacancies in the Senate by Executive appointment provides that "if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies." It is extremely doubtful whether the natural expiration of a Senator's term is a "vacancy" within the meaning of this proviso. But even if it be considered such, the vacancy must be one occurring during a recess of the Legislature. General Logan's term will expire on the fourth of March, at which time the Legislature of Illinois will be in session unless a forced adjournment takes place. The Governor has the right to adjourn the Legislature in cases where the two houses are unable to agree upon a time for adjournment, but the contingency contemplated for the exercise of this power by the Governor was that of a Legislature which had finished its ordinary business, and had fallen into some disagreement respecting its separation.

The Board of Directors of the Columbia (S. C.) Seminary recently elected successors to fill the chairs made vacant by the resignations of Dr. Boggs and Dr. Hemphill, the sympathizers with Dr. Woodrow, but determined not to fill for the present the "Perkins chair," formerly occupied by the last-named gentleman. It is to be supposed that great caution will be used in making the selection of a professor to lecture upon the relation between revelation and science. No specialist with Heidelberg training will again be sought. To judge the temper of Southern Presbyterians by the speeches made in the various synods against Dr. Woodrow, it is clear that they will not tolerate any scientific teaching that cannot be supported throughout by the Bible. Dr. Woodrow, it is said, has suggested as a suitable man for the place the Rev. John Jasper, of Richmond, Virginia. The Rev. John Jasper holds to astronomical theories long since exploded, but he can and he does cite Scripture to sustain them. We have heard that in the Georgia Synod a very indignant elder exclaimed: "Tell me I came from a monkey. I didn't, didn't, didn't. I can prove it by the Bible."

Bishop Bedell, of Ohio, is President of the Ohio Divorce Reform League, an organization which has collected some valuable statistics with regard to the marriage system of that State. The League reports that Ohio granted 873 divorces in 1865, which is as far back as the divorce statistics run. In 1870, 1,008 were granted, and in 1883, 1,965. Since 1870, the number of divorces granted annually has increased 95 per cent. The number of marriages has increased 29 per cent., and the population about 30 per cent. The ratio of divorces to marriages in 1883 was 1 to 16; in Ashtabula County it was 1 to 4; in three counties in the northern part of the State it was 1 to 5; in nine counties, mostly in the north and west, it was 1 to 7; in 43 counties, scattered throughout the State, the fewest being in the southeast, it was 1 to 10. The League asks that the Ohio law allowing divorce for the vague cause of "gross neglect of duty" be repealed, that "the immediate marriage of the guilty partner" be forbidden, that counsel shall in all cases be appointed to represent the defendant, and that a commissioner be appointed to take part in an inter-State Convention. These facts and suggestions of reform show that the existing Ohio laws leave something to be desired. The Bishop is in favor of Congressional legislation, if necessary, and this, preceded of course by a Constitutional amendment, is what an inter-State conference might lead to.

The *Irish World* has reopened its columns to the acknowledgment of receipts of contributions to its Emergency Fund, but with many signs of uneasiness. It precedes the list with a new statement of the object of the fund, which is in a very different strain from the old one. The object is now said to be "to assist the Irish people in their noble efforts to regain self-government"; and instead of the former declarations that all means were justifiable and dynamite a divine agency, the subscribers are now told that "while the inspiring motive is good, there are limitations which ought to be respected"; that "the fact that England and the United States live on terms of diplomatic friendship ought to be noted"; and that "under existing conditions men who try to serve Ireland must be as discreet as they are brave." After this mild proclamation, about forty contributions are acknowledged, but their total is not given, neither is the previous amount received for the fund mentioned. Last week's total was, in fact, much larger than any for many previous weeks, being over $172, and the grand total of the fund is now over $15,675, exclusive of the $26,000 or more transferred to it from the former O'Donnell Defence Fund. It is evident that the editor does not care to have himself brought within the range of our present penal laws against raising money on false pretences, or of the proposed new laws making it a felony to raise money here for the destruction of life and property abroad.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 4, to TUESDAY, February 10, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE United States Senate on Wednesday substituted the Cullom Inter-State Commerce Bill for the Reagan bill, and passed it by a vote of 43 to 12.

In the Senate on Thursday Mr. Bayard strongly opposed the redemption of the trade dollars at their face value, and advocated the suspension of the Silver Coinage Act.

The Senate on Saturday adopted an amendment to a private pension bill providing that hereafter all widows receiving pensions at the rate of $8 per month shall be paid $12 a month, and another increasing from $8 to $12 a month the pensions of all dependent fathers and mothers now on the rolls. On Monday, Senator Cameron (Rep., Pa.) called up a resolution that "the Committee on Finance be directed to inquire whether it would be expedient to expend the surplus revenue of the United States, or any portion thereof, for the purpose of reviving the shipping and export trade, by allowing a rebate from tariff duties on foreign goods imported in ships built and owned in the United States, and by also allowing a premium on American-grown products and articles of American manufacture exported in American vessels, and report by bill or otherwise." Mr. Cameron made a long speech in support of his resolution, which was referred to the Committee on Finance. The Anti-Silver Coinage Bill was taken up and debated.

The House Committee on Rivers and Harbors voted on Thursday to strike out the provision for employing Captain Eads to oversee the Galveston harbor improvement, to reduce the appropriation for that work to $500,000, and to permit it to be prosecuted by the United States Engineers, and to strike out the provision turning the Mississippi River improvement over to Eads at a salary of $3,500; it reinstated the Commission in charge of the work.

In the House on Friday Mr. S. S. Cox offered an amendment to the River and Harbor Bill directing the United States Harbor Board, provided for, to report a plan and estimates for obtaining a permanent channel sufficient for the wants of commerce over the Sandy Hook Bar entrance into New York Harbor. Adopted. Mr. King, of Louisiana, offered an amendment appropriating $15,000,000 for the improvement of Sandy Hook channel, and advocated its adoption as benefiting the commerce of the entire country. Rejected.

Mr. Randall gave notice on Friday that on Monday he would be ready to go on with the Post-office Bill, and that the Legislative Bill would also be ready, and followed soon by the Sundry Civil Bill. He gave notice, too, that he expected to have all the appropriation bills in the Senate not later than February 25. If his programme should be carried out, the Senate would have only five working days in which to clear up the business sent to it by the House.

The House had its usual row on Monday. Mr. White, of Kentucky, a disturbing element, was ruled out of order by Mr. Blackburn, the acting Speaker. The Sergeant-at-Arms was sent to seat him. That officer forgot his mace. Mr. White resisted, as the officer had no badge of authority. The mace was secured, and, when it was no longer needed, Mr. White was seated. For an hour there was turbulence and wrangling over this, but Mr. Blackburn triumphed. The supporters of the River and Harbor Bill were not able to hold the floor after 12 o'clock. This is interpreted to mean the defeat of the bill. There was a marked determination to pass the general appropriation bills. The Post-office Appropriation Bill was taken up.

There was another disorderly scene in the House of Representatives on Tuesday over the White incident of the day before. The Republicans insisted that the personal rights of a member had been infringed by an officer without a badge of office, and that the journal did not accurately state that fact.

President-elect Cleveland arrived in this city on Wednesday night, and remained at the Victoria Hotel until Saturday, receiving prominent members of the Democratic party, and Independents, and hearing their political advice. On Sunday he visited Samuel J. Tilden at Greystone.

In his conversations Mr. Cleveland said his civil-service letter meant exactly what it said, no more and no less, and that those who were undertaking to read between the lines would find themselves mistaken. He did not, he said, propose to remove any Republican officer who had been faithful to his duties, and whose administration of his office was satisfactory to the public immediately concerned. When the terms of such officers expired, he expected to fill their places with good men of his own party if they could be found, which he did not doubt. There might be reasons in some cases why this position should not be adhered to, but under all ordinary circumstances it would be the rule.

A bill was introduced in the Senate at Albany on Friday for the protection of gas consumers. It provides that every gas company in New York city shall furnish consumers, through burners consuming five cubic feet per hour, gas of sixteen-sperm-candle power, at a cost not to exceed $1 50 per thousand feet. No compensation shall be charged for gas of less illuminating power than that specified above. The Mayor shall appoint a gas-meter inspector to test all gas furnished. A similar bill was introduced in the Assembly providing for inspectors in all cities in the State of more than 20,000 inhabitants.

In the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday a resolution was adopted referring to the Judiciary the question of the advisability of an investigation of Judges Truax, Andrews, and Beach because of their acts in connection with the late change of administration in New York city.

The Assembly has ordered the investigation of the Emigration Labor Bureau requested by Mr. Hooley, on behalf of the Trades Assembly. Mr. Hooley alleges that there is evidence to show that the Bureau is managed in the interest of manufacturing companies in this and other States.

Mayor Grace's bill for spring elections in this city will be presented to the Legislature this week. It provides that the President of the Board of Aldermen and the Aldermen to be elected next fall shall hold office till January 1, 1887, and that, on the first Tuesday succeeding the first Monday in April, 1886, there shall be elected a Mayor, a President of the Board of Aldermen, and a Board of Aldermen. The terms of the Mayor and the Aldermen who are elected in April, 1886, are to begin on January 1, 1887, and are to end at noon on June 1, 1888.

Judge Freedman, in the Superior Court Special Term on Tuesday, in this city, gave a very elaborate opinion and decision in the proceedings brought by Theodore Roosevelt and others against Franklin Edson, ex-Mayor of this city, upon the motion to punish for contempt of court for disobeying the order of injunction granted by Judge Beach last December, to restrain him from making any nominations for Commissioner of Public Works or Corporation Counsel. Judge Freedman finds that ex-Mayor Edson is guilty of contempt of court, and he directs "that for the wilful disobedience and the contempt of which the defendant stands adjudged guilty, he be imprisoned in the County Jail for the period of fifteen days, and that, in addition thereto, he pay a fine of $250."

John A. Logan was renominated by acclamation for United States Senator by the Republican caucus at Springfield, Ill., on Thursday night. Congressman W. R. Morrison received the Democratic caucus nomination on Wednesday night.

Director-General Burke, of the New Orleans Exhibition, on Saturday submitted the following statement respecting the Exhibition: Receipts from stock and donations, $584,168; United States Government loan, $1,000,000; installation receipts, $93,984 39; gate receipts, $73,292 60. Total, $1,751,444 99; expenditures, $2,070,831 94; deficit, $319,386 95.

At a meeting of railroad presidents in this city on Friday the resignation of Commissioner Fink, of the Trunk Line Pool, was not accepted. He was, however, granted leave of absence for a trip to Mexico and California.

A great snow blockade existed on many Western railroads on Monday and Tuesday. Throughout the Eastern and Middle States considerable damage was done by freshets.

The Board of Overseers of Harvard College on January 28 approved the report in favor of printing the Quinquennial Catalogue in English instead of Latin. At a meeting on Thursday, twenty-one members being present, the question was reconsidered. In the discussion of the main question President Eliot and James Freeman Clarke expressed themselves as distinctly in favor of printing the catalogue in English. Edward Everett Hale was in favor of printing the catalogue down to the class of 1880 in Latin and the remainder in English. Nine overseers voted to rescind the resolution, while but seven voted to sustain it. It is believed that this will not be accepted as a final disposition of the matter. The statute requiring students to attend public worship on Sunday morning was repealed.

At the annual meeting of the members of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, at the Museum in Central Park on Monday, John Taylor Johnston was reëlected President; William C. Prime and Daniel Huntington Vice-Presidents; and L. P. Di Cesnola, Secretary. Mr. Di Cesnola received thirty-one out of the thirty-five votes. R. Hoe, jr., G. W. Curtis, and W. R. Ware were elected trustees for the term ending in 1892. The trustees reported receipts during 1884 to the amount of $45,642 45, all of which had been disbursed except $109 81.

Richard Short, the man who stabbed Captain Phelan in O'Donovan Rossa's office, was on Monday released on bail.

FOREIGN.

London and Great Britain were startled on Thursday morning by the announcement in the *Chronicle* that Khartum had fallen into the hands of El Mahdi, and that General Gordon was probably a prisoner. The other morning papers soon issued extra editions with the same report, but it lacked official confirmation until 12:30 P. M., when the War Office issued the following: "Telegrams from General Wolseley announce that the fall of Khartum took place on January 26. He says Colonel Wilson arrived at Khartum on January 28, and was greatly surprised to find that the enemy were in possession of that place. He immediately started on his return down the river, and proceeded under a heavy fire from the rebels. When some miles below the Shublaka Cataract, Colonel Wilson's steamers were wrecked, but he and his whole party managed to reach an island in safety, where they are secure. A steamer has gone to bring them back to the British camp near Metemneh. General Wolseley says he has no information regarding the fate of General Gordon, and does not know whether he is dead or alive."

A native reported that the Mahdi had 60,000 men in the vicinity of Khartum, and that he introduced a number of his emissaries into the city. These emissaries mingled freely with the native troops under General Gordon, and by bribes, threats, and working on their religious feelings induced them to mutiny. Seven thousand of the garrison deserted to the rebels, leaving General Gordon only 2,500 faithful soldiers. With this small force he attempted to hold the city against the Mahdi's great army,

but, after severe fighting, in which a large number of the rebels were killed, he was compelled to surrender. General Wolseley telegraphed in the afternoon that he did not consider the British position at Gubat in any immediate danger.

Meanwhile the excitement throughout the British Isles was intense. On every side were heard condemnations of the Ministry for their dilatory course in starting the relief expedition. It will be remembered that Gordon arrived at Khartum on February 18, 1884, and that the relief expedition did not start until September, 1884.

A council was held at the British War Office on Thursday evening. It was decided to advise the Government to despatch 3,000 troops to Suakim immediately. General Stephenson telegraphed that 5,000 men would be needed to clear the road to Berber, as the news of the fall of Khartum would induce the central tribes to join Osman Digna.

The comments of the London papers on Friday morning were doleful but patriotic. The *Daily News* said: "Seldom in the memory of living men has news been received of such a disaster to England. The cry of 'too late' against the Government is unjustified." The *Times* said: "No words of ours are adequate to express the mingled feelings of dismay, consternation, and indignant disgust which have been universally evoked by this news. The present situation is the lamentable result of a long course of disregard of the elementary maxims of statesmanship. The country is obliged to confess that everything has been done that could be done to add to the risks of defeat. Advice has been spurned, time wasted, and opportunity lost."

An important meeting of the Cabinet was held on Friday morning. It was decided to give Lord Wolseley *carte blanche* to take any measures which he might deem necessary for the rescue of General Gordon if alive, and to make use of such military operations as he considered advisable to regain the ground lost in the Sudan by the fall of Khartum. Among the alternatives suggested to General Wolseley are the immediate recapture of Khartum, and the employment, if necessary, of Indian troops to reopen the Berber route. He has been instructed to take all measures necessary to the successful operation of the campaign. The Government will give him any assistance he may need by despatching troops from Suakim to Berber. Another Cabinet Council was held on Saturday. The news from General Wolseley grew more discouraging. His latest advices from Metemneh were that El Mahdi was ready to attack Stewart's little army in great force.

Cairo telegrams received on Sunday in London reported that a council of war had been held at which General Stephenson was present. He advised a retreat of the troops from Metemneh on Korti, and the concentration of the entire force toward Berber, and after the capture of Berber to await the expedition coming to Suakim before making an advance on Khartum. Military authorities estimate that this plan involves a delay in the advance upon Khartum until autumn. The hot weather, which begins next month, will make it impossible for the English forces to endure the marches.

General Lord Wolseley telegraphed on Monday: "The advance guard of General Earle's column, consisting of a squadron of cavalry under the command of Colonel Buller, surprised a large body of the Monasir tribe under Suleiman Wad Gamz, the murderer of Colonel Stewart, encamped at Shakoob Wells. The cavalry charged the encampment, and the enemy fled in every direction, leaving behind thirty men killed, a large number of camels and cattle, and many Remington rifles. Colonel Buller also captured six prisoners."

A despatch from Gakdul Wells, dated February 5 and received on Monday, stated that Colonel Sir Redvers Buller, with the Royal Irish Regiment, had arrived there from Korti, and was to start on the following day for Gubat.

At the request of General Wolseley nine battalions of troops, about 8,000 men in all, were on Monday ordered from England, Malta, Gibraltar, and India to Egypt. They will, it is said, go to Suakim and operate between that place and Berber to keep the route open. They will then effect a complete junction with the British forces on the Nile, both above and below Berber. A naval demonstration in the Red Sea, to coöperate with the land movement, has been arranged for, and the despatch of several British men-of-war to that locality is imminent.

General Newdegate will command the British expedition to Suakim, and Colonel Greaves will be his Chief of Staff. The Suakim campaign will open, it is calculated, on the 8th of March. Orders have been sent throughout the country bordering on the west and south coasts of the Red Sea for the purchase of camels for the use of the new expedition.

A despatch from Korti was received on Tuesday, dated February 9, saying: "Lord Charles Beresford has returned in safety to Gubat, bringing with him Colonel Sir Charles Wilson and party, who were stranded on an island some distance up the Nile, as they were returning from Khartum. Some difficulty was experienced in fetching away the stranded party. The rebels on the river banks kept up a constant firing, and shortly after the party had embarked, a bullet from a rebel's rifle pierced the boiler of the steamer. It was necessary, therefore, to anchor under fire and make repairs. The British fire, however, now took effect, and the rebels were repulsed. Immediately after reaching Gubat, Colonel Wilson started for Korti, where he has now arrived to report in person to Lord Wolseley the details of his reconnoissance of Khartum." General Wolseley praised highly the pluck of Lord Charles Beresford and his men. On Tuesday Wolseley started for Korti from Gubat with all the troops except parts of two regiments. He asks that the advance from Suakim be made within a month, seeing no necessity for waiting until autumn.

It became known in London very late on Tuesday that Colonel Wilson had brought with him to Korti the news that General Gordon had been killed on the morning of January 27. The details of the assassination are as follows: On the day of the capture of Khartum General Gordon's attention was attracted by a tremendous tumult in the streets. He left the Government building, in which he had made his headquarters, in order to ascertain the cause of the disturbance. Just as he reached the street he was stabbed in the back and fell dead. The tumult was caused by the Mahdi's troops, who had gained access to the interior of the town through treachery, and who were soon in complete possession of the place, including the citadel. A fearful massacre of the garrison followed. The scenes of the slaughter are described as surpassing the Bulgarian atrocities and the Sepoy mutiny. The Mahdi has fortified Khartum so that it is almost impregnable.

Italy has replied formally to the protests of the Porte against the occupation of Egyptian ports along the Red Sea by Italian forces. She admits the claims of the Sultan to suzerainty over the Red Sea, but declares that she had felt herself obliged to occupy certain ports in order to protect her Italian subjects, who were imperilled by the withdrawal of the Egyptian garrisons. "Italy will," the reply concludes, "allow the Egyptian flag to remain side by side with the Italian flag at every occupied point."

Italy, on Saturday, was reported as ready to send 35,000 troops, if necessary, to aid England in Egypt. Statesmen and people saw a chance for Italy to assert herself among the Powers, and there was a universal sentiment in its favor.

It was reported on Monday that Signor Mancini, Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, had decided to limit the action of the Italian troops and marines on the Red Sea littoral to the coast near Massowah. The departure of the second expedition to Egypt will be hastened, but the force to be sent will not exceed the number originally decided upon. On the other hand, a despatch from Massowah on Tuesday said it was reported that the Italians were about to set out on a march to relieve Kassala and Senheit, coöperating with the English expedition to open the Suakim and Berber route.

In an interview in London on Saturday between Earl Granville and Fehmi Pasha, the Turkish envoy, the former told the latter categorically that the English Government intended, for political and financial reasons, to evacuate Egypt, but that it was impossible to specify an exact period for the withdrawal. He added that the proposed Turkish expedition to Suakim was inopportune, and assured Fehmi Pasha that the Sultan's sovereignty over Egypt would be respected. Earl Granville counselled the Porte not to raise a question with Italy in connection with the annexation of Beilul. Italy's commercial interests in Assab compelled her to extend her authority over the adjacent district.

The recommendation of Earl Derby, the British Secretary for the Colonies, in favor of the acceptance of the proposals of the United States Government looking to a reciprocity arrangement with the British West Indies, has been practically rejected by the British Cabinet. The majority are opposed to the acceptance of the proposals, on the ground that the advantages offered the British West Indies are doubtful, in view of the probability of similar treaties being concluded by the United States with Cuba and Brazil.

The mysterious prisoner who was arrested on February 3 in Whitechapel, London, with Cunningham's missing brown box in his possession, was arraigned on Friday in the Bow Street Police Court. He was formally charged with complicity in causing the explosion at the Tower. The prisoner gave his name as Harry Burton, said he was twenty-six years of age, and by occupation a cabinet-maker. The police say they have no doubt that Burton was Cunningham's accomplice in causing the Tower explosion. His arrest was accomplished through the aid of the cabman who removed Cunningham's brown trunk of American manufacture from the Prescott Street lodgings, where a brown box of similar shape and size was substituted for it.

Evidence has been found connecting Cunningham with the underground railway explosions, as well as with the Tower of London plot. The description of him tallies almost exactly with the appearance of one of the two men arrested in Halifax on October 17, 1883. They had 100 pounds of powerful dynamite in two valises, together with infernal machines. It was supposed that they intended to blow up the British ship-of-war *Northampton*, then in the harbor. Holmes and Brecken were the men's names. Cunningham is believed to be Brecken, who has assumed the name of a prison friend of his.

Cunningham and Burton were again brought into court on Monday. Much excitement was created by the withdrawal of the charge of conspiracy, and the substitution of high-treason felony. Testimony is to be produced showing that the prisoners were prime-movers in a conspiracy which was hatched in America. After hearing several witnesses, the hearing was adjourned until February 16.

Philip Newbold, the alleged dynamiter who was arrested on January 30 in Derby, Eng., and charged with sending letters threatening to blow up the Town Hall, had an examination on Friday, and it resulted in his being discharged. Nothing of an incriminating nature could be found against him.

THE CAPTURE OF KHARTUM.

Of all the extraordinary things which have happened in this British adventure in the Sudan, the fall of Khartum is the most extraordinary. The place is practically impregnable against the attack of any force which does not command the rivers and has no heavy artillery. It lies on the point of the promontory formed by the junction of the Blue and White Nile, both of them wide and deep streams; and any force which can patrol them to the southward has an indefinite extent of fertile country to draw supplies from. It was reasonably to be expected that, when the Mahdi's rising first began, he would obtain possession of the place through the sympathy of the garrison, who were all Egyptians, Turks, and Circassians. Gordon's reaching the place as he did, alone and unattended, was a surprise to the whole civilized world. His being able to hold it ever since, and keep a Mussulman force faithful to him, a solitary infidel, apparently cut off from the rest of the world by a thousand miles of desert, during a whole year, has been a still greater surprise. Most of the other garrisons which Wolseley's expedition was intended to rescue, had either joined the Mahdi or been captured by him. There seemed to be no good reason why that of Khartum should not do the same thing. As a matter of fact, it did not do it. Gordon, too, had five or six steamers fortified against musketry with planks backed by thin sheets of iron, and manned by faithful and plucky blacks, commanded by Turks, which moved up and down the river at pleasure, and kept the Mahdi from making himself comfortable anywhere on the banks. It was believed that if the worst came to the worst with him, if his supplies began to fail or his men began to waver, he could embark on these steamers and make his way southward to the Congo country. Stanley has said repeatedly that he would have no difficulty in making his escape by that route.

The situation as it now presents itself to the British Government and to Lord Wolseley is well fitted to shake the courage and confidence of the wisest and boldest. Nothing like it in point of difficulty has been encountered by British statesmen since the rising in India in 1857. To retire foiled, leaving not only Gordon but Khartum in the enemy's hands, would damage British military prestige in a way which would exert a very unfortunate influence on the various complications with foreign Powers, and especially the Egyptian complication, in which the Gladstone Ministry is plunged, and would deeply wound the national pride. But the opposite course is one of which Wolseley might well say, as Wolfe said when before Quebec, that "its difficulties are enough to appall the stoutest heart." The Mahdi has come into possession of a considerable quantity of military stores, and of some heavy guns, and of a very strong position; and the success will probably inflame the courage and fanaticism of his followers, and bring large reinforcements to his standard from all the surrounding country. It is well, too, if it do not raise the tribes along the line of Wolseley's communications down the river, and make it for a good while as much as he can do to keep his little force alive in that vast wilderness. The more one examines the problem, indeed, the sorrier one feels for both the statesmen and soldiers who have to solve it.

Mr. Gladstone, in particular, must to-day more than ever long for his well-won repose. What the effect of this event on his Ministry will be, it is almost useless to conjecture, because the extent of popular confidence in Gladstone himself is an unknown quantity, which has of late spoiled all prophecy about his political fortunes. He will, if he remains in power, owe much, however, it is quite safe to say, to the absence on either side of any other man even distantly approaching him in power and resources. He has a people behind him who, more than any other in Europe, make desperate crises easy for their rulers. English courage—the courage never to submit or yield—always rises highest when the days are darkest. It is emphatically what Napoleon called a "two o'clock in the morning courage." But what a warning the whole story of the Sudan against the dangers of a "brilliant foreign policy" is! Disraeli's war in Afghanistan cost enough to have bought out every landlord in Ireland, and have honestly and forever settled the Irish question. This Sudan expedition will, before it is over, cost enough to extinguish pauperism in East London, and give to tens of thousands of starving wretches a chance to start afresh under kindlier skies, to say nothing of the burnt villages and the slaughtered peasants abroad, and of the weeping widows and desolated homes and fatherless children in England.

It is but fair to say for Mr. Gladstone that he is the victim not so much of his own want of foresight as of the popular hindsight. He inherited, but did not originate, the tradition, old as the Indian Empire, that no foreign Power must be allowed to get a foothold in Egypt. When the Khedive piled up an immense debt, mainly held in France, and became unable to pay the interest, and there was imminent danger that the bondholders would force the French Government to take forcible charge of Egyptian finances, Lord Beaconsfield, in obedience to this tradition, proposed in 1879 a joint financial control with France, in order to forestall exclusive French interference. This was the beginning of a series of blunders. It is now plain that it would have been better to take the ground at once that the Egyptians should not be compelled by foreign force to pay a debt contracted by an improvident ruler, any more than any other community, and that the Egyptians had as much right of repudiation as any one else, and should be allowed to exercise it.

Mr. Gladstone thus did not originate the joint control; he inherited it. But, in obedience to the anti-Jingo sentiment which restored him to office in 1880, he did not attempt to alter or extend it. It broke down in 1882 under Arabi's rebellion, which expelled the English and French agents from the country, and put the lives and fortunes of the resident foreigners in danger, and—what was of more importance—threatened the security of the Suez Canal as a means of communication with India. Some European Power was sure to interfere with this state of things if it lasted long. France would have done so if England had not, and English sentiment undoubtedly demanded English interference. What Englishmen wanted, however, was only a little interference—that is, just enough to extinguish Arabi. They did not foresee, when Alexandria was bombarded and the battle of Tell el-Kebir fought, that it would bring the whole fabric of Egyptian government down in a heap of ruins, and that England would in fact, if not in form, have to take charge of the country and administer it.

Here again Mr. Gladstone was careful not to go too far. He set the Khedive up and tried to rule Egypt through Egyptian functionaries. He determined not to try to put down the rebellion in the Sudan, which had carried everything before it, but simply to withdraw the garrisons from that region and let the Sudanese take care of themselves. When Gordon offered to go to Khartum and do it all by his personal influence, he let him go. If it could be done by the risk of one man's life, it was better than by the risk of thousands. He occupied Suakim in order to have a base of operations on the Red Sea, if the occasion for them should arise. When Osman Digna came too near the place at the head of his hordes, in an exultant frame of mind, the British went out and gave him two thrashings, apparently for the purpose of showing him how much harder it would be to deal with them than with the Egyptians, if he chose to make more trouble. Mr. Gladstone tried, when most of the garrisons had surrendered or gone over to the Mahdi, to get Gordon to leave Khartum while he could, and give up an enterprise which was plainly hopeless; but Gordon refused and set him at defiance, and the British public then began to worship Gordon as a plucky martyr, he being clearly a half-crazy fanatic. When everything else was shown to be useless, the present unfortunate expedition was sent to rescue Gordon, with what result we now know.

All through this business, in fact, the Ministry have in their movements faithfully reflected the condition of the English mind, which may be described as one of perpetual halting between two opposing causes. The great bulk of the people have become alarmed at the immense size of the Empire and the weight of expense which it involves, and are opposed to the policy of further extension. But they are equally opposed, in obedience to traditions of which they are very proud, to any curtailment of it. They want it kept as it is, with as little expense as possible, so that they may give their time and strength to home reforms. In order to carry out this sort of policy they put Mr. Gladstone in office. What is now dawning on them is, that it is a policy which neither Mr. Gladstone nor any other man can carry out. An empire so vast, which covers or touches so many barbarous and discontented races, and meets civilized competitors at so many corners of the globe, cannot be made stationary or economical. The smallest disturbance at any point is liable to develop into a war. The smallest movement in defence of either dignity or prestige is likely to make a vast accession of territory a mere measure of self-preservation. It is a policy, in fact, which English Liberals, with their humanitarianism and cosmopolitanism and volunteer army, are utterly unfitted to carry out. They

must be frankly conquerors, or frankly philanthropists. The rôle of the conquering philanthropist is one which is in our time forbidden to a democracy, and a democracy modern England is. Mr. Gladstone is probably about to be sacrificed, laden as he is with years and honor—the greatest statesman of the régime of peaceful progress which any modern country has produced—to the last attempt of the English people to preach the gospel from behind Martini-Henri rifles and Gatling guns. The first really Radical Ministry will have to choose between comfort and imperialism.

THE RAILROAD PROBLEM.

DECIDEDLY the strongest argument that has been advanced in favor of some legal limitation on railroad construction in the United States is to be found in the pamphlet of Mr. Marshall M. Kirkman, of Chicago, entitled 'The Relation of the Railroads in the United States to the People and the Commercial and Financial Interests of the Country.' Mr. Kirkman writes from the standpoint of a railroad man and expert. His aim is to provide that railway property shall yield fair returns to the owners. He finds an obstacle to this in the competition of capital —that is, in the excessive multiplication of lines and in the paralleling of old lines by new ones. If the practice goes on unchecked, no lines can yield fair profits, if indeed any profits. The thing must be stopped for many reasons. It is not for the interest of the community that railroads should become bankrupt any more than that merchants and manufacturers should become bankrupt. But they will be so sooner or later if unlimited competition goes on. The only power that can arrest this agency of destruction is the Legislature. Therefore, it must be invoked to do what European governments do —set bounds to railway building, and allow no new roads to be built except after a fair hearing and determination in each particular case.

The readers of Mr. Kirkman's pamphlet will be impressed by the fervor of his argument and by the copiousness of his knowledge, but will hardly be convinced of the effectiveness of his remedy. Let us take the most glaring illustration which our railway history affords of the evils of unregulated competition—that of the West Shore versus the New York Central. Suppose that the projectors of the West Shore enterprise had been required, four or five years ago, to go before the Legislature, or any railroad commission established by it, to prove that a new road on the west bank of the Hudson River to Albany, and thence to Buffalo, would be a work profitable to the investors and of public utility. If profitable to the investors, its public utility would be taken for granted, because the mere fact of profit in a new line would imply the existence of more traffic than sufficient for the New York Central, and would point to the dangers of monopoly. Would any stronger argument be required by the Legislature than was required by the private individuals who were asked to furnish the money to build the road? Would not the Legislature have concluded at once that if A, B, and C were willing to risk their private means in the enterprise, the State might well afford to risk a charter which costs nothing? Would not the question of the profitable character of the enterprise have been considered as settled and concluded by the very fact that A, B, and C, who had gone over the ground carefully, had become so thoroughly convinced of it that they were ready and eager to put fifty or sixty million dollars into it? These are questions which answer themselves. The Legislature would have granted the charter with far less difficulty than the promoters found in getting the money. Therefore, Mr. Kirkman's remedy is no remedy. Repealing the general railroad law is merely relegating the question to a tribunal which would deal with it very much as it is dealt with now.

The West Shore enterprise has brought its own punishment in the shape of a fine of some thirty million dollars upon the mistaken capitalists who invested their money in it. An equal punishment has been visited upon the New York Central, if the decline in market value of its shares is to be taken as the true measure of the infliction. Both properties together are worth no more, if as much, as one of them was worth three years ago. This is a great evil to the owners of both. Is it an evil to the public? This question cannot be answered off-hand, nor do Mr. Kirkman's numerous and rather voluble arguments furnish a satisfactory answer. It is not helpful to say that—

> "Tariffs can never be reduced below the amount needed to meet expenses and interest on the combined properties. If so reduced, the community thus attempting to relieve itself at the expense of the carrier will suffer greater loss from the stagnation that must ensue from the presence of so large a body of unproductive capital, than would follow the payment by it of rates sufficient to afford the needed money. If the business of a railroad is superabundant and profitable, rates may be reduced within the limits necessary to return a fair rate on the investment, but the reduction must ever be dependent upon these conditions. If a business only able to sustain one line is divided among several, each must receive from it the income required to meet necessary wants, and thus the community, instead of being benefited by the construction of unprofitable roads, must make up the difference between a remunerative and an unremunerative traffic."

It is not true that "tariffs can never be reduced below the amount needed to meet expenses *and interest* on the combined properties." The West Shore Road is a standing proof of the contrary proposition, for its tariffs are a long way below that figure now. It is struggling to meet expenses only. It is not paying interest, and does not expect to do so at present. Nor does the presence of a large body of unproductive *fixed* capital necessarily imply or lead to general stagnation. All the old and disused canals in the country represent unproductive capital, yet they do not cause stagnation. If the builders of the West Shore Road had employed their funds in constructing marble monuments to the heroes of the late war, the same amount of unproductive capital would have been in existence, but it would not have led to stagnation. Again, "If a business only able to sustain one line is divided among several, each *must* receive from it the income required to meet necessary wants," says Mr. Kirkman. There is really no "must" about it, nor is it clear what is meant by "necessary wants." A railroad generally wants all it can get. Its only *necessary* wants are operating expenses. If it cannot get these, it must stop.

The railroad problem is something deeper than Mr. Kirkman imagines. It involves all that we see going on in other branches of business under the law of competition, and something more. Capital badly invested in manufacturing or trading can be transferred. If badly invested in railroads, it can only be lost. An ideal solution of the problem would be the ownership of all railroads by the Government; but the practical realization would be attended with difficulties far greater than any now known, since Congress would forthwith become a "pool" for the adjustment of rates from everywhere to everywhere, and nobody would be satisfied with anything. The railroad question, instead of being a minor part of the political questions of the day, would engulf politics altogether. The nearer Government ownership should come to an ideal state of justice and economy, the nearer would Government approach to the likeness of a despotism, since arbitrary power alone is competent to decide the multifarious and interminable disputes that would arise.

General consolidation, if that were practicable, might yield many of the advantages without the disadvantages implied in Government ownership. Experience has proved that consolidation, so much feared by the public in the beginning, leads to reduction rather than to increase of rates. It enables railways to economize by running no more trains than are needed to do the business. If two trains are sent from New York to Buffalo simultaneously to carry a certain number of passengers, when one train would answer the same end, there is a clear loss of the expense of running one train—a loss which the companies or the public must bear. Therefore, consolidation is economy. But general consolidation, even of the great trunk lines, is impossible. The interests of individuals, of cities, and of sections are too widely variant to permit it. If consolidation and Government ownership are alike impossible, and if legal limitation upon railroad construction is unattainable, there is no alternative but the law of competition and survival of the fittest.

TRAVELLER'S DIARIES.

"ALMOST all books [of travel]," says Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, "are either defective or fabulous. I have observed that the only true intelligence of distant countries is to be had from those who have passed [time in] them, without a design of publishing their remarks." This observation is hardly as accurate now as when it was made, a hundred and thirty years ago; but it is still perhaps true that the less "the design of publishing their remarks" has been in the minds of the writers, the more lively is the interest the remarks excite. The only question is whether any such unconscious mind, such unintentional writer, exists in these days of universal "publishing." And this suggests the thought that a delightful Handbook for Italy (or other countries) might be made by bringing together the observations and impressions of famous and remarkable men and women as recorded in their informal letters and diaries. What could be more entertaining than to travel in company with Petrarch, Montaigne, Milton, Evelyn, Horace Walpole, and Gray, the Président de Brosses and his five "spirituel" companions, Mme. de Staël, Goethe, Shelley, George Sand—the list may be made of any length? It would be talk like that which

was had in Pepys's parlor on that evening of a Lord's day, when "came Mr. Andrews and Hill, and we sung, with my boy, Ravenscroft's 4-part psalms—most admirable musick. After supper, fell into the rarest discourse with Mr. Hill about Rome and Italy: but most pleasant that ever I had in my life." This was discourse Pepys was fond of. He records elsewhere how on another occasion he "lay in bed" with "Mr. Brisband, who is a good scholar and sober man, . . . getting him to give me an account of Rome, which is the most delightful talk a man can have of any traveller; and so to sleep." How one would have liked to read with Pepys Montaigne's incomparable description of Rome!

And even if one were inclined to go back to the far older writers, it would be full of interest to be reminded by this companionable Handbook who had been where—to recall Marcus Aurelius, or Ovid, on the banks of the Danube, and Horace at the spot where

> "Incipit ex illo montes Appulia notos
> Ostentare mihi, quos torret Atabulus. . . ."

Murray's Handbooks attempt in some degree to do this incidentally; but our purpose would be to have quotations and references the only contents of the volume. Mr. Longfellow has collected for us the poetry associated with foreign lands; and some one should arrange the almost more valuable prose which is scattered through many not often opened volumes. These passages would be found full of suggestions from the characters of the writers and the conditions of their times.

But not less noteworthy than what they say about what they observe, is what they do not say and what they do not observe. Goethe, in his diary of his sixteen-days' visit to Venice, makes not even an allusion to—much less gives any slightest description of—St. Mark's and the Ducal Palace, except in so far as he has a paragraph on the four horses, as specimens of Greek art. He had drunk Palladio till he was intoxicated, and could see no piece of architecture truly. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, fifty years earlier, "went to see the ceremony of high mass celebrated by the Doge, on Christmas eve. . . . The Doge's niece (he having no lady) met me at the palace-gate and led me through the palace to the Church of St. Mark, where the ceremony was performed"; but Lady Mary was apparently as one blind, and was alive only to those things which made her "quite satisfied with my treatment in this town"—fêtes, opera-boxes, masked balls, "a magnificent collation" on board the *Bucentaur*, and a regatta, "by far the finest sight in Europe, not excepting our own coronations."

Evelyn, examining, with a scholarly attention equal to and equalled by Goethe's, the same things which Goethe saw a hundred and fifty years later, shows a quicker eye for architecture, which was one of the strongest interests of their sight-seeing days to them both. He was only twenty-three when he set out on his travels, but he, too, had studied (and quotes) Palladio; yet he remarked immediately at Abbeville that "the principal church is a very handsome piece of Gothic architecture," and afterward he discourses more or less well on the various churches, and abbeys, and cathedrals, and other great buildings of France and Italy. Nevertheless, at Venice, "the first public building I went to see was the Rialto. . . . Next day I went to their Exchange; . . . thence my guide led me to the Fondigo di Todeschi, . . . hence I pass'd thro' the Merceria"; then he saw "that admirable Clock, celebrated next to that of Strasburg; . . . and so we enter'd into St. Marc's Church." And "so" he describes it at very considerable length, but concludes: "After all that is said, this Church is in my opinion much too dark and dismal, and of heavy work."

M. de Brosses, in 1739, was of the same mind: "It is a church in Greek style, low, darkened, in miserable taste both within and without, covered with seven domes lined inside by mosaics on a golden background, which make them seem much more like cauldrons than cupolas." And, like Goethe, he was of opinion that the four horses were "the only thing in all this building which is really worthy of admiration." Yet the President was not as thoroughgoing an admirer of Palladio as Goethe. He thought it *en règle* to give him a page at Vicenza—"in talking of Vicenza, one must always say something of architecture and Palladio"; but what he last says is: "After having seen the public works of Palladio, we went to see his own house, where we perceived that in a very small space he had massed together, without, all the architecture possible, and, within, all possible inconveniences."

Lady Mary, on the other hand, was, in her own half-accomplished way, a devout disciple of Palladio. "Is it not enough," she asks, "that I say they are most of them the design of Palladio?" when writing of the palaces at Genoa, of the Strada Nuova—"perhaps the most beautiful line of building in the world." And consequently, at Nuremberg, though she declares herself to have seen "all that is remarkable in this place," it is quite evident that it was impossible—and not less so at Brunswick—for her to see the peculiar effectiveness of the picturesque houses and warehouses.

But "picturesqueness" was an unknown thing in those days. It is difficult to recognize fully, in spite of the now frequent comments on the fact, that, till within the last century, *orderedness*, whether in Art or Nature, possessed the strongest charm for cultivated minds, so that not only was architecture judged by a very different standard from ours, but what we now call "fine scenery" was to travellers in general, and especially to English travellers, "frightful," and merely frightful. Evelyn, describing his passage of the Simplon, speaks of "mounting again thro' strange, horrid, and fearfull craggs and tracts, . . . the horizon being terminated with rocks and mountains, whose tops cover'd with snow seem'd to touch the skies, and in many places pierced the clowdes." Lady Mary was terrified quite as if she were like other women in passing "by moonshine" among the "dreadful rocks" of Saxon Switzerland; while Mr. Wortley was fast asleep by her side. And the best she can say of the ascent of Mt. Cenis is, that "the prodigious prospect of mountains covered with eternal snow, of clouds hanging far below our feet, and of vast cascades tumbling down the rocks with a confused roaring, would have been entertaining to me, if I had suffered less from the extreme cold that reigns here."

Horace Walpole's impression of the four days he was in crossing the Alps by this same pass is conveyed in the exclamation: "Such uncouth rocks and such uncomely inhabitants! My dear West, I hope I shall never see them again. . . . When we came to the top [of Mt. Cenis] behold the snow fallen! and such quantities, and conducted by such heavy clouds that hung glouting, that I thought we never could have waded through them." As the modern traveller is rushed through the tunnel let him remember the discomforts of his precursors over his head. It was the day before wading through these "glouting clouds" that Mr. Walpole "had a cruel accident." He had with him a little black spaniel, "the prettiest, fattest, dearest creature"; suddenly "there darted out a young wolf, seized poor, dear Tory by the throat"—and good-by to poor, dear Tory! Evelyn met with a less tragic but similar loss. At La Charité, on the Loire, "I lost my faithfull spaniel [Piccioli] who had follow'd me from Rome: it seems he had been taken up by some of the Governor's pages or footemen, without recovery, which was a greate displeasure to me because the curr had many useful qualities." It was at this time that "we had the great poet, Mr. Waller, in our companie, and some other ingenious persons."

So one may go on, hither and yon indefinitely, with one or another "ingenious person," through this world of literature—this land of books, this country where, as in Italy herself (as Gray reports Walpole as saying), "Our memory sees more than our eyes." Memory reads between the lines, but the words suggest thoughts that would not otherwise be ours. It is through literature only that "sight-seeing" in Europe becomes a valuable education. It is only a mind imbued with literature that can feel with Goethe, "When one beholds what is two thousand and more years old, so variously and completely altered by the changes of time, yet still the same soil, the same mountains, often, indeed, the same columns and walls, and in the people still traces of the old character, one becomes a boon-companion of the great decrees of Fate."

ENGLAND.—THE PROGRESS OF DEMOCRACY.

LONDON, January 24.

WE have all been reading, this Christmas and New Year, Croker's Correspondence, a book whose value for recent history has been equalled by few publications of this generation. It contains the letters written and received by a man who, though he had been almost forgotten since his death, some twenty years ago, or remembered only as the object of ferocious attacks by Macaulay and Disraeli, played a prominent part in his own time as the trusted friend and adviser of Wellington, Peel, and other Tory leaders, and as the moving spirit of the *Quarterly Review*, whose political and literary force was greater than now, when it has the brisk rivalry of so many monthlies to contend with. These letters give a lively picture of the state of politics and political opinion from 1812 down to 1860. It is a long period, a period full of great events and large changes. One feels how different was the England which Croker left after the Crimean War from that in which his career began during the struggle with Napoleon: how much stronger the middle classes had become, how much weaker the aristocracy and the Crown. Yet the sense of this contrast is hardly so strong as that of the change from 1860 to 1885. Even the later parts of the correspondence read like ancient history, so vast is the interval which seems to separate us from them. Disraeli, who appears there, is but just gone. Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright are still among us, yet the world of Mr. Gladstone's age seems a wholly different world from that of his middle life. Croker and his friends held the rule of the landed aristocracy, the influence of the Crown, the exercise of substantial power by the House of Lords, the maintenance of great landed estates, of the Corn Laws, of the privileges of the Established Church, to be essential to the welfare of England, the extinction of any one of which must bring revolution, anarchy, spoliation, national humiliation in its train. Now, the Crown, except to some slight extent in foreign relations and ecclesiastical appointments, is powerless; the House of Lords dreads the extinction of its power too much to venture to exert such power as it retains; the Established Episcopal Church has been dethroned in Ireland and is menaced in England; the landed aristocracy sees its younger members schooling their tongues to talk the language of democracy. Everybody admits that the mass of the people is henceforth to rule, and nobody ventures publicly to deny that this is the just and

rightful system. The old Toryism is all but extinct among us, and the new Toryism speaks with so many different voices that we cannot yet tell what its programme will be.

To examine the causes which have hurried opinion along so quickly during this quarter of a century will be an interesting occupation for the philosophic historian of the future, who will judge better than one can do now how much is due to general European forces, and how much to the personal action of Mr. Disraeli and Mr. Gladstone, unquestionably the men who have chiefly affected the march of events. My present task is to endeavor to indicate the aspects the democratic movement now wears, and the ideas which animate it.

As respects the control of Government, the masses of the people have now got all they can desire. Numbers reign. The suffrage has been so widely extended that the proportion of the upper and middle classes to the poorer class is extremely small, and the establishment of universal suffrage, though it would increase the number of voters, and would render elections more costly and more uncertain, would make no sensible difference to the relative power of different classes. The humblest class, being omnipotent already, can obtain no further increase of power. Such authority as the upper and middle classes may henceforth exert will depend not on voting power but on social and intellectual influence, on wealth, on their position as employers or landlords. England is, therefore, now a pure democracy in theory, except in so far as the House of Lords may be able to restrain a majority acting through the House of Commons. Now the House of Lords, though in point of law just what it has been for the last three centuries, is practically dead as a restraining power. It may still be able to modify the details of small measures ; it will no longer attempt to arrest large ones.

Not only has our Government become democratic, but people have wakened up to see that such is the fact. The results of the Franchise Bill of 1867 have never been fully felt till now, because the old habits remained, and because the suffrage had still remained restricted in the counties, so that the work of democratization remained incomplete. Now that it has been accomplished over all the country, and that the allotment of seats to population has diminished the influence which rich and locally important men exercised through the small boroughs, men's eyes have been suddenly opened to see where they stand. The result is seen in the new tone adopted toward the masses. Their sovereignty is owned, and they are addressed as sovereigns. As in despotisms where a new king comes to the throne, every one hastens to salute him, and criticism is suspended in the eagerness to obtain his favor, so now we hear little as to the probable merits and conduct of our new rulers, because everybody's wish is to announce his loyalty. There is some little danger that the language of submission may degenerate into flattery, and that candidates in particular may forget, or appear to forget, that the gift of political power does not forthwith make its possessors wise and good, capable of exercising directly those functions which they have hitherto left to the governing classes.

Another result has been the increased activity shown in creating local political organizations. We seem to have now entered the same stage which your people passed through some sixty years ago, in the days of John Quincy Adams, Jackson, and Van Buren, when the right of the citizens not only to elect their magistrates and representatives, but to select the candidates for these offices, became recognized, and was given effect by the general establishment of a nominating machinery of primaries and conventions. The Liberals have led the way in creating local associations in every constituency on a representative basis, and giving to the delegates of these associations the duty of choosing party candidates. The Tories are following suit, though with less willingness to adopt a purely representative system. The object, of course, is to prevent discord within the party, and the consequent waste of its strength in elections. But the result will also be to make the relations of a member to his constituents more intimate than they have hitherto been. In the county divisions he will have a constituency consisting chiefly of laborers and workingmen instead of farmers and shopkeepers, whose wishes he will have to ascertain. In the cities, he will have divisions much smaller than heretofore, with the residents in which he will be able to have more direct intercourse. Hence he will see more of his constituents, they will know him more closely; he will be more apt to cultivate their favor, they more apt to express their wishes to him and narrowly observe his conduct. This may tend to trench upon his independence and turn him into a mere delegate. I do not think it necessarily will, because there is a great disposition in the poorer classes of England and Scotland to follow a man they have once learned to trust, and to follow him all the more because he belongs to the richer and better educated ranks of society. If it does, it will be rather because candidates may wish to grovel than because electors wish to trample.

The evidently good result of the change is, that the interests of the poor will, at least for some little time to come, occupy more of the attention of Parliament than they have done of late years. Already we hear on all sides of the social reforms which the new House of Commons is to carry out. This great constitutional change happens to have coincided with two other grave facts. The one is a serious depression in trade and agriculture, throwing a good many of the poorest out of work, and making the rest uneasy, while it lessens the ability of the wealthier class to help them. Tried by the test of poor-law returns, the distress is not alarming; that is to say, it does not reach the point of starvation, it has not much increased the number of paupers receiving public relief; still, it is sufficient to set the public mind speculating on our industrial future. The other is an increased sensibility to the sufferings of the poor, and a disposition, very marked among philanthropic persons and particularly in the younger generation, to distrust the orthodox political economy with its doctrines of laissez-faire, supply and demand, and so forth. This disposition does not go far in the direction of protection, which would have no importance as a cry but for the desire of one political party to use it for political purposes and for the benefit of the landowners. As the masses of our city population would never consent to tax food, and as a tax on food is the only kind of protection from which any class can expect help, there is no prospect of its becoming a practical question. But the dissatisfaction with the old economics, and the sentimental anxiety to improve the lot of the poor, leads many to turn to the State for help, and some to look tenderly on Socialistic solutions.

With all these notions and feelings fermenting in the public mind, we have grown accustomed to listen quietly to schemes which would have astonished politicians five or six years ago, before the Irish Land Act had shaken all established ideas. Nevertheless, a sensation has been created by the recent deliverances of Mr. Chamberlain, for it is from Cabinet Ministers that suggestions of sweeping change have usually come. He has emphasized the necessity for legislation on behalf of the workers with particular reference to the land, to taxation, and to education. For some years past he has been the leader of the party which seeks to copy your system of universal gratuitous schools—a party which obtains support from those who look on gratuitous education as a means of extinguishing the denominational schools controlled by the Church of England and the Roman Catholics. He has now indicated his view that land escapes its proper share of taxation, and that taxation altogether ought to be thrown more heavily upon the rich, by means apparently of a graduated income tax—a plan for which there is undoubtedly much to be said, but which alarms the rich. He has expressed sympathy with the proposal to compel the restitution of all common lands improperly appropriated during the last seventy or eighty years (I forget the exact time fixed), which is being embodied in a bill by Mr. Collings, one of the most advanced of his Liberal friends, and adds that he does not see why the three F's of the Irish Land Act—fixity of tenure, free sale, and fair rent—should not be applied to English tenancies. These and other forthshadowings of his speeches have been well received by the Radicals, and caused a proportional alarm in the richer and more conservative class, which had scarcely realized that a new social legislative programme must be expected to follow a shifting of political power. What are the main points in such a programme ? No one has yet worked them fully out, but they will probably be the following :

1. Abolition of the law of primogeniture, and such a restriction of the power of tying up either land or personal property as will practically abolish our present law of entail and settlement.

2. Creation of facilities for the acquisition of land by agricultural holders, possibly by a system of loans to small occupiers, and a large development of allotments to laborers.

3. Increased taxation of land, especially by raising the succession duties.

4. A progressive or graduated income tax or property tax, applied to all forms of property.

5. Extension of the powers of local authorities in towns and in rural districts, so as to enable them to provide better dwellings for the poor.

6. Universal gratuitous undenominational education.

7. Disestablishment and disendowment of the established Churches of England and Scotland.

8. Payment of the official expenses of elections out of local taxes.

9. Abolition of the House of Lords.

10. Payment of members of Parliament.

Of these planks in the Radical platform, some are far from being generally accepted even by Radicals. There are, for instance, many who wish to keep up some sort of Second Chamber. There are still more who doubt the expediency of paying members or of graduated taxation. There is, however, no single plank which has not been advocated by some leading and responsible politician, and none which is not likely to be soon warmly debated. Yet most of them would have been ten years ago deemed impractical and purely speculative propositions. The arguments by which many of them are supported—appeals to the "natural rights" of the people, demands that the public funds and public machinery shall be directly used to promote the well-being of the poor, because that is an object of the highest concern—are almost more noteworthy than the propositions themselves. The fabric of English society is so strong that there is no reason to think that it will give way under any strain likely to be put upon it. But a strain there may possibly be, and some Tories, however disposed to condemn Mr. Gladstone as a Foreign Minister, may be heard wishing that the Conservative force which he

exercises in domestic politics could be continued for ten years more, till the new electoral bodies have gained some experience. It is, however, likely enough that the pinch will not come at first—great changes are seldom fully felt at once—but after a Parliament or two, when the masses have better realized their power. Y.

DUMAS'S "DENISE."

PARIS, January 26, 1885.

AFTER "Théodora," which was a mere pleasure for the eyes, we have had "Denise," which is or pretends to be a pleasure for the mind. By a curious and perhaps not unintentional contrast, the new play of Alexandre Dumas, the son, obeys one of the laws of Aristotle, the law of the unity of place. During the four acts, we have exactly the same scenery—an ordinary drawing-room, comfortable enough, too comfortable for the taste of the old *habitués* of the French Theatre. There is especially a palm-tree (the palm-tree of the "Étrangère"), which is decidedly objectionable. However, it is evident that Alexandre Dumas has made a great effort toward simplicity; he desired us to be quietly at home, and to give our whole attention to the play of passion, to the dialogue, and to the moral lesson which he intended to convey.

A moral lesson! The word would seem almost singular to a person totally unacquainted with the present French stage. Still, there is no mistake—Dumas professes to be a moralist. He has discovered morals, and he seems to enjoy his discovery as much as Christopher Columbus enjoyed the discovery of the New World. We must, in one sense, be grateful to him; we must recognize a certain merit in a person who struggles hard in order to discover the laws of morality, who walks in darkness and without the guide of religion or philosophy, and who, born and bred in sensualism, rises with an almost painful effort toward the heights of idealism, of duty, of sacrifice. The road is long, is narrow, is bordered with precipices, and Dumas sometimes falls over them. Can we forget that in his first great play, the "Dame aux Camélias," he idealized vice even more than the Abbé Prévost had dared to do in his 'Manon Lescaut'? The famous verse,

"Et l'amour lui refait une virginité,"

was put in action. For the first time the person of whom the "Dame aux Camélias" is a type, was placed on the stage, was made interesting, and demanded our applause.

Dumas's second great play was an advance on the "Dame aux Camélias." The "Demi-Monde" will probably remain his masterpiece, and will, with the "Gendre de M. Poirier," be looked upon by future generations as a literary monument of our time and of our social state. Here Dumas is much nearer the truth: he has understood that vice leaves marks which nothing can efface; that a certain sort of venality and corruption leaves no place for real purity, real devotion, real virtue. Some things cannot be undone; it is a sad and terrible truth. The heroine of the "Demi-Monde" tries in vain to fall into the common current of domestic felicity, and is thrown aside. The men who have been her accomplices reject her, denounce her, betray her; she is an outcast and must remain an outcast.

The "Demi-Monde" marks the summit, if the expression is permissible, of the morality of Dumas—a morality which is experimental, which is made of tears, of sufferings, of disappointments. Ever since, he has been discussing all kinds of social questions—the position of the natural son, the divorce question. These problems are his natural element. He is essentially a socialist—I mean, a student of social questions. The French Chambers, at their last session, enacted a law reëstablishing divorce, which had been abolished since the Restoration. We have had already many conversions of the *séparations de corps*, which the old law permitted, into complete divorces, which the new law allows. Dumas had lost one of his favorite questions. The time had come to find something new, something stronger. "Denise" is the expression of this continual and almost morbid effort of Dumas toward another social state of things. *Denise* is what the French law sometimes calls brutally a *fille-mère*: she has had a child, has been a mother without being a wife. Of course, there are extenuating circumstances: she was seduced by a young man who had promised to marry her; she was in love with him, she was ignorant, and her very innocence turned against her and contributed to make her guilty. It is a sad case, and alas! a very common case. Her fault has been concealed from everybody, even from her father; her mother alone knows the terrible secret. The young man, the Don Juan, or, as Dumas would call him, the *vibrio*, has abandoned the girl, and has not fulfilled his promise, but he cannot reveal the fatal secret. He is a *vibrio*, a noxious beast, but he pretends to be a gentleman.

Denise enters as governess the house of a gentleman of thirty, who is unmarried and has a young sister. This young sister has just left the convent and needs a companion and a guide. Fate will have it that *Fernand de Thauzette*, the *vibrio*, a young man who only wants to amuse himself, knows *M. Bardannes*, the gentleman who has taken *Denise* into his house. The mother of *M. de Thauzette* is still young. She is a great coquette, who adores her son and wishes to marry him to *Mlle. Bardannes*, who is an heiress. Fate will have it also that this excellent mother has in past times counted *Bardannes* among her lovers. *Bardannes* has no esteem for the young *vibrio*, and he refuses to give his sister to him. *Mme. de Thauzette* becomes very angry, and finally tells him that he ought not to be so severe—that all over the country it is said that he, *Bardannes*, has a mistress; that this mistress is *Denise*, the companion and governess of his sister. *Bardannes* is very indignant, and the wicked mother tells him, "Bah! you would not be the first." She goes out, after having launched this Parthian dart. Not the first! *Bardannes* meditates upon this word. He has suddenly become conscious of two things: he loves *Denise*, and he is jealous of her. Is she pure? Is she guilty? Have appearances deceived him or not? The poison has entered his veins, and Dumas shows him looking round in every direction for something that may make him perfectly miserable.

The lover begins his inquest. He talks with the father of *Denise*, an honest man, an old officer, who became his intendant at the same time that *Denise* became the companion of his sister. He learns that *Denise* and the *vibrio*, the seducer, were educated together, that there had been some question of a marriage between them, but the marriage did not take place, *Denise* was too poor and the *Thauzettes* were too rich. This is not enough; the lover continues his inquest. He presses *Mme. de Thauzette* with questions; this gay lady swears that nothing had ever been so innocent as the love affair of her son and of *Denise*. Even this is not enough; he cross-examines the young seducer himself, and the young man gives him his word of honor that he has never been the lover of *Denise*. It is commonly said that there is but one circumstance in which a gentleman is allowed to lie: he has no right to confess alone a sin which he has not committed alone. *M. Bardannes*, who seems to have very little knowledge of the world, is completely satisfied with the declaration of the young Don Juan; he at once goes to the parents of *Denise* and asks for her hand. He is so happy that he consents at the time to the marriage of his sister with the seducer. So far everybody has concealed the truth: one has lied in the interest of her son, the other in his own interest. The critical moment comes; the only person who will not lie is *Denise*. She learns of the betrothal of *Fernand*, her seducer, to the girl who has been confided to her, at the very moment when *Bardannes* makes his offer to her. "Will you be my wife?" he asks. "No, I am among the women who love, but who cannot marry." *Bardannes* insists: how unhappy will he not be now that his sister is to leave him; he has consented to her marriage with *M. de Thauzette*. "To *M. de Thauzette!*" she exclaims; "the miserable man!" and she tells the whole story—how she was seduced by him, how she had a child, how the child died.

So far the play runs remarkably well. The exposition is very happy: the jealousy of the lover, his inquiry, the cross-examinations—all this is conducted with much art, and the effect produced by the explosion of the truth is very great. *Denise* destroys in a moment what so many lies had prepared. She loves *Bardannes*, as he loves her; but she will not betray him, and she will not allow his sister to be married to the wicked man who has been the cause of her misfortune. If she cannot be called a virtuous woman, she is a truthful woman, and she will not buy with a lie even the happiness of a whole life. It is a great pity that the effect of this fine scene is spoiled by the melodramatic details into which *Denise* enters after her avowal. One word was enough: a nice woman will not tell the man whom she loves all that *Denise* says. It is repugnant to hear her speak of her secret confinement, of the child given to a nurse, of the death of the child, of the cemetery where the poor victim is buried, of the flowers which adorn the little tomb. This is a great defect in taste. *Denise* makes a great sacrifice when she tells the man who is in love with her that she is not what he thought; but it is not in human nature that she should enter into so many particulars.

The drama comes here to its natural conclusion. It is quite clear that the young *Mademoiselle Marthe*, the sister of *M. de Bardannes*, cannot marry *Fernand*, who has seduced *Denise*. The wicked *Fernand* disappears in a cloud of universal reprobation; and *Marthe*, who has not been well satisfied with her first acquaintance with the world, announces her desire to return to her convent. Why should not *Denise* join her and turn her back upon a wicked world? This would be a natural end, and for a moment we are induced to think that things will take that turn. But what would become of the new theory which Dumas wishes to bring before us? A friend of the unfortunate *Bardannes*, who hitherto has had a mere episodic part, comes forward and explains that chastity and purity are as essential to man as to woman. Nevertheless, women do marry men who have not always been pure and chaste; why should not men marry women who have sinned, if they have repented? *Denise* has repented, *Denise* is good, *Denise* is perfect; *Bardannes* will never be happy with another woman, *Bardannes* can and must marry her; and so he does, and there is an end of the piece.

This end produced a sort of consternation the first evening, but the success of the first three acts had been so great that this feeling was, as it were, lost in the enthusiasm which had been kindled. Ever since, each representation becomes the subject of violent discussions: the *fille-mère* question is the talk of the town. Dumas has succeeded in giving an air of possibility to what was always looked upon as impossible. His new code of morality will, I am afraid, not make men more chaste; it may make women less pure.

Correspondence.

MR. MORSE'S HAMILTON AND ADAMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number Mr. George W. Knight has pointed out sundry inconsistencies between views expressed by me in my 'Life of Hamilton,' published in 1876, and views more lately expressed by me in my 'Life of John Adams.' Perhaps the juxtaposition of selected sentences throws these inconsistencies into a more marked antagonism than would appear to exist if the entire chapters should be compared. But this is merely a question of the measurement of the angle; divergencies unquestionably exist between the two books, and more of them than Mr. Knight has mentioned. I was aware of this, and intended to say a few words about it in a preface to the 'Adams'; with this purpose I endeavored to re-read my earlier book on Hamilton, but I must confess that I found it tedious and gave up the task, so that, were it not for Mr. Knight's spur, I should never have moved in the matter at all.

I would like now, however, to say that the 'Life of Hamilton' was written when I was sufficiently near to the glorious period of youth to retain some tendency to hero-worship and to partisanship. My admiration towards Hamilton and his band was unquestionably a little too heavy a weight in the scales, if perfect justice was to be done. In the eight or nine years which have elapsed since the 'Hamilton' was written I have been steadily at work studying that period; as I have added to my years I have also added to my knowledge, and the result is a modification of my previous views. Certainly it would have been discouraging had it been otherwise. I can neither praise nor condemn so unreservedly as I could eight or nine years ago; and I construe the inconsistencies pointed out by Mr. Knight as indications of what I had hoped was the case—a less degree of partisanship, and a capacity for sounder judgment.—I am yours, etc.,

John T. Morse, Jr.

Boston, Mass.

SLIPSHOD LEGISLATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article in the *Nation* of January 29th, on "Slipshod Laws," and in particular what you say of the incompetence of legislative committees, recalls to my mind a bit of my own experience with law-makers, which may be of interest to your readers.

Some years ago I was practising law in Hartford, Conn., and was applied to by the officers of a manufacturing company, organized under the general joint-stock laws of Connecticut, for advice about a difficulty that had arisen in a suit which they were carrying on in another State. The difficulty was owing to a defect in the statute under which they were organized. I gave them such advice as I could, and afterward took occasion to consult with a number of my brother lawyers, several of whom, I found, had met the same difficulty in their practice. The Legislature being then in session in the city, it seemed to me worth while to call their attention to the matter. Accordingly I went to the Chairman of the Committee on Corporations and stated the case to him, and he made an appointment for me to meet his Committee. I appeared before the Committee, explained the present condition of the law, wherein it was defective, and what the injurious effects were, and was going on to state briefly what changes seemed to be needed, when the Chairman interrupted me: "Have you a draft of a bill?" "No," I replied. "To draw exactly such a bill as is needed would take some little time and trouble, which I do not just now feel able to give to a matter that does not especially concern me." "If that is the case," he said, "we can't do anything about it." I ventured to suggest that I had supposed that to prepare needed laws on the subject of corporations was one of the very purposes for which the Committee was constituted; but the Committee refused to entertain the subject, saying that they could not undertake to draw the bill. So nothing wa done at that time to amend the law, nor, so far as I know, until now.

I am not finding any fault with the Committee; probably they were right. But as an illustration of the working of our law-making machinery, look at the absurdity of the thing. There was a Legislature elected and paid for the express purpose of making necessary laws, and there was a committee of that Legislature expressly appointed to take charge of the subject of corporations. A plain defect in that branch of the law, which no one denied to be such, apparent on its face to be due to a mere omission or oversight of some previous Legislature, continually causing trouble and expense to citizens of the State, was pointed out to them, which could be corrected by a short and simple bill requiring no more than a few hours' work of some competent person to prepare; and yet they at once gave up the task as out of their power.

The truth is that, while the people at large, or a Legislature chosen by and representing them, are quite competent to lay out the broad lines of policy upon which the Government is to be carried on, and to say in general what means shall be used to attain their ends (and that they do so, and that such a Legislature have power to pass upon any bill before it becomes law, is essential to free government), the details of measures often require to be worked out by experts; and this is getting to be more and more necessary with the increasing complications of modern life. When old Peter Stuyvesant thrust his watch into the face of a popular orator, and asked him if he could repair it, and, on the man's answering that he could not, as he had not learned the trade of watchmaking, demanded of him how then he presumed to meddle with affairs of administration, which required vastly more knowledge and skill than mending watches, when he had never learned that business—he used an argument which, though if pushed to its extreme it would militate against all free government, has in it a quantum of solid truth.

There ought to be in every State a small council, of which the Governor and chief executive officers of the State should be *ex-officio* members, whose business it should be to prepare drafts of laws and present them to the Legislature, or to whom the Legislature could refer bills for consideration and revision as now to legislative committees. In preparing bills, they should work quietly and at their leisure through the year, and not have to hurry their work through during the few weeks of the actual session. Its members, except the Governor, should have seats in the Legislature with the right to speak but not to vote.

The expense of such a council would be partly, perhaps wholly, saved in the shortening of the sessions of the Legislature; perhaps by the abolition of one of the houses. With such a council, it may be that a second chamber in the Legislature would not be needed.

It may be remarked that the plan of a council and one legislative house would not be the plan which Mr. Bancroft very truly says in his 'History,' has failed wherever tried, of a council to propose and a Legislature to ratify. The failure in such cases comes from the struggle of the Legislature to obtain the power of originating bills. But it is not proposed to take this powe away from the Legislature, but only to confer it upon the council. H. T. Terry.

New York, 20 Nassau St., February 3, 1885.

GENERAL LOGAN AND HIS "MACHINE" IN ILLINOIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Had the *Nation* advised the Republicans of New York that the future of their party depended upon the success of Tom Platt and his Machine, some of its readers could not have been more surprised than they were to find it counselling the Republican members of the Illinois Legislature to stand by General Logan under all circumstances. Both shining ornaments of the same political school, Logan in Illinois, like Platt in New York, had been hoist by his own petard. It is doubtless true, as you suggest, that General Logan did not want to be Vice-President, but preferred to remain a Senator if he could not be President. But it is not plain, and considering the "dicker" in the Convention and before, it is probably not true, that he did not want the nomination for the Vice-Presidency. He preferred the Vice-Presidency to nothing, and he preferred to take his chances for that office rather than tempt the greater hazard of a Senatorial contest; and, finally, neither he nor his friends overlooked the value of a nomination that apparently eliminated him for the time being from State politics, in enabling them to cast an anchor to the windward by covertly working up his campaign for the Senate against a possible national defeat.

The nomination of Blaine, while it made the defeat of the national ticket a foregone conclusion, did not lose the Legislature of Illinois to the Republicans. Nor was it lost to them even when the national ticket was further weighted down by the nomination of the most conspicuous representatives of the spoils system yet remaining in public life. It was finally lost to them because the Logan Machine decreed that those who refused to join in the folly of Logan's boom for the Presidential nomination must be punished. They were punished accordingly, and the loss of the Republican majority in the Legislature is the direct result.

After the election those Republicans who innocently supposed that for one campaign at least the hand of the candidate for the Vice-Presidency would not be seen in State politics, awoke to find that he had all the time been carefully guarding his communications, and that with thrifty foresight his lieutenants had quietly manipulated enough of the districts to give him a majority of the legislative caucus.

It is under such circumstances that General Logan—unless he is belied by the uncontradicted press despatches—tells the Republican legislators that he feels that he ought not to be asked to take the caucus nomination unless with the understanding that he shall not be asked to give place to another. Having by his methods wiped out the Republican majority, so that the Legislature will stand a tie on a joint ballot, he gives notice to a caucus already so "fixed" as to be only a registrar of his decrees, that unless he can be elected no Republican shall be.

If under such circumstances the party cannot abandon him without producing widespread demoralization, what, on the other hand, can be said of the present *morale* or probable future of a party that tamely submits to such dictation from such a source? Joseph Robbins.

Quincy, Ill., January 31.

[We have no knowledge of the composition of General Logan's Machine, but we presume that General Logan has availed himself of all the op-

portunities that the spoils system created. We have some knowledge of Machines in general, and of Mr. Platt's in particular. A Machine exists by virtue of "patronage." When the patronage is withdrawn the Machine falls to pieces. This is what happened to Mr. Platt's Machine when it was put to the test at Albany a short time ago. It collapsed for want of fuel and oil. The rival candidates for the Senatorship, Mr. Morton and Mr. Evarts, had to rely upon their merits and qualifications for the office, and of course in any such contest Mr. Evarts was sure to win. The election of Cleveland has done for Logan's Machine just what it has done for Platt's. The one is as short of fuel and oil as the other. General Logan must win, if he wins at all, on his individual merits. The fact that the Republicans in the Legislature adhere to him after his Machine has been disestablished, is evidence to the people of other States that he is considered the man worthiest of their support, either with or without the aid of Federal patronage.—Ed. Nation.]

THE DOG IN GREEK AND PHŒNICIAN RELIGION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Revue Critique* of December 15 has a note by M. Clermont-Ganneau relating to the subject rather stirred up than treated by myself in the *Revue Archéologique* of last September (p. 129 and foll.), and which has been very ably discussed by Mr. Merriam in your issue of January 8. Mr. Merriam, and M. Clermont-Ganneau likewise, quote the passage of Ælian ('Nat. Anim.,' XI, 20), concerning the "sacred dogs" attached to the Sanctuary of Adranus. The French scholar writes, in close conformity with your correspondent: "If there really existed a primitive type of Æsculapius as a dog, would it not be convenient to seek the origin of this conception in the figured representations of Egyptian art? It is not impossible that Anubis with his jackal's head—easily confounded with a dog's head, *latrator Anubis*—has something to do with this dog-like Æsculapius." M. Clermont-Ganneau has, moreover, brought forward two interesting passages belonging to Latin literature. The first one is by Festus: "Canes adhibentur ejus (Æsculapii) templo, quod is uberibus canis sit nutritus." The second one is by Tarquitius, quoted by Lactantius ('De falsa religione,' I, 10): "Ait incertis parentibus natum, et a venatoribus inventum, canino lacte nutritum." As M. Clermont-Ganneau observes, these two passages establish a closer connection between the god and the animal than the short legend of Pausanias (II, 26, 4), which I had previously quoted.

Again, Bochart (Opera, I, col. 663) has proposed to derive the name of Asklepios from the Hebrew *ich-kalbi*, "the man-dog." The same etymology had occurred to me, but I dared not mention it on account of the phonetic difficulties it would involve. I have since observed that in a very old Corinthian inscription (Roehl, 'Inscriptiones antiquissimæ,' No. 549), the name of the god is written *Aischlabios*, a form certainly very similar to the Semitic prototype proposed by Bochart.

My learned friend, M. Hartwig Derenbourg has drawn my attention to several other Semitic texts which are certainly of great importance to the question. In a Phœnician inscription from Cyprus ('Corpus inscriptionum semiticarum,' I, No. 49), we find a man named *Kelbelim*, viz., "dog of the gods," or "dog of god." In another inscription from Cyprus ('Corpus,' I, No. 52), a man is named *Kelba*, which is likewise the name of his grandfather. According to M. Renan, the name means "Canis Ejus, id est canis Dei." The Biblical *Kaleb* certainly belongs to the same series. In 1 Samuel, xxv, 3, the Greek version of the Bible has *anthropos kynikos* for the ethnical name *Kalebi*. On the whole, the documentary evidence derived both from Semitic and classical literature goes to uphold the opinion I expressed as to the religious importance of the dog in Greek and Phœnician religion.

I am glad to see that my short note in the *Revue Archéologique*, which was very far from exhausting the question, has induced some able scholars to state their own judgment on the matter, thus introducing a new element in the history of animal worship and in the study of comparative mythology. Salomon Reinach.

Paris, January 20, 1885.

PRIVATE OWNERSHIP OF FORESTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article on the "Private Ownership of Forests," in No. 1021 of the *Nation*, you argue that the Adirondack forest will stand a better chance of preservation if placed under State control. In support of this, you allege that there is imminent danger that forest fires will follow lumbering operations as now conducted by private owners; that these fires will spread from the clearings made for farms on the borders; that this danger will be largely increased in the near future by cutting the hard-wood lumber to meet a rapidly increasing demand for that commodity; and that the agricultural settlers are responsible for the desert belt swept clean of vegetation and soil by fires.

No one will deny that these dangers menace forests generally. But it can be shown that these dangers are minimized or made innocuous by the exceptional meteorological conditions of the Adirondack region. It is well established that the lower temperature of mountainous regions arrests, condenses, and precipitates the atmospheric moisture constantly rising from lower, warmer levels, thereby increasing the rainfall in the higher plane. The rainfall of the slightly mountainous lake region of the west of England is nearly double that of the flatter eastern shore. Last autumn, at the very time that men and other animals were dying from the want of water, or from drinking the impure dregs of it from the desiccated springs in the lower parts of West Virginia, I encountered almost daily showers in the magnificent forests that crown the Alleghenies in that State, and roads too muddy for comfortable locomotion. The humidity of the Adirondacks is even greater. During the great drought of last summer and the summer of 1883, when vegetation suffered for the want of rain in other parts of this State, there was but one week in the Adirondacks that it did not fall, and many weeks when shower and sunshine alternated each day.

Instead of their fires spreading into the dank woods, the settlers rarely find their "follows" dry enough to burn well. I have long been a close observer of these matters, and have gathered information from many available sources. I have found no trustworthy evidence that any of the great conflagrations that have swept over the desert belts and marred the beauty of the North Woods can be traced to the causes you adduce. They were caused by forces more potent than a State board of control, and less conservative than the most reckless private owner—viz., the elements, of which the wind is primary. While the lumberman selects and cuts only the mature marketable trees, not exceeding one-tenth of the whole, the hurricane uproots and prostrates all within its vortex, large and small. After a year or two ferns and wild grasses grow up on the southern exposures of these wind slashes, and die down annually, furnishing a tinder-box and vehicle for a spark from a passing thunder cloud or from a smoker's pipe. Fortunately the percussion-cap has minimized the danger from the sportsman's gun. Tornadoes of more or less force are frequent in the North Woods. As I write, I can see from my window the south side of a small mountain that was bereft of its trees by the violent tornado that swept through the wilderness on September 20, 1845, from Lake Ontario to Lake Champlain, more than a hundred miles, leaving a swath half a mile wide, as sharply defined and as cleanly cut as that of a mower. A thrifty new growth of trees cover the northern exposures, while the periodical burning of the ferns and sedge has kept the south side treeless for forty years, and will until the land comes under some kind of cultivation or protection. If the grasses were cut and destroyed before they matured, the land would soon be afforested.

Some of the desert belts are due to another casualty—one less imminent, but more deplorable than the hurricane, and equally independent of conditions, except, I think, it may be said that the very dangers you deprecate serve to mitigate its effects. It is a fire in a standing forest of resinous trees. Once started it leaps from conifer to conifer with electric speed, irresistible and insatiate, until it has consumed all the food within the flight of its winged torches. Nordenskiöld, in his 'Voyage of the *Vega*,' in describing one of the pine forests that he discovered on the Yenisei within the Arctic Circle, says "it is of enormous extent, a primeval forest nearly untouched by the axe, but in many places desolated by forest fires."

I am not writing in the interest of private owners, nor against State control, but rather in defence of the former—a worthy class, who have been most unjustly assailed—not in your columns but through other channels, which have not been accessible to them; and that the facts of the matter may be known and discussed upon their proper basis, one worthy of the cause and the dignity of the State. Let the advocates of the latter admit, as you do in your recent article, that private owners have some rights (and I will add, feelings) that should be respected, and their transfer accomplished, if at all, in an honorable and businesslike manner. Most writers on this prolific subject seem to think there is something to be gained by holding up the men who have the energy and think they have a chance to recoup a small percentage of the money they have paid in taxes, as enemies of the present, and defrauders of future, generations.

The history of land ownership in northern New York is not lighted up with many cheerful rays. It is one of disasters bracketed with broken hopes. Three generations have passed away since Alexander McComb (father of General McComb, U.S.A., obit 1841) purchased about 4,000,000 acres of the State at 8d. per acre, and ruined himself and parceners financially thereby. His patents covered much of the land that has since reverted to the State for taxes, and much of that which the State is now urged to acquire. A tract of it of 250,000 acres was purchased by John Brown, the patron of Brown University, R. I., and a similar tract by the French refugees of 1789 for colonization, the latter hoping to resume the manorial dignity they had lost at home. But fate or the climate was against them, and all was lost. Some of the refugees of the Second Empire essayed likewise with like result. Joseph Bonaparte, ex-King of Spain, bought a large tract and occupied it, mostly for a hunting lodge, I imagine. The last and perhaps the most romantic colonizing scheme was that of the late Gerrit Smith. He offered to give a farm of fifty acres on the bleak hills of Essex County to poor whites

and all the passengers by the Underground Railroad from the sunny South, who would settle upon it. It came to naught, of course. The rough granite boulder placed over the moulder-ing body of old John (Ossawottamie) Brown fittingly marks his grave and that of the colony.

There are good reasons why this territory should become a public domain. What the State does not already possess can be acquired at a comparatively low price. The timber that should be taken out annually to keep it in its best condition would pay the cost of superintendence. There is not another such tract of primeval forest east of the Alleghanies—perhaps not east of the Rockies. It is within a day's journey of a hundred cities. Its hypersthenic basins retain the virgin water of several hundred lakes and lakelets, the fountains of the five principal rivers of the State, which, over and above their commercial utility, if tapped above or before they are polluted by the sewage of manufacturing establishments and the surface drainage and ordure of fertilized land, will furnish a never-failing supply of pure water (free from the infusorial germs that generate disease), that can be carried by gravity to the cities of the valleys and plains, even to the city of New York. The region is unique in almost every respect. Its grandeur is unsurpassed; it is unequalled as a hygienic and ferial resort. It is the most elevated and conspicuous exposition of the oldest rock formation (the Azoic) on the face of our globe. It is the habitat—one might say the asylum—of what is left of our wild animals. ADDISON CHILD.

CHILDWOLD, NEW YORK, February 5, 1885.

MR. CLARK RUSSELL'S SEAMANSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is no need of any poetical license whatever in order to have a whale killed off the Yorkshire coast. The right whale *has* occurred there, and several of the finback and humpback species are found in the German Ocean. If my memory is not treacherous, it was a finback that was killed by Tom Coffin. It was also a smallish whale, and it would be quite possible to kill such an one by a single fortunate stroke of a harpoon. The shoal of sharks *is* poetical license, the species that swarm in the Arctic around the dead whales rarely reaching so far south as Great Britain. Mr. Russell had best look well to his own seamanship.—Very respectfully, L.

WASHINGTON D. C., February 6, 1885.

MISCEGENATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In corroboration of "Bill Arp's" view, referred to in No. 1020 of the *Nation*, that negroes, as a race, do not desire to "mix" with the white race, I may cite a remark recently made by a negro carpenter to a friend of mine. The latter said to him, as a village belle passed them on the street, "Charles, don't you think that's a very handsome young lady?" "I reckon so," he answered, doubtfully, and immediately added, "Fact is, boss, us colored folks don't think white ladies handsome; we like 'em colored the best."

Had it been otherwise there would, doubtless, have been innumerable instances, in the North as well as at the South, of love-longings on the part of negro men toward girls of the dominant race. Yet during all the years I have spent in the Southern States I never knew or heard of any instances of this kind, and their exceptional character in the North must be known to all your readers. The hopelessness of such attachments would, of course, diminish their number, but fancy is always free, and "hopeless attachments" among members of the same race are as common now as when Petrarch sighed for Laura, and Tasso wrote, "The throne of Cupid hath an easy stair," himself having climbed it uninspired by hope. The existence of many persons of mixed blood throughout the country affords no proof that the two races feel toward each other the attraction of love; for the fathers, in these cases, are almost invariably white, and the offspring cannot be called "love-children," but the fruit of mere passion linked with opportunity.

SUE HARRY CLAGETT.

PORTLAND, OREGON.

Notes.

THE Dunlap Society is the name assumed by a number of students of the American stage, in honor of William Dunlap, the first historian of that stage, as well as early dramatist and manager. Its aim is to unite those interested in American dramatic history, to publish books and pamphlets throwing light upon it, and to collect the portraits of American actors, etc., and from time to time to issue engravings of them. The paging of the pamphlets will lend itself to separate or collective binding. The Society will hold an annual meeting in January of each year, at which there will be an exhibition of MSS., books, portraits, autographs, play-bills, and other curiosities. The annual dues will be five dollars; and the publications of the Society, eight of which are already announced, will not be for sale. The Secretary of the Executive Committee is Mr. Brander Matthews, 121 E. 18th Street; the Treasurer, Mr. Thomas J. McKee, 338 Broome Street.

A biography of the late Thomas G. Appleton, by Miss Susan Hale; and 'Selections from the Prose Writings of Jonathan Swift' (in the Parchment Series), are announced by D. Appleton & Co.

Ginn, Heath & Co. will publish on March 1 'An Introduction to the Study of the Compounds of Carbon, or, Organic Chemistry,' by Professor Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University.

E. P. Dutton & Co. publish shortly 'Grandfather,' a story, by E. C. Phillips; 'My Friends,' an autograph album; and 'The Beauty of the King, or Daily Food for the King's Household,' an illuminated book.

'Samuel Gobat, Bishop of Jerusalem, His Life and Work,' is in the press of Thomas Whittaker.

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'Selections from the Poems of Lord Tennyson,' edited, with notes, by Francis Turner Palgrave (in the "Golden Treasury" series); 'Autobiographical Memoirs,' by the late Mark Pattison; a 'History of the University of Oxford from the Earliest Times to the Revival of Learning,' by H. C. Maxwell Lyte; 'Overpressure,' by Dr. Hertel; and 'Twelve English Statesmen,' edited by John Morley. They will also place on the American market a translation of 'Don Quixote,' by John Ormsby, translator of the 'Cid,' and an 'Elementary Text-book of Zoölogy,' by Prof. W. Claus, in two volumes.

Dr. D. G. Brinton, Philadelphia, has in press, as the fifth volume of his "Aboriginal American Literature," 'The Lenâpé and Their Legends, with the Complete Text and Symbols of the Walam Olum, a New Translation, and an Inquiry into its Authenticity,' by Dr. Brinton himself.

The Appletons bring out (as vol. 48 of the International Scientific Series) the 'Origin of Cultivated Plants,' by Alphonse de Candolle, in an English translation. The original French appeared in 1882, and is well known and appreciated in all scientific circles. The English translation, though tardy, is welcome, and will much extend the usefulness of this standard work. It does not appear to have been reëdited, except by the addition of two or three notes, referring to an elaborate review of the volume in the *American Journal of Science*, in which Mr. J. Hammond Trumbull brought out a portion of his full and well-digested store of knowledge respecting aboriginal cultivations in America.

Funk & Wagnalls have reissued the 'Memoirs of the Rev. David Brainerd,' based on Dr. Dwight's improvement on Jonathan Edwards's Life of the missionary to the Indians. We cannot praise the workmanship of this volume.

"No Sect in Heaven," on the other hand, a trifle in verse, by Mrs. E. H. J. Cleveland, has been revived by Geo. H. Buchanan & Co., Philadelphia, and very prettily printed, with an ambitious label, the "Library Edition."

"The manufacture of a beautiful and durable book costs little if anything more, it is believed, than it does to manufacture a clumsy and unsightly one." With this axiom Mr. Henry Stevens, of Vermont, opens a discourse on the causes of deterioration in fine bookmaking in England—the making not of *éditions de luxe*, but of ordinary publications, in which the publisher, the printer, and the binder have observed the highest rules of the typographic art, and sought to produce an object beautiful in itself without respect to its contents. 'Who Spoils Our New English Books?' is Mr. Stevens's question, and the title of the quaint little book (London: Henry Newton Stevens), embodying a paper read some two years ago before the Library Association at Cambridge, England. He enumerates ten guilty parties—"sinners," as he calls them—and examines in detail the shortcomings of each. The volume is itself intended to illustrate what taste and skill may do for a book, and is noticeable for its exemplification of the rules that "the length of a printed page should have relation to its width, and that the top should not exceed half the bottom margin, and that the front should be double the back margin." Also, pagination is entirely dispensed with. The public (or "consumer") cannot learn a great deal from Mr. Stevens's text toward self-improvement, but authors, publishers, and printers may receive a wholesome stimulus from this review of their negligence or ignorance.

The Author is one of Mr. Stevens's ten sinners, and he sins by insisting on having his own way about the typography of his book against the experience of the publisher. This may account for the singular and unprepossessing style of the Harpers' American edition of the new 'Life of George Eliot,' by Mr. J. W. Cross, who certainly dictated the marginal contrivance for distinguishing the letters to different persons strung along one after the other with no other distinction. We are surprised that this margin, which is indeed essential, is wholly dispensed with in the Franklin Square Library edition of the same work.

Mr. Geo. Wm. Harris writes from the Library of Cornell University to the *Library Journal* to expose sad blundering on the part of the publishers of Victor Hugo's complete works—the "édition définitive d'après les manuscrits originaux," in forty-six volumes. The "Légende des Siècles" was begun in vol. vii, which contained the first volume of this poem, and did not reappear till vol. x, which contained the fourth volume. The second and third volumes have yet to be heard from.

One of the most valuable and, in its general text, readable volumes of the Tenth Census series is vol. ix, on the Forest Trees of North America. Prof. C. S. Sargent has here scientifically catalogued and indexed the trees in question; tabulated their worth as fuel and as material for construction, with their behavior under strain, under compression, etc.; and discussed them tho-

roughly in their economic aspects, showing the extent of the lumber industry, consumption for various purposes, destruction caused by fire (estimated at more than $25,000,000 during the Census year). In this last division the entire Union is gone through with, State by State, and our country press could do no better service than by reprinting such portions as relate to their respective localities. Maine is the only State, apparently, which has begun forest conservancy. The number of colored maps is large (38), but in addition a portfolio accompanies the volume containing sixteen beautiful forest maps of the Continent and of the United States.

From Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, we have the nineteenth annual edition of their 'Bankers' Directory and List of Bank Attorneys,' a well-printed volume, full of information conveniently tabulated and indexed, and well provided with maps.

Under the title of "Contes Choisis" Mr. William R. Jenkins has begun a handy and attractive little series, beginning with Daudet's 'Le Siége de Berlin,' etc., and About's 'La Mère de la Marquise.'

The Harvard University Bulletin for January begins a classified index to the maps contained in the publications of the Royal Geographical Society and in associated serials (viz., *Ocean Highways* and its discontinued sequel, the *Geographical Magazine*), by Richard Bliss, of the Redwood Library, Newport, R. I.

The Harvard Overseers have finally declined to adopt the report of a committee favoring the printing of the Quinquennial Catalogue in English, a reform which it is difficult to resist in seriousness, unless (for the present year) the element of time enters in. Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., was naturally placed on this committee, whose report, perhaps to be ascribed to his colleague, Mr. John O. Sargent, has been printed in pamphlet form. Mr. Wm. H. Tillinghast, by the way, of the Harvard Library, is to undertake the editing of the great Catalogue in place of Mr. Sibley, as we learn from the Bulletin.

The Proceedings of the American Philological Association at its sixteenth annual session at Hanover, N. H., last July, have been printed in their customary modest shape.

The two initial papers of the American Historical Association have also appeared, from the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons. They contain the proceedings of the organization, a list of members, etc., etc.

A list of the historical societies of the United States in the *Magazine of Western History* for February (lacking those in Ohio) will be found useful.

We have received Dr. Asa Gray's memorial tribute to the late veteran botanist, George Bentham, a reprint from the *American Journal of Science;* and a handsomely printed discourse in German on Dr. Francis Lieber, by F. W. Holtz, delivered in December last before the Deutscher Gesellig-Wissenschaftlicher Verein in this city (E. Steiger). The latter is accompanied by the familiar portrait of its subject.

Surgeon George M. Sternberg, U. S. A., comes to the defence of Dr. Koch against Prof. Ray Lankester, in the matter of the much-disputed *comma bacillus* of cholera, in *Science* for February 6. His drawings of the bacillus from a slide furnished by Dr. Koch differ greatly from Prof. Lankester's in *Nature* for December 25, 1884.

Prang & Co. have sent us an assortment of Valentines ranging from an ingenious decorated fan with easel support and perfume sachet—a charming toilette object—down to the slightest work in chromo printing which hard times could drive any lad or lass to be content with. A series of these minor missives, carrying flower groups or single flowers, are very successful in rendering the qualities of water-color work, and some are hardly to be distinguished from the real drawings. Among the more elaborate are some pretty bird subjects, nesting and mating. Of the silk-fringed series two classical designs by W. H. Low are noteworthy.

White, Stokes & Allen publish for the same anniversary one of their well-known booklets, 'Songs of the Roses, a Valentine,' with four full-page chromos of roses and appropriate poetical extracts.

General Faidherbe, whose long service on the west coast of Africa has made his opinion of great weight in all matters relating to that country, enters a vigorous protest against the claim of the English to the sole control of the lower Niger, in the *Revue Scientifique* for January 17. He says that in November, 1884, there were three companies, two French and one English, trading upon the river, having some thirty vessels and sixty stations. In that month the English company bought out its two French rivals, and now remains in undisputed possession of the European traffic. This, however, urges the General, was a purely commercial transaction, and should not be held to confer exclusive rights for the future. Stranger still does he regard the pretensions of the Berlin Conference to regulate the commerce and navigation of the upper Niger. This conflicts with the rights of the three independent and powerful chieftains through whose territory the river flows. The interests of the French also, he considers, are seriously threatened. After repeated efforts, and with a considerable loss of men and at an expense of thirty millions of francs, they have at length obtained a foothold on the upper waters of the river, only to find restrictions placed upon their intercourse with the people.

Five more sheets of the great Atlas of Attica, in process of making under the auspices of the German Archæologic Institute, have just been published by Dietrich Reimer, Berlin. These embrace the square districts designated as Vari (continuing the coast line of the Saronic Gulf), Spata (inland), and Raphina, Perati, and Porto Raphti, in the Eubœan Sea. This series makes nearly complete the belt of the peninsula from sea to sea, lying between 37° 54′ and 38° N. lat., and embracing Athens and its port. The text which should have accompanied it is reserved till the eastern Attic group is further advanced by the mapmakers. It would be superfluous to praise the execution either of the survey or of these topographic, political, and archæological delineations of classic soil.

A very thin veil of pseudonymity covers the authorship of 'Reiseeindrücke und Skizzen aus Russland, von Th. von Bayer*' (*sic*, with an asterisk), a volume of more than 600 pages, just published by Cotta in Stuttgart. The publisher is allowed to advertise it as the work of "an authoress, a member of a German princely house distinguished for its cultivation of art and science"; and Friedrich von Hellwald, in a most eulogistic review of it in the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, believes he commits "no indiscretion in betraying the secret that Th. v. Bayer* is a lady of the house of Wittelsbach"—that is, a Bavarian Princess. After mentioning this "der Autor" becomes "die hohe Verfasserin." This august personage is thus apparently the young aunt of the reigning King of Bavaria, Therese (von Bayern), born in 1850. Her book comprises travels through a large portion of European Russia, and is not only descriptive of impressions and sights, but is ethnographically interesting. The enraptured reviewer tells us that the traveller prepared for her journey by ten years' studies of the Russian language, literature, and history.

The *Revue Critique* protests against the course of the publishers of "La Verdadera Ciencia Española," a series of works of Spanish authors, issued at Barcelona under ecclesiastical patronage, in seizing upon a Spanish relation of the war in the Palatinate in 1620, first published from a manuscript in the Bibliothèque Nationale by H. A. Morel-Fatio, and reissuing it with all his notes and identifications of personal and local names without giving him the least credit, and then impudently putting upon the back of the title-page the notice: "This book is the property of the publishers, who reserve all their legal rights."

It is astonishing that things which lie directly under people's noses can be overlooked so long. Here have innumerable sanitary reformers been preaching for a generation on the evil effects of turning sewage into rivers, and agricultural enthusiasts claiming that it ought to be turned on to the land, and reproaching us with the waste of letting so much good manure go out to sea; and here comes Mr. John Lawes to tell us, in a long letter to the *Times*, that the present plan is the most remunerative, because it largely increases the production of fish, provided it is sufficiently diluted and does not interfere with their health. It supplies in large quantity the chemical ingredients—nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash—which are needed by fish, and, by entering into their composition, make their flesh so nourishing to man. In other words, as swill is poured into troughs for pigs, so sewage should be poured into rivers for fish. People who think pork fit for food may like this idea of sewage-fed fish; but it is hard to see why they should despise the Chinese for eating rats and dogs, and why they should object to cats in the sausages.

The English magazines continue to pay a large and increased attention to the stage. In recent reviews Lord Lytton praises Miss Mary Anderson's *Juliet*, and Mr. F. C. Burnand sets forth his views as to the status of the actor. In the February *English Illustrated* Mr. H. A. Jones's lecture on "The Dramatic Outlook" is concluded; it is a sensible and solid plea for serious work on the stage. Unfortunately it is disfigured by a most ludicrous series of theatrical caricatures—that of Signor Salvini as *Othello* being a masterpiece of unconscious burlesque. In the February number of the *Magazine of Art* there is an admirable criticism of the acting of M. Coquelin, the great comedian of the Comédie-Française, who is to visit us next January. It is the work of Mr. W. E. Henley. He calls M. Coquelin the first of living actors—with the exception of Signor Salvini.

—The printing of the Archives of Maryland goes on with as great speed as is compatible with the difficulties of transcribing and scrupulous printing. The second volume has been for some months in our hands, and merits in all respects the praise bestowed upon the first. It embraces the proceedings of the two houses of Assembly from April, 1666, to June, 1676. The quaint style of the record is much enhanced by such entries as, "Then came a Member from the Lower House with two Acts One of them Entituled an Act against Hogstealers & the other an Act Entituled an Act for building a prison at St. Marys." As in the previous quarter of a century, so in this decade, runaways gave the greatest trouble to the legislators, and were the occasion of oft-recurring statutes. The Marylanders wished to part neither with their servants nor with criminals or debtors, so that persons intending to quit the province were required to post their names for three months at the Secretary's office. "An Act for the Encourageing the Importacõn of Negros and Slaues into this Province" (Mar.-Apr., 1671) premises that the importers of these classes "haue to the great displeasure of Almighty God and the prejudice of the Soules of those poore

people Neglected to instruct them in the Christian faith or to Endure or permitt them to Receive the holy Sacrament of Babtisme for the Remission of their Sinns upon a mistake and vngrounded apprehension that by becomeing Christians they and the Issues of their bodies are actually manumited and made free and discharged from their Servitude and bondage." So the statute declares that Christianity is no bar to slavery, and that negroes and their issue must reconcile the two as best they can. This was no new doctrine, as witness the act of March, 1638-39, on behalf of "all the inhabitants of this province being Christians (slaves excepted)." There was trouble also with the Indians, whom it was not easy to distinguish one from another. The killing of wolves had still to be stimulated by rewards, and even the importation of horses into the province ("soe destructive to the inhabitants thereof") had to be interdicted. The glut of tobacco was another evil, which it was sought to remedy by enacting a "cessation for planting" for one year, which led to much discussion. This glut meant an excess and depreciation of currency. John Lawson humbly showed the Lower House, "That your Petitioner was Commanded to imprison Jacob the Negro & to Execute him as likewise to Execute the two Indians with Grave-making. Your Petitioner was out of a good Quantity of Tob[acc]o," and prays to be reimbursed.

—Vulgar abuse of the "lower howse" by one Edward Erbery led to his being punished with thirty-nine lashes and a tobacco fine. The Upper House smelt sedition in the sermon delivered to the other chamber by its chaplain, Charles Nicholett, in 1669, maintaining that the people had "a liberty equal to the people of England, & that if they did not make such Laws as was agreeable to their own Conscience that then this was no Liberty but a seeming Liberty & had better be without it." He pretended to have been set to "stir up the Lower House to do their Duty," and was told he had "medled with Businesses relating merely to the Government," and must beg pardon and pay a fine. A petition of "us who are in Scorne called Quakers," in 1674, praying for the liberty of affirming, was favorably regarded but not immediately granted. Both houses united in asking clemency for John Cowman or Coman, condemned for witchcraft, conjuration, sorcery, or enchantment used upon the person of Elizabeth Goodale. This was granted, but on condition that he should pay a visit to the gallows, with the rope around his neck. The regulation of "ordinaries" led to much law-making, and the mention of lemonade in May, 1666, furnishes a date for the curious.

—'The American Lesson of the Free Trade Struggle in England,' by Gen. M. M. Trumbull (Chicago: Schumm & Simpson), is a rather spirited narrative of the events suggested by the title. The bias of the author is so strong that those who differ with him will hardly be likely to listen to his arguments, and his style, although strong enough, is disfigured by coarse colloquialisms. Nevertheless, his book has a value, for it shows clearly that every argument now in use among American protectionists was used forty years ago in England. The advocates of free trade in modern times have the great advantage over Cobden and his followers, that they can appeal to experience in proof of the fallacy of the arguments of their opponents; and arguments from experience are the only ones that have much weight with most people. The book may be read with interest even by one familiar with the time of which it treats, and is well fitted to stimulate discussion of the subject of tariff reform. Of a more impartial character is a compilation entitled 'Which? Protection or Free Trade' (Hartford: Park Publishing Company), containing the opinions of a large number of persons upon the policy of protection. Many of these opinions are taken from the treatises upon economics, but most of them from the speeches of men in public life. We should not recommend the perusal of this book to those who wish to master the subject; but persons who have not the disposition to study standard works can find much to instruct and interest them in short extracts of the character here presented. Both sides of the question are fairly represented, but the compiler seems to us to have been upon the whole rather more fortunate in his selections from the protectionists. We should hardly have supposed that they could make so respectable a showing in argument. 'The Way Out,' by Charles J. Bellamy (Putnams), is intended as a solution of the great problem of society, the equitable distribution of wealth. In the author's opinion, Government should direct that profits shall not exceed the legal rate of interest, and that any excess shall be paid to labor. The means suggested for the enforcement of this law seem to us to be likely to be extremely efficacious, so far as the reduction of the rate of profits is concerned.

—The observatory in Yale College is now without a Director, Professor Newton having resigned that office last May, and being now the Secretary to the Board of Managers, whose President is Doctor Porter, the President of the College. The points of most importance in the Secretary's report for the year 1884 relate to the photographs of the late transit of Venus taken by Mr. Willson and now in the hands of the Government Commission at Washington—photographs which Professor Harkness reports as "likely to yield valuable results"; to the partial reduction of observations made with the heliometer; and to the appointment in January, 1884, of Doctor Elkin as the astronomer in charge of this instrument for a period of three years. In addition to a thorough general investigation of the new heliometer, Doctor Elkin reports a series of observations of the diameter of the planet Venus, the determination of a large number of positions of the moon, and good progress in his principal work, the triangulation of the group of the Pleiades. Mr. Sherman, assistant in the observatory, has been engaged in magnetic observations, and in determinations of the form, polarization, and position of the Pons-Brooks comet. The details of Doctor Waldo's report on the Horologic and Thermometric Bureaus occupy more than half of the entire pamphlet. He notes a marked increase in the excellence of the watch-movements submitted to the observatory-tests. An international system of watch-trials has been agreed upon, by which the operations at Geneva, Kew, and New Haven will be strictly comparable. The work of the Thermometric Bureau has been much extended over previous years, and there has been a total of more than 6,000 thermometers examined.

—The current number of the *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* contains some interesting statistics concerning the recent growth and present extent of the railroads of the world. The total length of railroads in operation at the close of the year 1883 is given at 442,199 kilometres, or about 275,000 miles. Of these, 114,000 were in Europe, 140,000 in America, 11,500 in Asia, 3,500 in Africa, 6,500 in Australia, New Zealand, etc. The increase in the four years, 1880-1883, has been 57,000 miles—an increase of 26 per cent. over the mileage in operation at the close of the year 1879. The most rapid percentage of growth is shown in Mexico, which in 1879 had less than 700 miles in operation, and in 1883 more than 3,000 miles—an addition of 335 per cent. The increase in America as a whole has been 41 per cent.; that of Australia has been 52, that of Asia and Africa each 26, that of Europe only 11. Of the countries of Europe, Germany now has 22,400 miles of railroad — an increase in four years of 8 per cent.; Great Britain and Ireland, 18,700, increase 5 per cent.; France, 18,600, increase 18 per cent.; Russia, 15,700, increase 7½ per cent.; Austria, 12,900, increase 12 per cent. The United States has a mileage of nearly 120,000 (or decidedly more than the whole of Europe), having increased 42 per cent. in four years. In 1879 our mileage was 18,000 less than that of the European railroads, but we drew rapidly near them in 1881, and passed them in the autumn of 1882.

—A comparison of the railroad mileage with the area of the respective countries (similar to the one made by Mr. Atkinson four years ago) shows that for every 100 square miles of territory Belgium has 24½ miles of railroad, or not far from the proportion in Massachusetts, Connecticut, or New Jersey. On the same basis of comparison, Great Britain has 15½ miles; Holland, Switzerland, and Germany each not far from 11; France 9, Denmark 7½; Austria and Italy a little over 5 each; the whole United States 3 1-3. For the part of the United States bounded on the south by the Potomac and the Ohio, and on the west by the Missouri, the proportion would probably be somewhat higher than that of Germany, but less than that of Great Britain, No other country outside of Europe has even half as high a ratio as the United States. When we come to compare railroads with *population*, the order is decidedly reversed. Of all the countries of the world, Queensland stands highest, with 44½ miles of railroad to every 1,000 inhabitants. On the same basis, New Zealand has 30 miles, New South Wales 19, Victoria 17. The United States has 23 miles per 1,000 inhabitants, British America 18. The only European country which makes a respectable appearance in this table is Sweden, with 8¾ miles. Switzerland has 6 miles (half a mile less than the Argentine Republic), Denmark 5 2-3, Great Britain 5 1-3 (about the same as Peru or Chili), Norway a little over 5. Germany, France, and Belgium have each a little less than 5. Holland has not quite 4; Spain about 3 (nearly the same as Mexico or Brazil); Italy and Russia each about 2 miles.

— The "one hundred and forty-eighth thousand" of Thieme's English and German Dictionary has lately been issued by Haendcke & Lehmkuhl, in Hamburg (New York: Westermann), under the new title, 'Thieme-Preusser; a New and Complete Critical Dictionary of the English and German Languages; . . . revised and greatly enlarged by Dr. Ig. Emanuel Wessely.' The late Dr. Emil Preusser's title to joint authorship dates from 1860, when the edition revised by him and Breithaupt first made its appearance. Of this revised Thieme, the publishers tell us, no fewer than 120,000 copies were sold between 1860 and 1884, and, surprising as this success of the work is, examination shows it to be deserved. The fulness, clearness, and excellent mechanical execution of the dictionary are striking. The eight hundred (8vo) pages of the English part—which occupies four-sevenths of the heavy but remarkably unbulky volume—by far surpass in completeness of vocabulary the more than double number of Webster's 4to pages. Thus, we find in only two successive columns a number of rare, provincial, or obsolete words completely ignored in Webster: *yaw-sighted*, *yclad*, *idrad*, (=*dreaded*), *yea'lto* (Scottish for *yea wilt thou*), *yelamber* (=*yellow-hammer*), *yell* (*a.*, Scott., barren), *yellow-gum*, *yellow-jacket* (a species of wasp), *yelt* (young sow), *yence* (=*once*). The profusion of German words, partly synonyms,

used in rendering the English vocables in their various applications is, in fact, excessive. For *heart*, for instance, we have *Herz, Innerste, Kern, Brust, Zuneigung, Liebe, Neigung, Gemüth, Gemüthsverfassung, Gesinnung, Muth, Leben, Seele, Stärke, Kraft, höchste Grad, geheime Zweck, Gewissen, Lust*, and the technical term *grosse Stagblock*. The English renderings of German words are also very numerous: for *Fach*, we find *comparlment, partition, bay, panel, pigeon-hole, box, capade, shelf, row, drawer, cell, loculament, province, department, branch, line of business*. Greater still is the profusion, in both parts, of compounds and phrases. The added list of English names—personal, historical, geographical, etc.—is very rich, and the pronunciation is carefully marked. Thus we find what we consider the preferable pronunciation of *Detroit, Louisville*, and *New Orleans*, and the different pronunciations of *Arkansas* and *Natchitoches*. Of names found wanting we may instance *Balmoral*.

—Dr. Daniel Sanders has finally finished his second great work, the unique 'Ergänzungswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' (one volume, 4to; Berlin, 1885), intended to complete and enlarge all existing dictionaries of the German language (that of the Grimms included). It was about six years in going through the press and undergoing a wonderfully accurate revision—almost precisely the space of time allotted to the original edition of his main work, the 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' (three volumes, 4to; Leipzig, 1859-'65). Any one not familiar with this latter grand lexicon will be amazed at the thought of the stupendous amount of study and labor which the compilation of the new volume must have entailed upon so scrupulously painstaking an author. A few lines selected at random from this maze of quotations from all kinds of German authors, "from Luther to our time"—with references to books and journals, volume and page, column and note—will show at once what it means to compose and revise in the same exact way 900 large 4to pages, each containing upward of 250 lines of the smallest print, crammed with abbreviations of every description. (These at once bewildering and blinding abbreviations, probably due to the economical exigencies of the publication, are, in fact, its great blemish.) The following four lines from the last page, illustrative of the "Zsstzgg" (*Zusammensetzungen* compounds) of the verb *Zwitschern*, may serve as a sample of the least condensed matter:

"V. den Liedern der Schwalben *angezwitschert. Holtei* Es. 1, 5 etc.; Der Kanarienvogel zwitschert auch wie im Traum *auf. Corvin.* Sperl. 80; *Schweichel* Bild 3, 1; So agierte, tanzte, zwitscherte ich alle Opern *durch. Nat.-Z.* 32, 585, etc."

And this is another line in the same column:

"u. zizert | das Zeislein. *Gödeke* DD. 1, 348b[8], Vgl. *Wackern.*"

The indefatigable author announces a new book: 'Aus der Werkstatt eines Wörterbuchschreibers,' which cannot fail to be interesting. Nor must it be forgotten that while engaged on his numerous linguistic productions Doctor Sanders has also found leisure and poetic inspiration to indite 'Das Hohe Lied Salomonis,' 'Heitere Kinderwelt,' and 'Aus den besten Lebenstunden: Eignes und Angeeignetes,' etc. Doctor Sanders is now in the sixty-sixth year of his age, the latter half of which he has spent in scholarly retirement in his native town, Altstrelitz, in Mecklenburg.

—The vagaries of German proper names form a diverting chapter in K. G. Andresen's 'Konkurrenzen in der Erklärung der deutschen Geschlechtsnamen' (Heilbronn). The formation of many of these names shows astonishing fancifulness and ingenuity, and the associations suggested by them are often both far-fetched and entertaining. Thus, there is a class of family names which have sprung from appellations of parts of the body, such as arm, bone, lip, crop (*Arm, Knoche, Lippe, Kropf*), and others that denote psychological or moral attributes, such as *Sorgenfrei, Schönheit, Unschuld, Zutrauen, Ohnesorge, Stolzfuss*, reminding one of the Mercys and Patiences of the old-fashioned romances, and the Scriptural designations of the times of the Long Parliament. The imperative mood was fertile in producing such fantastic names as *Reissaus, Kiekhöfer* (=guck über), *Streichan, Spanhut, Drinkhut, Hauschild, Habedank*, and *Lernbecher*. Names of trees gave rise to such names as *Buchner, Hagenbucher, Birkner, Eichner, Fichtner, Lindner*. In the realm of fruits we have *Aepfler* and *Pflaumer;* in that of nuts and grain, *Nussbecher, Weizäcker, Gerstenecker*, and others. Animals and insects abound in such names as *Hirsch, Lamm, Eber, Bienwald;* and colors and flowers run through all the shades of the spectrum and most of the blossoms in the garden. Physical deformities of every sort are embalmed in the brief immortality of popular names, as in the English Bowlegs; geographical localities, like the English East and West, are no less numerous in German; fish and flesh alike survive in *Aff, Einhorn, Frosch, Ochs, Stockfish, Schellhorn*. The birds of the air are not neglected in the numerous *Finks, Fasshahn*, and the like; while homelier associations are found in *Süssmilch, Schweinefleisch, Sauerbrei*, and *Mehlhose*. Imagine the brilliant individuals flashing with the radiance of such jewel-names as Carbuncle, Sapphire, Serpentine, Pearl! Even a Herr *Heaven* and a Frau *Hell*, not to speak of Fräulein *Seven Stars*, exist!

—Mr. Lawrence Barrett's successful revival of "A Blot in the 'Scutcheon" probably furnishes Mr. Browning with his best claim to be practically a "writer of plays"; and the performance derives a special interest from the facts that the version employed at the Star Theatre differs widely from the printed text, and that the changes were made by Mr. Barrett in collaboration with Mr. Browning himself. The play, as found in Mr. Browning's works, begins with the talk of the servants who are watching the approach of *Earl Mertoun*, to ask the hand of the *Lady Mildred;* and the keynote of sorrow is given by the refusal of *Gerard*, the oldest retainer, to join in their merriment. In Mr. Barrett's version all this is omitted, and the curtain rises upon a gallery leading from *Lord Tresham's* dining-hall. *Mertoun's* request is supposed to have been already formally made, and in taking his leave he recurs to it once more—an interpretation which necessitates only very slight changes of text. The next important variation is the omission of *Mertoun's* song in the following scene. This was found to delay unduly the action of the piece, and to be out of harmony with the sorrow and passion which are already making themselves keenly felt. In the second act no change is made beyond cutting down the longer speeches until the end is reached. Then, as *Mildred, Austin*, and *Guendolen* are leaving the scene after *Guendolen's* words, "Remember, sweet, he said there was a clew! I hold it. Come!" *Tresham* enters and stops them, and addresses *Mildred* with the lines from the middle of the same act beginning, "We two will somehow wear this one day out;" continuing, "The dead must heave their hearts under the marble of our chapel-floor," and closing the act impressively with the words, "I'll hide your shame and mine from every eye." A greater change still is made in the last act. In the printed play, after *Tresham's* farewell to his home—which on the stage strikingly recalls the similar farewell in the "Ajax"—the scene changes to *Mildred's* chamber, where she has been waiting anxiously for her lover's last visit. In Mr. Barrett's arrangement, after *Tresham* has left the stage, *Mildred* opens her window and looks out. Then, seeing no one and no signs of *Mertoun*, she comes down to the avenue, crosses unconsciously, but with an involuntary shudder, to the very spot on which her lover has just breathed his last. The unpleasantness of *Tresham's* suicide in his sister's bedchamber is thus avoided, and the final scene gains greatly in solemnity from being played in the shadow of the long yew avenue. Notwithstanding all these changes, however, by an experienced stage-manager, the play still shows how much better its author was acquainted with the passions of the human heart than with the conditions of theatrical presentation. The unimportance of the first act, the climax of the whole play in the middle of the second act, the triple death at the close—these are imperfections which no rearrangement can remove. But the beauty and force of the diction and the intensity of the feelings developed make the play a most impressive one to witness. The second act in particular would be sufficient of itself to establish Browning's position as a dramatist in every sense except the technical one; and Mr. Barrett's rendering of *Tresham's* horror at his discovery of the supposed depths of his sister's infamy, is probably the most powerful piece of acting in which he has yet been seen. "The Blot in the 'Scutcheon" was very appropriately followed by "The King's Pleasure," an adaptation by Mr. Alfred Thompson of De Banville's "Gringoire," a piece admirably suited to remove the painful impressions left by the tragedy. It shows Mr. Barrett in a new and highly successful character, and it is a delightful addition to the English stage.

WILSON'S CONGRESSIONAL GOVERNMENT.

Congressional Government: a Study in American Politics. By Woodrow Wilson, Fellow in History, Johns Hopkins University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

We have no hesitation in saying that this is one of the most important books, dealing with political subjects, which have ever issued from the American press. We have often been asked by students of politics and by foreign visitors for some book which would explain the real working of our Government, and have been obliged to confess that there was none in existence. Of those which explain the origin of the Constitution, the intentions of its framers, and the meaning of its provisions, the name is legion; but of what the Government established by it has actually become after a century of history, if there is any expositor it has escaped our search. Of histories of the United States, again, down to the adoption of the Constitution there is no end, including those which follow the political growth and union of the colonies; but those of the period since are mere catalogues of events. Even the 'Constitutional History' of Von Holst, though it begins with some general observations, soon falls into a bald narration. This want Mr. Wilson has come forward to supply. His book is evidently modeled on Mr. Bagehot's 'English Constitution,' and it will, though the praise is so high as to be almost extravagant, bear comparison with that inestimable work.

The introductory chapter shows how steadily the Federal Government has extended its power over the States, the probability that this tendency will still further increase, and the consequent necessity that the machinery of the Government shall be carefully studied and corrected, so that it

may be fitted for the momentous duties which, with the growth of population and wealth, await it. The procedure of the House of Representatives is then analyzed in a way which is the more effective from the entire absence of denunciation. Nearly all the critics of Congress inveigh against the inefficiency, stupidity, and prevalent corruption of its members, with the result that the world at large has come to believe what is so persistently asserted at home. Mr. Wilson's analysis shows conclusively that these appearances of evil are mainly owing to the helplessness of anarchy. You may take a regiment of the bravest men that ever lived, and if sent into battle without officers and without training in subordination, they will flee in panic at the first attack. Nor will it help the matter to denounce them as cowards. Mr. Wilson says: "I know not how better to describe our form of Government in a single phrase than by calling it a Government by the Chairmen of the Standing Committees of Congress." And this text covers an infinitude of consequences. He shows how Congress has absorbed all the powers of the Government, reducing Executive and Supreme Court to comparative and constantly increasing insignificance. He dwells, we think with hardly sufficient force, on the dangerous and irresponsible power of the Speaker, and very much understates the fearful influence of the lobby in the committee-rooms. The Senate, though he does justice to its valuable qualities, he describes as substantially a second House of Representatives, nearly duplicating the chaos of its forty-eight committees, whereby all consistent and systematic legislation is rendered impossible. His account of the Executive reminds us of the famous one of the snakes in Iceland. He might have pointed his tale by adding that this absorption of all power by the Legislature exists in all the States and nearly all the cities, and constitutes by far the greatest political danger now threatening this country.

In comparison with this, Mr. Wilson gives an account of Cabinet government in England, where all executive power is in the hands of the Ministry, resting upon organized party support, and held in check by an opposition also organized under regular leadership. Mr. Bagehot, in his quiet assumption of superiority, describes ours as Presidential government, having its essential features as above described. We hold this distinction to be entirely fanciful, and unfortunately for it the Presidential government of France since 1870, and since Mr. Bagehot's book was written, has proceeded, if with less perfect development, yet upon exactly the same principles as that of the English Cabinet, which, indeed, is true to a greater or less extent of every government in Europe which has a legislature at all. Debarred from this distinction, Mr. Wilson falls back upon calling ours Congressional government, though we cannot see that the distinction between this and Parliamentary has any better foundation than the other.

It was with extreme surprise that we found on reaching the end of the book that Mr. Wilson was satisfied to draw the distinction and leave the matter there. He has described the danger with perfect clearness, if not in its fullest force, but offers no hint of a remedy. Yet that this is not his last word upon the subject we know from other sources. In an article in the *Overland Monthly* for January, 1884, he said that a gain might be made "by making them [members of Congress] also members of the President's Cabinet, and thus at once the executive chiefs of the Department of State and the leaders of their party on the floor of Congress—in a word, by having done with the standing committees, and constituting the Cabinet advisers both of President and Congress." He closes the same article by saying: "Committee government is too clumsy and too clandestine a system to last. Other methods of government must sooner or later be sought, and a different economy established. First or last, Congress must be organized in conformity with what is now the prevailing legislative practice of the world. English precedent and the world's fashion must be followed in the institution of Cabinet government in the United States." In the book under review he has this forcible summary of our constitutional history:

"In the period of erection there were great architects and master builders; in the period of constitutional interpretation there were, at a distance from the people, great political schoolmen, who pondered and expounded the letter of the law, and, nearer the people, great constitutional advocates, who cast the doctrines of the schoolmen into policy; and in the period of abolitionist agitation there were great masters of feeling and leaders of public purpose. The period of Federal construction is long passed; questions of constitutional interpretation are no longer regarded as of pressing urgency; the war has been fought, even the embers of its issues being now almost extinguished; and we are left to that unexciting but none the less capitally important business of every-day peaceful development and judicious administration, to whose execution every nation in its middle age has to address itself with what sagacity, energy, and prudence it can command. It cannot be said that these new duties have as yet raised up any men eminently fit for their fulfilment."

Feeling thus, how is it possible that he should have passed over without an allusion the only arrangement which, according to his own view, offers us a chance of obtaining the men desired? The answer to this question is not far to seek. He thinks that amendments to the Constitution are an essential prerequisite. In the article already referred to, he speaks of two: first, that in the clause "and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office," there should be inserted the words "except a Cabinet office"; and, second, that the terms both of Congress and the President should be lengthened. If such a course is necessary, we do not wonder that he has passed over in silence the reform which it is intended to bring about. It would be hard enough to obtain any action from Congress, but to secure the coöperation of three-fourths of the State legislatures—every one of which is steadily striving to extend its own power and to reduce that of the executive—would be a perfectly hopeless task. It may pretty safely be said that the only constitutional amendments which have any chance in the future, as the Government is now carried on, are of two kinds—those which tend to increase the power of Congress as against the Executive, with which the State legislatures would have an instinctive sympathy; and those in favor of which such a national passion may be aroused as to carry them with a rush. Any move toward placing Congress under executive leadership would meet with solid resistance from local politicians, while the people do not understand it enough to lend effective support.

We maintain, however, that no constitutional amendment is necessary—that the practical result may be arrived at by a much easier process. The secretaries, as Mr. Wilson shows, do now on occasion appear in the committee rooms. There needs only a vote of the House of Representatives authorizing and requiring them to do the same thing on the floor of the House, with the right of taking part in debate, but without a vote. The difference in one respect, indeed, would be immense, for as the committees work in secret, independently, and largely at cross purposes, what the officials say is of no consequence. But if the same officials should lift up their voices before the whole House, advocating a policy or criticising procedure, the attention of the country would be at once aroused, and instead of looking on as now in cold contempt, it would manifest a lively interest. All the rest can be left to time. Whether the Cabinet should introduce and explain bills or be mere witnesses and critics; whether they should resign individually or collectively in case of defeat, or maintain themselves as best they could till a new election; whether the short term of Congress would answer for the dissolution which is the *ultima ratio* of a British ministry; what would be the position of the President; whether the Cabinet should be outside of Congress or members of it—and a constitutional amendment to this effect would then have a very different aspect from what it would have now—these and many other points must be settled in the light of experience. The first step is simple and needs only agitation. It is of not much direct use for scholars to argue about it, and of just as little to advocate it in Congress, as we believe the late President Garfield did as far back as 1864, or as Mr. Pendleton did within a few years in the Senate, because Congress is solidly if silently hostile. It must be carried to the people, and we have a strong conviction that its popularity would be great; that the country is charged with a sentiment in this direction, as a black cloud is with electricity, needing only a point to draw it. If Senator Pendleton could make up his mind to stump the country on behalf of his plan, he would arrive at a very different result. If President Cleveland, in his opening message to Congress, would make the suggestion, with a simple statement of the argument in its favor, it could be carried before his term was over.

We believe, with Mr. Wilson, that the present state of things is too intolerable to last; that the change proposed is the only thing which will give any relief, and that it must come; but, with a natural desire to live to see it, we are looking anxiously for some statesman with mind enough and courage enough to see that in a resolute advocacy of such a proposition lies the broadest and most open road to the Presidency.

A SCOTCH LADY ABROAD.

Letters and Journals of Mrs. Calderwood of Polton, from England, Holland, and the Low Countries in 1756. Edited by Alexander Fergusson, Lieut.-Colonel. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1884.

THE beautiful workmanship displayed in this volume, with its etching of Polton House on the title-page, its pretty tail-pieces here and there, and its admirable printing, has an air of luxury that hardly prepares one for the plain, homely, sensible narrative which the book contains. Mrs. Calderwood has before had the honor of print, but not with such external dignity; her 'Letters and Journals' were among the papers privately issued by the Maitland Club, but are not now easily accessible, and as their piquancy makes them much sought for, they have been republished after a space of forty-two years in a really splendid edition. The lady was the aunt of the two Erskines, Henry and Thomas, and sister of the fourth Sir James Steuart, who spent most of his life in exile on account of his suspected share in the Rebellion of 1745. Her journey was undertaken partly to visit this brother, who was at the time (1756) living at the German Spa, and partly to give her two boys the benefit of some Continental schooling. She passed through England rapidly, made the tour of Holland and the Low Countries in a more leisurely way, and settled at Brussels. The account of what she saw is contained in the MS. "volumes" which she sent to her married daughter for the entertainment of herself and her friends; and as she was one of

those shrewd, outspoken, intelligent ladies of the old school whose extinction Sir Walter Scott laments, and had an eye, moreover, of preternatural sharpness for details, like a modern realist, her circle of acquaintances were edified as well as amused. "The weight of anybody's brain is well known when they are seen out of their own country," is one of her observations, and in her case the test did her honor.

As soon as she got over the border she began to look about and to ask questions, and her first complaint is that the English do not know enough to give intelligence. She is jealous for the reputation of Scotland, and finds the level country, with its villages and spires and quickness of communication not so excellent as the Scotch hills. Here is one glimpse of that attention to nature which marked Scotch poetry so continuously from early days, and was soon in Burns to become a strong literary influence: "I do not think anything could be more beautiful than the straths of some of our large rivers, inclosed on every side, where the grounds hang so that each inclosure might be seen above another, and, after they had advanced so high and steep, then the green hill appearing above, covered with sheep, and the waterfalls coming down now and then betwixt the hills." Mrs. Calderwood, however, was much more interested in cattle and poultry, rents, wages, dairy methods, modes of building and heating, taxes, population, costumes, and the *ensemble* of men and things, than in the beauty of these Scotch prospects which Johnson was to make his famous jest upon. One is sorry that she did not stay longer in England, for she hits off the national temper in her first words, and has that knack of description that puts the object before the mind with all its eccentricities at once. "The English," she is led to think, after a day or two, "are a people one may perhaps esteem or admire, but they do not draw the affection of strangers, neither in their own country nor out of it." She liked those she became acquainted with in London: "They seem to be good-natured and humane; but still there is a sort of ignorance about them with regard to the rest of the world, and that their conversation runs in a very narrow channell. They speak with a great relish of their publick places, and say, with a sort of flutter, that they shall to Vauxhall and Ranelagh, but do not seem to enjoy it when there." Of the ministers (it was the year of Admiral Byng's disgrace) she spoke short and sharp:

"We used to laugh at the English for being so soon afraid when there was any danger in state affairs, but now I do excuse them. For we, at a distance, think the wisdom of our governours will prevent all these things; but those who know and see our ministers every day see there is no wisdom in them, and that they are a parcell of old ignorant senseles bodies, who mind nothing but eating and drinking, and rolling about in Hyde Park, and know no more of the country, or the situation of it, nor of the numbers, strength, and circumstances of it, than they never had been in it; or how should they, when London, and twenty miles round it, is the extent ever they saw of it?"

She soon left England behind, and came to the very novel sights of the canal and sand countries, with their surprises both to the eye and mind. Nearly the whole of the volume is taken up with a minute account of the things and the modes of living which she observed in these foreign parts, with an occasional character-sketch or conversation or anecdote done in the fewest and most effective strokes. She shows on every page the Scotch virtue of economy: she puts down the prices of everything salable, the rents, wages, and incomes—in fact, it is quite just to say that she looks at everything from the side of money-values first, if there is any possible relation to material wealth. She exhibits, too, the instincts of the housekeeper, always noticing the domestic inconveniences and discomforts, and also ready to acknowledge and appropriate the improvements on the Scotch ways where their usefulness was not limited by the peculiarity of the country to that particular climate and condition. In all this portion, the sense, the closeness of observation, the brevity and force of expression, are remarkable; in these respects the 'Journey' will bear comparison with the best writing of the sort, and the whole has so different a complexion from the books of travel we have nowadays from our humorous and picturesque tourists, as to be a telling example of how travel may be made something more than a pleasure excursion. Mrs. Calderwood, it should be remembered, had her husband and children with her.

The 'Journey,' however, is as entertaining as it is instructive. The author's force of character takes the place of literary skill, and the clearness of her sight and statement makes the obscure relations of her nouns and verbs and her patchwork connectives a matter of no consequence. Grammar and spelling are proved to be not essential to lucidity by a practical demonstration. Anything more removed from the bas-relief finish of Mr. James's or Mr. Howells's Italian descriptions, for example, could not be conceived; but with what a vividness, with what a strength and reality this dialect-writing Scotch lady brings out her figures, almost in the round, as it were, or at least in Dresden figures!

"The thing I think the oddest about the Dutch is their appearance; there [are] almost none of them have the look of gentlemen or ladies. The men are tolerable; they have the air of sober men of busness, but, for the ladies, they look like chambermaids, put on them what you please, and they dress very plain. A fine guilt coach will pass, and in it a chambermaid in her Sunday's clothes, or an old worn-out housekeeper; and, when you see them walking from church, drest, they are just like a lady from the country, who has not had on a hoop, nor a fan in her hands, for twenty years, looking very prim, with her elbows into her sides, her two hands streight out before her, holding the fan out likeways, as if she was to red [clear] her way by it, and hagheling, as if she thought all her pitecots were coming off. And this is a description of everybody, for their is no odds in any town, either in the appearance of the people or the place, for, shut your eyes, and you will not know in what town you are, they are so like."

Here is the life-history of Father Daniel, who, when he got leave to visit her, "looked always when he came like a dog wagging his taill for gladness to get out":

"As for my friend Father Daniel, he is a good-natured, innocent, obliging soul, and very ugly and very merry. He is just a Scots pedantick scholer, and was always snuffling, out of curiosity, about every sort of religion, to see what it was, and what this set of folks' tenets were, and upon what they founded their differences from others upon. Had he been bred a divine, he would at this time [have] been a member of the presbitry of Dumferline or perhaps Mr. Jamieson's pastor at Kennoway; but, as he was bred a smuggling merchant, or perhaps a packman, he walked twenty miles to hear Mr. Whitfield, Mrs. Ebenezer Erskine, etc.; and, after satisfying his curiosity about them, he fell to trying what sort of cheese the papaists set their traps with, and, as he was snuffling about that, I suppose he found a life of study and idleness could be had without an estate, or so much as a farthing, none of which the others had offered him."

The good, strong-minded lady despised "the papaists" with an old Covenanter's vigor of spirit and wealth of abuse, some of which unfortunately the editor has excised. It is to be remembered, however, that she was nearer than we can at all realize to the "sufferings" at the Cross of Edinburgh in the significantly-named "killing time" of King James. Her sojourn among the Catholics led her to one generalization that is still a living matter:

"That giving up of the world so much among Roman catholicks, makes them divest themselves of care much easier than we can do; and there is a certain desire of ease, and what I may call a *selfishness*, that the English has, which is unknown to us, that makes so many of them give up their country and freinds with greater ease than we can do, either to wander about amongst strangers, quite alone, or to sit down amongst them, and care for nobody. . . . And if I was Mr. Whitnor I would rather bring up some young family for the world, than clok [of a setting hen] over a parcell of barren nuns."

We have extracted enough to show the reader that in this publication of an old manuscript of travel in a neighboring country, in days when the world is full of newer journeys in all the quarters of the earth, he will find something more than an antiquarian curiosity, something valuable in itself as exact information and shrewd observation, and interesting as an illustration of the mind and life of that generation of Scottish women who reared the men who made Edinburgh an "Athens" in the next age. Mrs. Calderwood herself wrote at least one novel in the manner of Fielding; the editor says that it "out-Westerns the Squire"; and although there is no ale-house incident or language in the present volume, there is the realistic touch, the sense that goes on all-fours, the wit that condenses like a proverb, the quick apprehensiveness of human nature and eye for the points of the animal or the truthful humor of the situation, which were a part of Fielding's endowment. This intercalated matter, what one may call the humanity-sketches, gives vivacity to pages that would otherwise be hardly more than statistics of the past.

SCHIPPER'S DUNBAR.

William Dunbar. Sein Leben und seine Gedichte, etc. Ein Beitrag zur schottisch-englischen Literatur- und Culturgeschichte. Von Dr. J. Schipper, ordentl. Professor der englischen Philologie an der K. K. Universität in Wien. Berlin: Robert Oppenheim. 1884. Pp. 410.

It has been Dunbar's misfortune that in the popular collections of poetry he is represented by extracts which can be regarded neither as his best nor as his most characteristic work, highly as they may have been valued by his own time. Just as that eternal 1328 is still passed along as Chaucer's birthyear, so compiler after compiler continues to accept as best specimens of Dunbar's verse the conventional allegory and "aureate terms" of "The Thrissill and the Rois," or of "The Goldyn Targe." Even Nichol (in Ward's 'English Poets') gives besides these only a part of "The Dance of the Sevin Deidly Synnis," and, of course, "The Lament for the Makaris." Surely there was room for a couple of those delightful smaller poems. For while "The Thrissill and the Rois" has undoubtedly great merits, and presents Dunbar in his most amiable aspect, how little, after all, does it show of his real genius! His drastic humor, his terse and vivid description, his admirable satiric power, are best seen, not in his elaborate verse, but in those occasional poems which sprang from the immediate life about him, and are to-day as fresh as when their author flung into them his joy or his sorrow. "All my poems," said Goethe to Eckermann, "are occasional poems. I have no opinion of poems snatched out of the air." Neither had Dunbar. His work still remains attractive in itself, and rich in hints regarding the life and thought of his generation. It deserves far more notice than has hitherto fallen to its share.

Professor Schipper's work is therefore eminently seasonable. The result of a long preparation, it gives to the German public an excellent study of Dunbar's life and poems. These latter are represented by copious and, for the most part, admirable translations. The work, so its author tells us (p. ix), is meant to put into popular

form the results of scientific study, and to open to yet wider circles the knowledge of a poet so well deserving attention from lovers of literature —a task, thinks Schipper, in no wise unworthy of the new philology, which has heretofore busied itself too exclusively with text-criticism and grammar. We agree thoroughly with this opinion. It is no easy thing to found a popular treatise on exact critical knowledge; but when the attempt is successful, we have such an excellent result as Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature.' We can hardly praise Schipper more than by saying that he constantly reminds us of Ten Brink. There is a wide field in English philology open for work of this kind. The microscope is not the sole instrument of the philologist, nor is his single object the infinitely little.

The book opens with a rapid review of Scottish poetry, based on Nichol's limitation of distinctively Scottish literature to the 150 years from Barbour to Lyndesay and Knox. In this summary, as indeed throughout the whole work, controversy is avoided, and there is little effort to put forth new theories. An attempt, however, is (p. 33) made to explain how James I. came to be regarded as author of "Peblis to the Play" and "Christis Kirk of the Green." Like Skeat (in his recent edition of "The Kingis Quhair") Schipper rejects such an authorship; but thinks the King's name became associated with the poems, as in the Bannatyne MS., through the interest that he took in collecting popular ballads, and his probable attempts at a reforming of music and text. Further, our author regards the "Kingis Quhair" as the chief means by which Chaucer's influence became so weighty and so lasting in Scottish poetry.

After this summary, Schipper turns to his main subject, and gives a careful sketch of Dunbar's life. Laing, the editor of Dunbar's Works, is treated with great respect; though there are many cases where Schipper's chronology is more precise, and some where he has made material change. He puts the poet's birth about 1456 or 1457; Laing, "not later that 1460"; Nichol, 145—. Schipper agrees with Laing as to the death-year of the poet (about 1520), but rejects the elder editor's suggestion that Dunbar *may* have fallen with James at Flodden; for, according to Schipper, our poet undoubtedly wrote "Ane Orisown: Quhen the Governour Past into France" (1517). Laing's date of the famous "Flyting" with Walter Kennedy is changed from "between 1492 and 1497" to December, 1504. From epithets used in the same poem, Schipper has won several additional touches of personal description. Dunbar is there mocked on account of his short stature. Schipper uses this fact to identify the *Droich* in the Interlude (Laing II., 37) with Dunbar himself (p. 207). In the chronology of the poems Schipper differs often from Laing. Some changes are wise; others, based on merely internal evidence, seem to us here and there doubtful. Thus the poem "Of Solistaris at Court" is referred (p. 130) to the author's younger days, because of the final passage, which expresses "a serene and hopeful belief in the King's good will." But at any time in Dunbar's career, a purse of gold from the royal hand was able to call up the mood in which our poem is written. Despite these few deviations, however, Schipper draws liberally from Laing, often (as p. 117; cf. L., p. 281, II.) making a long statement in the very words of Laing's note.

The main work of the book is an elaborate criticism, with copious translations, of Dunbar's poems. These are arranged primarily by their dates: (a) poems before 1503; (b) poems between 1503 and 1513; (c) poems after 1513. They are subdivided according to contents. The success of such work must depend, first, upon the thoroughness of the author's study; secondly, upon his critical ability; and, lastly, on the fidelity and force of his translations. As to the first, there is no question. In the second respect, there is a steady tendency to avoid the infinitely little and to keep the eye on the object, which would delight Mr. Arnold. In fact, as we noticed above, Schipper leans now and then too heavily on mere probabilities. Thus (p. 113) he paints a very black picture of the corruption of justice, the credulity of the King, the reign of adventurers, the loose morals, and the general atmosphere of bribery which must have characterized the court of James IV. All this is inferred merely from the internal evidence of Dunbar's satiric poems, a source of information, thinks Schipper, hitherto unduly neglected. Thus the "Ladyis Solistaris at Court," with its hint of female influence in the law-courts, shows, according to our author, that "the administration of justice, despite the reforms introduced by the King, was by no means so admirable as the historians would have us believe" (p. 114). Schipper forgets here that a satirist like Dunbar will have material anywhere; and, further, that this satire of women was part of a poet's stock in trade. Dunbar resembles Chaucer in this respect, and we know that Chaucer gave more cause of offence to the sex than fifty "Legendes" could have atoned for. As Laing remarks (ii, 273), "The Twa Maryit Wemen and the Wedo" follows closely the vein of the prologue to the "Wife of Bathe's Tale." So, in the poem above noticed, Dunbar is chiming in with a popular note of satire, and needs no definite abuses to inspire him. More attractive, though not convincing, is Schipper's theory (307 ff.) that "The Rewl of Anis Self" and the advice of *Polonius* to *Laertes* in "Hamlet" are probably drawn from the same source. The parallel passages are interesting to the general reader, and we give them all:

D. Behold and heir, and lat thy tung tak rest;
In mekle speich is part of vanitie.
S. Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice;
Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
D. He rewlis weill that weill him self can gyd.
S. This above all—to thine own self be true, etc.
D. Be war quhome to thy counsale thou discure.
S. Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.
D. Put nocht thyne honour in to aventeure.
S. Beware of entrance to a quarrel.
D. In cumpany cheiss honourable feiris,
And fra vyld (=vile) folkis draw the far on syd.
S. The friends thou hast, etc.
But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
Of each new-hatched, unfledged comrade.
D. Be war also to counsal or coreck.
S. Reserve thy judgment.

Thus there are eight lines (out of forty-eight) in Dunbar's poem which correspond in sentiment and expression to the famous lines in Shakspere. Shall we think it necessary to infer certain sources for this poem, sources which may also have been used by Shakspere? Hardly. Good advice for all phases of existence was such a "specialty" of mediæval literature, that commonplace rules of living like the above were as familiar as the Ten Commandments; were proverbial. Strange if in an enumeration of such rules the two passages did not contain similar ideas and even expression. Compare Wright's or Grant White's note to *Julius Cæsar* V, 5, 73, where the striking similarity of the passage to a stanza in Drayton's "Barons' Wars" is referred to the likelihood of identical, or at least similar expression, when two writers put into words a familiar thought. We are even inclined to refer to the same cause such parallels as: ("Twa Maryit Wemen," 316) "For nevir bot in a gentil hert is generit ony ruth," or ("To a Ladye," 41) "Nor out of gentill hart is fundin petie," with Chaucer's ('C. T.' 1763) "For pitee renneth sone in gentil herte." It is the same with certain figures of speech. We find ("Goldyn Targe," 36): "stanneris [=pebbles] clere as sternis in frosty nycht," and at once think of Chaucer's frere, and his eyes that "twinkled in his hed aright, As don the sterres in a frosty night." But Lyndesay has the same figure, even to the twinkling (Works, E. E. T. Soc., p. 559): "Twynklyng lyke sterris in ane frosty night"—used of jewels in a robe. Finally, J. Heywood sings of the Princess Mary: "Her bewté twinkleth like a starre Within the frosty night." This is not copying, which would be an absurd supposition, but rather the common use of a stock figure.

To the German reader, the most important part of this book must be the translations. We hardly dare call attention to a couple of slips, since it is precisely in his rendering of such difficult originals that Schipper has been so admirably successful, both in interpreting the obscure sense and in doing justice to Dunbar's masterly and elaborate metres. In many cases he has smoothed away the grossness of the original, yet without losing the humor and the point. We think, however, that the sense is missed in the refrain of the poem "To the King" (pp. 75, 265): "Excess of thocht dois me mischeif." *Thocht* certainly means 'anxiety,' 'despondency,' 'trouble,' and is the equivalent of "pane and greif" in the third line of the first stanza (cf. notes to "Ant. and Cleop.," iii, 11, "Think and die"; or "Jul. Cæs." ii, 1, "take thought"). Schipper translates, with our modern sense in mind, "Das viele Grübeln schadet mir." While we can excuse, on account of exigencies of rime, a rendering like "Im Prachtgewand von Blumen neugepflückt" (p. 170) for "In brycht atteir of flouris, forgit new," where *forgit* of course refers to *atteir*, there is no reason for the translation:

"Das," sprach Vernunft, "ist deiner würdig ganz,"

for

"Weill worth the, sister, said Considerance."

Worth is surely the well-known verb, found in 'Piers Plowman' (*e. g.*, Prol., 183) and often elsewhere; and *weill worth* is parallel expression to "wo worth" ("woe be to"), found as late as Walter Scott's "Lady of the Lake": "Wo worth the chase, wo worth the day." But, as we said, Schipper's translations are, in the main, excellent.

After a final summary of Dunbar's traits as man and as poet, and a brief discussion of his relations to the drift of thought in his age, the last twenty pages of the book are devoted to an account of Lyndesay and the dependence of his work on that of Dunbar. The latter's excellence, thinks Schipper, lies in originality, satiric power, and mastery of form—"die Uebereinstimmung von Inhalt und metrischer Form": "Klarheit und Anschaulichkeit des Ausdrucks. . . . Gedankenreichthum der Sprache."—Lastly, the undoubted success achieved by our author in this study of Dunbar gives us a more than hopeful interest in his statement (p. 389) that he is soon to publish a work on 'Altenglische Humoristen und Satiriker.' But are Germans always to be first in the field?

Alice, Grand Duchess of Hesse, Princess of Great Britain and Ireland. Biographical Sketch and Letters. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The Princess Christian (Helena) has written the preface to this memoir, and in it explained that the book is intended not as a complete biography, but merely as a "true picture" of the domestic life and of the loveliness of character of the Princess whose name it bears. The sketch itself was written by a Dr. Sell, resident in Darmstadt, and is interwoven with extracts from letters of the Princess Alice to her mother; or rather a separate summary is given of the events of each year of the Princess's life, after her marriage with Prince Louis of Hesse, and each summary is followed by the letters relating to the period in question. A chapter on "Childhood and Girlhood" precedes this portion of the book, and there is an appendix containing, among other

things, a "Sketch In Memoriam" by Sir Theodore Martin.

The letters are written in a very unaffected and familiar way, as any daughter might naturally write to her mother, and they give a pleasant impression of the Princess's domestic life, which was, indeed, very similar to that of any ordinary wife and mother, not excepting the need of economy and the pressure of many cares. The Princess Alice seems to have been happy in it (though report says that her Louis was not always an ideal husband), but her happiness was overshadowed by the sorrow of her father's death, and by her deep sympathy with the lonely lot of her widowed mother. A most ardent love for that mother pervades these pages; not so much the clinging dependence of a child as a helpful love, seeking always to comfort and strengthen. The allusions to Prince Albert—she calls him "adored papa"—which recur very frequently, are full of a reverent affection which bears witness to the nobility of character of both father and daughter. Singularly enough, the Princess died on the seventeenth anniversary of the death of the father whom she had so mourned. After reading this record of her devoted and loving life we can well appreciate the sorrow of her family and friends—a sorrow so profoundly shared by her German subjects and her English countrymen, to say nothing of the grief of the many poor and unfortunate whom her kindness had assisted.

The ideas of the Princess Alice with regard to the moral education of her daughters are full of liberality and common sense. For example, she writes (p. 250): "I strive to bring them up totally free from pride of position, which is *nothing* save what their personal worth can make it"; and (p. 277) "I bring my children up as simply and with as few wants as I can, and above all to help themselves and others, so as to become independent." But while the greater portion of the letters relate largely to details of domestic and social life, we nevertheless hear a good deal of the Austro-Prussian and Franco-Prussian wars, and something of the Princess's activity in founding hospitals and societies for "aid to sick and wounded," as also of her efforts in various directions in behalf of women. The account, however, of her philanthropic labors is more clearly given by Dr. Sell. She seems not to have shared the more advanced ideas in relation to the political status of women, though in various other ways looking to their advancement. Her friendship with the writer Strauss is scarcely mentioned in the extracts from her correspondence with the Queen, but what Dr. Sell tells us of it is very creditable both to her independence of mind and kindness of heart. She appears to have been faithful to every duty, whether public or private, and the book certainly attains its object, of clearly presenting the traits of a beautiful character. This conceded, we must feel, nevertheless, that to readers more sensitive than curious there will seem something indelicate, something like a breach of trust, something like an outrage upon departed affection, in thus placing these private and tender communications before the public eye. And it must also be confessed that, except to those persons for whom the touch of royalty turns everything to gold, the *thorough* perusal of all these letters would be a pretty tedious business.

History of the Ancient Ryedales and Their Descendants in Normandy, Great Britain, Ireland, and America, from 860 to 1864. Comprising the Genealogy and Biography, for about one thousand years, of the Families of Riddell, Riddle, Ridlon, Ridley, etc. By G. T. Ridlon. Manchester, N. H. 1884. 8vo, pp. 786.

It is very difficult to give a suitable summary of a book like this. It evidences very considerable patience and perseverance on the part of the author, it contains many facts, it possesses some value; but it is nevertheless a monument of misapplied energy. The author seems to be that dangerous kind of an antiquary who has no idea of the relative value of facts, and who is especially incompetent to deal with English antiquities. He does not have the faintest idea of what his citations really mean, and his transpositions thereof into the presumed American equivalents are extremely ludicrous at times.

But the underlying fault of the author is his entire misunderstanding of the object of genealogy. In England it is the desire of the genealogist to trace the success of the main line of a family—that which has absorbed all the wealth, honors, and consideration of the race—and perhaps to enable recent offshoots to show their propinquity. In this country, on the contrary, the family has been considered as a unit, a clan springing from a well-ascertained founder; and the ties of relationship have undoubtedly been drawn closer by the work of the family historian. Even in this respect we have undoubtedly nearly reached the limit, because each succeeding generation dilutes the kinship in degree and vastly extends it in scope.

A book like Mr. Ridlon's is of neither class. He spends much time and space in writing an account of the British families of Riddell and Ridley, both well known and fairly recorded in British works, and he supplements his work with notes on various obscure namesakes, of no especial merit whatever. Two generations of the family of a shepherd in Scotland or Ireland, or of a farmer or mechanic in England, is in no sense a contribution to genealogy; but this is about the extent of Mr. Ridlon's original results abroad. As to his American portion—by far the smaller part of his book—it treats of the Riddells or Riddles and the Ridlons, both families of comparatively late date here, and this part of the work is far below the standard of our local genealogies. The author has his own idea of the best plan of arranging the generations, but in so far as he differs from the approved methods, he errs.

We have said that there is some value to the book, and that lies in the enormous amount of facts collected. Doubtless some student will hereafter find useful material therein, but he will be obliged to delve for it and to rearrange it for service. It would be an easy thing to turn this book into ridicule, so numerous are the misprints, so reckless the mixture of truth and falsehood, and so refreshingly American the comments. But this would be unfair to the evident zeal and good intentions of the author. One example will suffice. Treating (on pp. 402-3) of Sir William Stanley, the hero of Bosworth field, brother to the Lord Stanley who ranked among the highest peers at that date, he thus translates him:

"How came the family of Egerton to have possession of the manor of Ridley? In the absence of specific documentary evidence, I conjecture the connections to be as follows: As the main line of the family of Ridley had ended in Alice, the wife of Robert Dunyel, and the representation consequently devolved upon their son and heir, who became the knight-follower of William *Stand*ley, when this son was put of sight in some mysterious way, his *County Marshal* got possession of his property, being then in great favor with the King." "As Standley was now out of the way, the Egertons, represented in that generation by Sir Ralph, put in their rightful claim to the manor of Ridley, and were successful in its possession, *with all the costly improvements on the estates* made by William Standley."

This may be a graphic description of the attainder of Sir William Stanley and the confiscation of his vast estate, but we prefer the style of Dugdale, Collins, or even Sir Bernard Burke.

The Plant-Lore and the Garden-Craft of Shakespeare. By Rev. Henry N. Ellacombe, M.A., of Oriel College, Oxford; Vicar of Bitton, Gloucestershire, and Hon. Canon of Bristol. Second edition. London: Simpkins, Marshall & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. 438.

A book well worthy, this, of a second edition, and to stand on the shelf along with Doctor Prior's 'Popular Names of British Plants'—books to be read with interest and to be consulted with satisfaction. It is much to have a collection of all Shakspere's references to plants and flowers, and Canon Ellacombe gives no stinted measure. Even cork comes in, although "it is most probable that Shakspere had no further acquaintance with the cork tree than his use of corks"; and barnacles, because the barnacle tree in those days was firmly believed in. Moreover, he misses no appropriate occasion of drawing upon his full stores of herbalistic and of ballad lore. Besides, the Canon knows much more of plants than their names and literary history. An enthusiastic cultivator and a fair botanist (as a country clergyman ought to be, and in England often is), he gives good advice about the cultivation of flowers and the management of trees and shrubs, even of some which have only in our own days come to be known. The appositeness of these cultural remarks is more obvious when we learn that the materials of this volume first appeared as articles in a horticultural periodical. The author decided to retain them in his book "on finding that they interested some readers, by whom the literary and Shaksperian notices were less valued." The converse is more imaginable.

About People. By Kate Gannett Wells. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

This little book will be valued not so much for the novelty of the views presented in it as for their justice and wisdom. Each of the essays touches closely subjects upon which there have been many misleading discussions, many disappointing arguments, simply for want of that wide experience which Mrs. Wells has here contributed. However general may be the titles, the essential thought and purpose of all the essays are most specific—a woman's view of the present position of woman in the home, in a profession, or in day labor. The difficulties are stated without exaggeration and without bitterness, and the hopes held out are not delusive but rational. The curious facts gathered in the article on "Caste," as to social distinctions among working people, must give the book a position of authority upon questions as to their improvement. Whoever means to help them has to reckon early and late with this feeling of class-separation. A more lucid style would have been more forcible, and a keener sense of the figurative meaning of words would have added point to the argument and eloquence to the appeal to feeling. The paragraphs on manners, pages 190–197, are among the best in the book. We had almost said it would much profit young people to commit them to memory.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Harper's Young People for 1884. Harper & Brothers.
James, H. The Author of Beltraffio. Pandora. Georgina's Reasons. The Path of Duty. Four Meetings. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Shepherd, W. Prairie Experiences in Handling Cattle and Sheep. Illustrated. O. Judd Co. $1.
Sherwood, J. M. Memoirs of Rev. David Brainerd, Missionary to the Indians of North America. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Songs of the Roses. A Valentine. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50.
Southworth, Mrs. Emma D. E. N. The Changed Brides. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.
Stories by American Authors. IX. Charles Scribner's Sons.
The Money-Makers: a Social Parable. D. Appleton & Co.
The White Witch. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Turner, E. A. Primer and First Reader. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 24 cents.
Vasari, G. Lives of the Most Eminent Painters, Sculptors, and Architects. Vol. VI. London: George Bell & Sons.
Youngs, E. S. A Heart's Life, Sarpedon, and Other Poems. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 19, 1885.

The Week.

THERE is probably no odder or funnier incident in the advent of a new Administration than the arrival of delegations from various parts of the country to "present names" for "Cabinet positions" to the incoming President. It begins about a month after the election, when the quarrels of the canvass have been closed, and the relative deserts of the various persons who have contributed to the triumph have been settled, or finally left unsettled. The members of the victorious party in every town and city in States which have been carried, or came near being carried, then begin to look around to see whether they have not some local notable, a judge, or a general, or even colonel, whom it would be well to "present" to the new President for a seat in the Cabinet. To their imaginations the Cabinet is not a set of advisers, standing in an intimate relation to the President, and chosen to suit himself, but a strictly representative body, the seats in which are the rewards of party devotion. In nine cases out of ten, however, there is no expectation whatever that the presentation will be successful in obtaining a position. It is simply a compliment, and consequently the delegation, instead of trying to get the President-elect into a private place and giving him secret advice, harangue him about the Judge's merits in the most public way possible. This is intended to let him know that if a portfolio is not to be had for our distinguished fellow-citizen, it is to be borne in mind that he is the local boss of the party, and the man to be consulted about the local offices in case the State is not properly represented in the Senate. The mixture of simplicity and humbug in the whole performance is delightful and in many ways unequalled. Any one who has assisted at a presentation will, if a humorist, carry away delightful memories of it.

The followers of Mr. Bland have fallen into a spasm on the discovery that the President-elect favors and desires a discontinuance of the silver coinage. To this must be attributed their extraordinary petition, or whatever it may be called, addressed to Governor Cleveland, urging him to suspend his judgment on the silver question until "the sentiment of the party" can be ascertained. If it is the sentiment of the party that eighty-five cents are equal to a dollar, they want Governor Cleveland to adopt that view. The only proper guides for Governor Cleveland in the premises are the rules of arithmetic and the last Democratic national platform. The platform declares that the party "believes in honest money, the gold and silver of the Constitution, and a circulating medium convertible into such money without loss." The inevitable consequence of the forced coinage of silver will be to expel gold altogether from the money of the country, and to substitute silver in its place. This is the real purpose of the Bland faction. They want a cheap dollar, an 85-cent dollar, any kind of a dollar except an honest dollar. The honest money of the Constitution which the Democratic platform calls for is not the sort that they are looking for. Governor Cleveland will perhaps ask to be excused from turning away from the latest official declaration of his party to learn the true Democratic faith from Mr. Bland's petition.

Senator Bowen, of Colorado, disclosed the true significance of the Silver Bill when he rested its defence upon the rights of the silver producers, as a part of the army of American industry, to protection. He said that they had as good a claim upon the public taxes as anybody else, and that they intended to assert it. Very good, Mr. Senator, but why should the American taxpayer be required to support the silver market for the benefit of Mexico and Peru as well as that of Colorado and Nevada? Would it not be a saving all around to pay a bounty to American silver, instead of holding up the market price for everybody to sell on, by purchasing $2,000,000 per month at the London price of the article? If the present price is one dollar per ounce, and it falls to ninety-eight cents in consequence of our stopping the coinage, let Congress pay 2 cents per ounce for all the silver hereafter mined in the United States and duly authenticated as such at the public mint. In this way we should confine our benefactions to our own people instead of distributing them in a random way to Mexico, Germany, India, and every country which has any silver for sale.

The determination of Senators Sherman and Ingalls to "haul Senator Edmunds over the coals" for his declaration in regard to the electoral count, has wisely been abandoned. Mr. Edmunds will not be removed from the Presidency of the Senate, neither will any effort be made to show that he is not a sound interpreter of constitutional law. It ought not to have taken Senator Sherman twenty-four hours to reach so sensible a decision as this. He joined Senator Morton in 1877 in the plan to have Mr. Hayes counted in by the President of the Senate, and was defeated through the opposition of Mr. Edmunds. Both houses of Congress decided then, by large majorities, that the Edmunds view was the sound one. There is in Washington, as well as in the Republican newspaper offices, some natural irritation because Mr. Edmunds has "rubbed in" his view with such publicity at this time, and we observe with much interest that the chronic dislike of the partisans of the party for the Vermont Senator's way of doing things has been greatly aggravated thereby. We venture to remark that we think it is a good way, and that it would be a vast gain to our politics if more of our public men followed it.

A variety of cross purposes have combined to defeat, for the time being, the bill to place General Grant on the retired list of the army. We say for the time being, because the bill will come up again and again, and will, we are sure, be finally passed, in obedience to an undoubted popular sentiment in its favor. If it fails altogether in the present Congress, we trust that President Cleveland will commend it to the attention of the next Congress. This he will be amply warranted in doing since it has received the nearly unanimous support of his party in the Senate, and has only failed of passage in the House by reason of the passions excited by President Arthur's veto of the Fitz-John Porter Bill. This veto is the parent of all the opposition that the Grant Retirement Bill has encountered, except the personal opposition of General Rosecrans, who will not be in the next House to fight the ex-commander of the Union armies. We have expressed the opinion that the Democrats in the House were acting unwisely in forcing an issue upon the President by compelling him to sign a bill at the expense of his consistency, or to veto it at the expense of his feelings and wishes. We remain of the opinion that games of this kind are bad politics. If anything could be gained by putting the President in a dilemma (which is doubtful), much more would be gained by a straightforward and manly course. Yet the blame should be distributed equitably, and it is impossible to deny that President Arthur paved the way for the mishap which the Grant Retirement Bill met in Monday's vote. He vetoed the Fitz-John Porter Bill in order to make himself a more acceptable candidate for the Republican party than he would have been if he had signed it. The constitutional objection which he raised against it was a "fetch." This is clearly proved by the fact that he had signed other bills of a similar character which were open to the same constitutional objection, and by the further fact that the Fitz-John Porter Bill did not direct the President to restore Porter to the army retired list, but merely authorized him to do so. The option to restore Porter or not was still in his discretion.

Mr. Holman and Mr. Randall rendered the public an important service on Friday by defeating the steamship subsidy, which had been proposed as an amendment to the Post-office Appropriation Bill. The vote by which it was rejected was close—105 to 97—but it was sufficient. This subsidy scheme is the same which has been haunting the lobbies of Congress during the past eight years. Sometimes it takes one form and sometimes another, but its substance is always the same. It is an endeavor to repair the injury which protection inflicts upon our ocean carrying trade by appropriations from the public treasury. Mr. Don Cameron was bold enough to make the avowal, in his remarks on a resolution recently introduced by himself favoring donations to American ships. He said that it was intended to carry the principle of protection to its logical consequences. Nobody who believes in protection ought to find fault with Mr. Cameron's resolution. Ships on the high seas cannot be protected by Custom-house duties. The ocean carrying trade must get its bonus, if at all, by direct payments from the Treasury. The refusal of the House to sanction such payments is an indication that the country has come to a halt, and

that the vicious practice of robbing Peter to pay Paul is not to be pushed any further, whether logical consistency requires it or not. The vote by which the subsidy was defeated will disperse the birds of prey for a season, but they will be back in Washington as soon as the new Congress assembles. Before that time comes we shall have a new Administration, in which schemes for taxing the many for the benefit of the few, and the poor for the benefit of the rich, we may hope, will find no favor.

Mr. Evarts had a reception at the Union League Club on Friday night, and made a speech which was listened to with much interest as an exposition of what his course was to be in the Senate, and what his views were on great public questions. He said that the Republican party had been defeated here in New York "at the centre of the array," but that it still held the Senate; that one President of the United States had thought it no descent to go into the Senate; that Mr. Morton, our Minister to France, was willing to go into the Senate, as were Mr. Hiscock and Mr. Russell, and he (Mr. Evarts) was willing to go too, when properly called upon; that when he is there he will no longer speak as a private citizen, but as a representative of the State of New York; that the two great parties are "the same in heart, in substance, in principle, and in purpose" as in 1860; that it is the duty of our representatives in Washington to see during the next four years that "as little detriment as possible" shall be done to the Republic; that he had much reason to believe that the Republican party would come back to power in 1888; that there must be no "discord" between now and then; that "secret and sinister methods by artificial combinations" will work "defeat, disorder, and disgrace," and that the late Senatorial contest had been "free, honest, and good-tempered."

A new woman-suffrage bill has been introduced in the New York Legislature, and one of the old-fashioned conventions has been sitting in this city during the past week. Woman-suffrage in this State inherited much of the reformatory zeal which lost its occupation by the emancipation of the slaves and the close of the war, and was urged upon the Constitutional Convention of 1866 by so respectable an advocate as George William Curtis, and, if we remember rightly, had Henry Ward Beecher as President of the Association in this city. But it received a severe blow from the figure cut by many of its leading supporters in the Tilton-Beecher scandal, and by the adhesion of Victoria Woodhull and some other women of her kind. From this it can hardly be said ever to have recovered. Reformers who were at all squeamish about the company they kept began to fight shy of it, and it came to have in the eyes of the general public the air of being the first stage on the road to something in the nature of "free love." In fact, if it were not for the greater respectability of the associations in Massachusetts, and the adoption of woman-suffrage in some of the extreme Western States and Territories, the movement would have kept itself alive here with great difficulty. The agitators here have of late addressed themselves almost exclusively to the Legislature, the members of which they threaten or cajole with considerable effect. Nearly all legislators live in terror about reëlection, and will grasp at almost anything which promises aid without involving any violation of party allegiance. Woman-suffrage happens to be an open question with both parties, and its friends may damage any legislator in his district to some extent, if they set about it in good earnest. Every man, too, who is not clad in triple brass, shrinks from feminine hostility publicly expressed. Even if it does not injure him, it is sure to make him more or less ridiculous. There are few men, also, who are insensible to feminine praise, and the cockles of whose hearts are not more or less warmed by finding that a certain number of members of the opposite sex consider him "a champion" of some form of right. In addition to these things, the woman-suffragists in this State have been and are making legislative converts by the fact that it is all but certain that an act bestowing the suffrage on women would be unconstitutional, and that consequently the passage of one would at worst be nothing more than a frolic. The woman-suffragists are now everywhere adopting the plan of attacking the legislatures of States where there is no constitutional restriction on the legislative admission of women to the franchise, and especially the legislatures of the new States of the far West, where population is sparse, women few, and where government is as yet of so little importance that few care how many experiments in it are made. They hope by their success with these to familiarize the older States sufficiently with women's voting to improve their chances of securing amendments to the Constitution wherever they are necessary.

In this State at present their chance of obtaining constitutional recognition would, we think, be very small. The movement has not among its professional advocates a single person, male or female, to whose opinions on any political change the New York public attaches any importance; a serious fact when taken in connection with the usually conservative temper of the New York voters. Moreover, it must be said that the samples which the suffragists have given, both here and in Massachusetts since 1870, of the kind of contributions they would make as voters to the political thought or action of the day, have not helped their cause. Their speeches and articles are still as shrill, incoherent, shallow, and irrelevant, their range of political knowledge as narrow, and their love of and reliance on personalities as great, as ever. What is worse, too, for them, is, that the activity and efficiency in a great many professions and callings of women who either care nothing for the suffrage, or are greatly opposed to it, have all the while been increasing rapidly. Besides this, there is a deep and growing conviction among a large body of the people of the State, that the problem which to-day most puzzles thoughtful men—the government of the large cities—would be rendered much more difficult, in some cases perhaps insoluble, by the enormous reinforcement which the ignorant and corrupt male vote would receive from woman suffrage. Strong therefore as the argument is which woman-suffragists may draw from the ignorance and unscrupulousness of large numbers of the men who hold the franchise in the great cities, the main body of people of a reforming turn, while acknowledging the discomforts of the frying-pan, cling desperately to it, as in all respects preferable to the fire.

The *Evening Post* publishes a letter from Bangor giving some official statistics of the liquor business and its effects in Maine. As the State has a stringent prohibitory law, these figures make curious reading. There is not a county in the State which has not places where liquor is sold openly, and many more where it is sold on the sly. One of the prison inspectors, who has travelled all over the State repeatedly, says he does not believe there is a village or town where liquor cannot be obtained by any one familiar with the ways of finding it. Intemperance is said to be the cause of three-fourths of the sentences to jail, and the principal directions in which crime is on the increase are violations of the liquor-law and drunkenness. Along the State line the traffic in liquor is especially brisk. One store in Aroostook County runs over the border into New Brunswick, and in this New Brunswick portion a large and inviting assortment of liquors is kept on hand, which any thirsty visitor may "sample" without molestation from Maine laws simply by walking the length of the store. The statistics show that the prohibitory law, instead of suppressing the liquor traffic, forces it to be conducted quietly. Undoubtedly it acts as a strong check upon it, but an equally strong check would be exercised by a high-license law, by which the State would gather a revenue.

We trust there is no truth in the reports that the prosecution of Short is in some way in the discretion of Phelan, and that the latter can, if he dislikes it or finds waiting here in the city too expensive, drop it and go off to Kansas or any place he pleases. Short's crime was a crime not against Phelan, but against the State, and his prosecution is, therefore, in the hands of the District Attorney, whose duty it is to see that Phelan is forthcoming on the trial, and made to testify whether he pleases or not. Things have not yet reached such a pass that dynamiters and conspirators can knife or pistol each other in this city on the sidewalk or on open stairways in broad daylight, and then treat it all as a private affair with which the public has no concern. If Phelan cannot afford to live here, the Sheriff can well supply him with board as long as may be necessary.

The inconvenience, not to say absurdity, of the American participation in the Congo Conference receives a fresh illustration nearly every day. The resolutions of the Conference would, of course, only amount to so much jabber if they were not embodied in a treaty signed by all the conferring Powers. When the time came for this, however, Mr. Kasson refused to sign in behalf of the United States, the State Department probably having found out by this time that it was on the verge of an "entangling alliance." There is now, therefore, another delay, as the Powers think the action of the Conference would have no moral weight if it were not unanimous. What makes

the matter worse is, that they have been listening for many weeks to a prodigous stream of talk, both from Mr. Kasson and Mr. Sanford, in the belief that it meant business—that is, that these gentlemen were talking with power to act.

The doings of Mr. Winans in Scotland, in appropriating 300 square miles of territory, extending from sea to sea, to a deer forest, seems likely to give a serious stimulus to the crofter agitation against the landlords now going on in the Highlands. It is hardly possible, indeed, that the new Parliament will fail to take up the question of land tenures in Scotland in much the same spirit in which the Irish land tenures have been dealt with. Many people believe Winans has made his deer forest with the view of performing a *reductio ad absurdum* on the pleas by which the eviction of families to make way for deer have been hitherto defended by both Scotch landlords and sportsmen. In other words, he shows the monstrous things which may be done under the law as it stands. He makes short work of the most sacred traditions of sport, by giving up deer-stalking wholly, as too fatiguing and tedious. He has the deer driven to some convenient trap, where he slaughters them at his leisure at short range, and leaves the carcasses which he does not want on the ground, and allows the wounded to perish miserably. He has evicted a great many families to make room for this sort of fun, and has prosecuted one man for letting a pet lamb trespass on his preserves. Moreover, he sets local opinion at defiance, and laughs at the local gentry when they send him to Coventry for his unsportsmanlike conduct. In fact, he has many of the marks of an American humorist, and has that specially American quality which Matthew Arnold extols in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century*, of "seeing straight and clear." John Morley has now almost promised his constituents that Winans will not be allowed his amusement much longer.

Lord Rosebery has at last got into the English Cabinet as Lord Privy Seal and First Commissioner of Public Works. Everybody who knows him will be glad to hear this, for he is one of the ablest of the younger generation of English politicians, as well as one of the most charming of talkers and orators. He has long been conspicuous as one of Mr. Gladstone's most devoted supporters, but has been too young to have much done for him in the way of political advancement, without the endorsement of a great constituency, and this, as he was in the House of Lords, he could not get. Mr. Fawcett's successor in the Post-office, Mr. Shaw Lefevre, has also been admitted to the Cabinet, which Mr. Fawcett was not. But the Cabinet needs strengthening, owing to the serious breakdown of Lord Granville and Lord Derby, both of whom are under a cloud for shortcomings in their respective offices, Foreign and Colonial.

The steps in the Sudan tragedy which the world is now witnessing are as follows: 1. Revolt of the Sudanese against the Egyptian Government, which had, since the conquest in 1868, been little better than organized robbery. 2. Ineffectual efforts of the Egyptian Government to suppress it, ending in the destruction of Hicks Pasha's army. 3. Refusal of England, which had in the meantime taken charge of Egypt, to allow these efforts to be repeated, in view of the condition of the Egyptian army and treasury. 4. Refusal of the Mahdi to allow the Egyptian garrisons in the Sudan to be withdrawn peaceably, followed by loud Jingo cries in England that it was a shame to leave these brave men to be massacred. 5. Slow acknowledgment of the British Ministry that something ought to be done for them if possible. 6. Appearance of General Gordon on the scene, offering to settle the whole matter single-handed by going himself to Khartum. 7. Acceptance of his offer by the Ministry, with emphatic warning that an armed expedition was not contemplated, and that if he failed he was to come back. 8. Further concession of the Ministry to the Jingoes by sending troops to Suakim, just to secure the port against Osman Digna. 9. Complete failure of Gordon to make any impression on the Sudanese as a deliverer, and his conversion into the commander of the Egyptian garrison in Khartum. 10. Announcement of Gordon that he would not come back, but would stay and "smash the Mahdi," if he could get some Indian or Turkish troops, or if European and American capitalists would lend him about a million dollars. 11. Growing impudence of Osman Digna at Suakim, leading to a sortie of the garrison, and two fights in which about 5,000 men were killed or disabled, just to teach him manners. 12. Gradual blockade of Gordon at Khartum, accompanied by loud Jingo cries that it was a shame to leave such a splendid fellow to be overwhelmed. 13. Gradual breaking down of the Ministerial determination not to meddle in the Sudan trouble, partly through fear of the Jingoes, and partly through fear of the effect which any sign of timidity might have on Germany and France and the Indian Mussulmans. 14. Determination to send 7,000 men and spend $50,000,000 in rescuing Gordon, as a splendid specimen of the British officer. 15. Death of Gordon before the arrival of the expedition. 16. Determination, since there was no Gordon to rescue, to prosecute the war, and "smash the Mahdi" anyhow, no matter at what cost in blood or treasure, but without any intention of keeping the Sudan.

This most lamentable affair has now entered on a new stage. About 500 English, Irish, and Scotchmen have already been killed or disabled. Some 5,000 Arabs, whose bravery and devotion everybody admires, have been mercilessly slaughtered or driven home as cripples, and their villages burned. The campaign which is now opening will probably bring Wolseley's force up to 25,000 men, and, as far as we can see, he is going to undertake a siege of Khartum in the middle of an equatorial summer, and in a deadly climate. If he determines to make a long job of it, his own men will die of disease like cockroaches; if a short one, as is more probable, he will have to deliver desperate assaults against an enemy who excels in hand-to-hand fighting. The result in any case will be the loss of hundreds at least of British lives, and an addition of say, $200,000,000 to the public debt, besides two or three pence in the pound to the income tax. This is the prospect at present. Wolseley's proverbial good luck may get him out of the scrape at less cost, but the chances are against it. The Suakim route to Berber is to be opened under General Graham, who commanded in the fight with Osman Digna. There are to be one hundred and thirty miles of railroad and an intrenched camp constructed, from which there will be a march of one hundred miles over a very bad desert. There is a powerful passage in De Maistre, apropos of war, describing the loathing and disgust which would be excited in the human breast by the spectacle of tens of thousands of cats meeting in a great plain, and scratching and biting each other till half their number were dead and mangled. To beings superior to man, conflicts like this in the Sudan must have much the same look of grotesque horror.

Wolseley's objections to the Suakim route to Berber as a quick means of communication with Khartum have now been fully justified since the Sudan enterprise has assumed larger proportions, by the order to make a railroad over at least part of it. No better acknowledgment of its difficulty for the march of an army in the presence of a watchful and hardy foe could be made. The water supply at any of the wells is only sufficient for small bodies of men, and much of the country is mountainous and rough. The railroad will take long to make, will cost heavily, and will absorb a considerable force in guards. Every yard of it will have to be patrolled night and day, and water-carrying will be one of its chief functions. Osman Digna is now reported as having a very large force along the route, and he evidently will not be as ready to attack squares as he has been. He can employ his forces far better in mere annoyance.

One of the latest London stories about Gordon, and one probably true, is that Lord Wolseley received a long despatch from him strongly denunciatory of the Government, which the Ministry refuses to publish, and the Jingo newspapers evidently look on this as a most disgraceful act. There is nothing odder in English history than the position which party spirit has led the Tories to give Gordon. He was either in the service of the Government, or he was not. If he was, his conduct in remaining at Khartum, and sending home lectures to his superiors, was grossly insubordinate, and such as Tories are ordinarily the first to condemn. If he was not, and remained at Khartum simply as a private adventurer, he remained at his own risk, and the fitting out of an expedition to rescue him is a scandalous waste of blood and treasure. There is also another story, that he sent Colonel Stewart away in order to save his life, as he despaired of relief. But this is contradicted by his latest despatches, which showed he had no doubt of his ability to hold the place. Moreover, it was not characteristic of the man to despair of anything. He probably never despaired in the whole course of his adventurous life. Nor is there the slightest reason for believing that he was not from the first secure in Khartum against everything but treachery, and this he clearly did not expect.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 11, to TUESDAY, February 17, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

BOTH branches of Congress met in the hall of the House of Representatives on Wednesday, at noon, in pursuance of the Constitution and the laws, to count the electoral vote for President and Vice President. Senator Edmunds, as President of the Senate, presided over the joint convention, opened the certificates from the States, and handed them to the tellers, who declared the result in each. When all had been announced, Senator Edmunds declared that the tellers reported 219 votes for Cleveland and Hendricks, and 182 votes for Blaine and Logan, and that the former had a majority and appeared to be elected President and Vice-President of the United States for four years from March 4, 1885. He added: "And the President of the Senate makes this declaration only as a public statement, in the presence of the two houses of Congress, of the contents of the papers opened and read on this occasion, and not as possessing any authority in law to declare any legal conclusion whatever." Here the immense audience broke into applause and cheers, which the presiding officer attempted to suppress, but with little success.

The peculiar form of Senator Edmunds's declaration of the result attracted immediate attention as being without precedent. The announcement was designed to call attention to the fact that there is no law which gives to the joint convention the authority to declare who is elected President; that the only office the joint convention has is to count the vote and declare the result. The Republican Senators were angered by the form of Mr. Edmunds's declaration of the result. The dissatisfaction was expressed immediately upon the reassembling of the Senate. Messrs. Conger, Ingalls, Wilson, and others, wished to have recorded their formal protest against such an announcement of the vote. They maintained that Mr. Edmunds had surrendered the Republican position as to the powers of the Vice-President in counting the vote. A resolution setting forth their views was submitted by Mr. Ingalls and referred to a committee. Mr. Edmunds asserts that his declaration respects only his individual views of the Constitution.

In the House on Wednesday, Mr. Keifer moved a resolution declaring that no further declaration of the result of the electoral-vote count was necessary, but on Mr. Springer's motion the resolution was laid on the table. During a short debate, Mr. Springer asserted that Mr. Edmunds's course was contrary to all precedent, and Mr. Blackburn remarked that the Senator had made exactly the proper declaration. A motion was passed to appoint a joint committee to inform Messrs. Cleveland and Hendricks of their election.

In the Senate on Friday, Mr. Ingalls said he had seen it stated in the Opposition quarters that the Republicans were trying to compel an extra session, and he would be glad to have a statement of the condition of the appropriation bills. Mr. Allison, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Appropriations, replied that the Military Academy Bill was the only one which had become a law. The District of Columbia, Pensions, and Consular and Diplomatic Bills are in conference. The Army Bill passed the Senate on Thursday. The Indian Bill was reported on Friday, leaving only the Agricultural Bill in the hands of the Committee. The Post-office, the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial, the Naval, the Fortifications, the General Deficiency, and the Sundry Civil Bills—six of the most important—had not been received from the House. Mr. Beck said that, after a number of years' experience on Appropriation Committees of both houses, he could not recall any last session of Congress when at this period the appropriation work was better advanced. Mr. Allison said that he felt sure that if the House got along reasonably well with the bills they would all be passed without any trouble.

Mr. Randall insists that an extra session of Congress will not be necessary. He is charged with having kept back the appropriation bills to the last minute, so that there would not be an opportunity for any other legislation, and he has succeeded.

The House on Thursday considered the Postal Appropriation Bill. Liberal additions were made to the items for Star-route transportation, railway postal clerks, etc., and $266,764 was inserted for the fast-mail service. The paragraph fixing the rate for first-class matter at two cents per ounce or fraction thereof (instead of half an ounce as now) was adopted, to take effect July 1, and it was provided that publications of the second class (newspapers and periodicals to subscribers) may be sent to bona-fide subscribers for one cent per pound, half the present rate. On Friday the House in committee struck out the Pacific Mail subsidy provision by a vote of 105 to 97, and in the House proper, on Saturday, it was rejected, 129 to 113.

The Senate River and Harbor Bill was introduced on Wednesday. It is the same as the bill reported by Representative Willis from the River and Harbor Committee of the House, except that the projected improvements of Sandy Bay, Mass., and Galveston Harbor, Texas, the proposed construction of the Hennepin Canal, and the provision making Eads the advisory engineer of the Mississippi River Commission, are not included in the bill.

The Senate passed on Monday the Indian Appropriation Bill practically as reported by the Senate Committee. The Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads reported favorably what is known as the "subsidy clause," proposed by Mr. Frye, to the Post-office Appropriation Bill.

In the House on Monday the Grant Retirement Bill (the first passed by the Senate) was taken up. Thirty minutes' debate was allowed. General Rosecrans made an attack on General Grant. The motion to suspend the rules and pass the bill was lost—yeas 158, nays 103—not the requisite two-thirds in the affirmative.

Mr. Dorsheimer (Dem., N. Y.) introduced a bill in the House on Tuesday to regulate the coinage and promote the circulation of gold and silver equally.

The Army Appropriation Bill, as reported to the Senate by the Committee on Appropriations, appropriates $23,949,052, being $2,161,437 less than the estimates, $505,397 less than the appropriations made for the current year, and $470,000 less than the amount of the House bill.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Thursday decided to report, relative to the dynamite resolutions, that it was unbecoming the dignity of the House of Representatives to assume that American citizens had been in any way connected with these crimes when no charges had been made, and that the Committee was unwilling to request an officer of the Government to search for proof of guilt when there was NO charge.

The bill to prevent the illegal fencing in of public lands in the West has gone to the President.

The second annual report of the Civil-Service Commission, covering a period from January 16, 1884, to January 16, 1885, was sent to Congress by the President on Wednesday. It says the Civil-Service Law has been found practicable and effective for the accomplishment of its purpose. During the year persons have been examined from every State and Territory except Idaho. One hundred and sixty-two examinations have been held, and 6,347 persons have been examined, of whom 5,525 were males and 822 were females. Of those examined 4,141 passed at a grade showing them competent for the public service, and 2,306 failed. The report states in detail the education of 5,556 of those examined, and of these the education was as follows: 3,920 only in common schools, 1,960 in part in high schools or academies, 91 in part in business colleges, 459 in part in colleges. More than 70 per cent. of them therefore had only a common-school education. The fact that but 449 out of 5,556 had been in college seems to show that the great body of the public servants are being drawn from the class who are educated in the public schools.

Ex-Assistant District-Attorney O'Byrne and Assemblyman Oliver were the only persons who appeared before the Assembly Judiciary Committee at Albany on Thursday to favor the bills which do away with some features of the Civil-Service Reform Law. Mr. George Walton Green, on behalf of the New York Civil-Service Association, especially opposed the bill seeking to exempt from the operations of the law honorably discharged Union soldiers and sailors and volunteer exempt firemen, and the bill proposing to remove the Police and Fire Departments from the operations of the law.

The Republican members of both houses of the Illinois Legislature refused on Wednesday to vote for United States Senator. The Democrats cast 74 for Morrison and 1 for Haines, but there was no quorum. No ballot has since been taken.

A brilliant reception was given at the Union League Club-house in this city on Friday evening to Mr. William M. Evarts, President of the Club, in honor of his election as United States Senator from New York. Mr. Evarts made an address extolling the record of the Republican party, predicting its success in the next contest for the control of the Government, and referring in kindly terms to his competitors in the Senatorial election.

A remarkable assemblage of men distinguished in the professions gathered on Friday evening at the house of Cyrus W. Field, in Gramercy Park, to congratulate David Dudley Field on having reached his eightieth birthday.

At a special meeting held recently the Faculty of Harvard College voted to put themselves on record as being in favor of making attendance on morning prayers voluntary to all undergraduates. Concurrent action by the overseers is necessary before the change can be made.

By a fire in the insane department of the Philadelphia Almshouse, on Thursday night, 19 lunatics were burned to death.

Dr. Leopold Damrosch, musical and general director of the German opera at the Metropolitan Opera-house, died of pneumonia on Sunday afternoon at his home in this city, after a brief illness. He was fifty-three years of age. In 1871 he came to this city from Germany, where he had acquired high reputation as leader of the Breslau orchestra and as a violinist. In this city he organized the Oratorio and Symphony societies, and the May festival of 1882. Having been chosen to direct the fortunes of the Metropolitan Opera-house, he sailed for Germany last summer, and in five weeks organized the company whose stay in this city now draws near to a close. His career as a conductor of German opera was successful in every respect.

Francis A. Drexel, the senior partner in the well-known Drexel banking houses of Philadelphia, New York, and Paris, died suddenly on Sunday in Philadelphia, at the age of sixty-one.

B. B. Hotchkiss, the famous gun inventor, died in Paris on Saturday at the age of fifty-five. He was born in Connecticut and began life as a machinist.

FOREIGN.

The British forces in Egypt have met with another great loss. Major-General William Earle, who was leading the British column of 2,500 troops from Korti to Berber by way of Abu-Hamed, along the Nile, was killed on February 10, during a charge on a fortified Arab position near Binti at El Kerbekan. General Brackenbury, who took command of the forces when General Earle fell, sent on Thurs-

day from Dulka Island, about seventy miles above Meraweh, an account of the engagement to General Wolseley, in which he said: "The attack was well planned and gallantly executed. Our expectation is that the effect will be to open the way to Berber without further fighting. The rebels held a high ridge of razor-backed hills, with some advanced 'koppies' in front, close to the river. Six companies of the Black Watch regiment and six companies of the South Staffordshire regiment marched around the high ridge of hills, entirely turning the enemy's position, which was attacked from the rear. The number of the enemy was not great, but their position was extremely strong, and they fought with the most determined bravery. The Black Watch advanced over rocks and broken ground upon the koppies. They answered the fire of the enemy in the coolest manner possible, and, after they had thereby driven off the enemy's charge, they stormed the position under heavy fire. General Earle was among the foremost in this attack, and, to the deep sorrow of every officer and man in the force, he was killed just as the summit of the first koppie was reached. At the same time the six companies of the Staffordshire regiment went to the attack of a high ridge, the way to which lay over the most difficult ground possible. In this attack their gallant commanding officer, Lieutenant-Colonel Eyre, was killed. Meanwhile the Nineteenth Hussars had captured the enemy's camp and our success was complete." The enemy's losses were great, estimated at 600 killed. The British lost 3 officers and 9 men killed, and 4 officers and 42 wounded. Other accounts show that the charge was a very gallant one. General Earle, who fell at the head of his men, was a brave soldier, between fifty and sixty years of age, who as a young officer saw considerable service in the Crimean war, and who distinguished himself at Tell el-Kebir in 1882.

General Brackenbury telegraphed from Kerbekan, on February 11, a translation of an Arabic document found near the camp deserted by the rebels the day before. It is from the Governor of Berber to his faithful followers, and says: "To-day, after midday prayer, I received a letter from the Faithful Khalifa Abdullah Eden Mohammed, in which he says that Khartum was taken on Monday, ninth Rabi, 1302, on the side of Elhaui, in the following manner: El Mahdi prayed and blessed the troops, who then advanced against the fortifications. They entered Khartum in a quarter of an hour, killed the traitor Gordon, and captured his steamers and boats. God has made him glorious. Be grateful, and thank and praise God for his unspeakable mercy. I announce it to you." "Ninth Rabi" corresponds to January 26.

Lord Wolseley telegraphed from Korti on Thursday to the Government that no trustworthy particulars about Gordon's fate had yet been received; that all published accounts were based on rumors.

Despatches from Korti on Saturday were published in London, asserting that messengers had arrived there who left Khartum six days after Sir Charles Wilson appeared before the city in boats. They professed ignorance of the fall of Khartum or Gordon's reported death. The Government authorities announced that they discredited the reports.

A cavass of Ibrahim Bey Ruchdi, who left Khartum a fortnight ago, arrived at Korti on Sunday. He states that Farag admitted the rebels to Khartum. The cavass, with his master, went to the Government-house and met Gordon coming out armed, with Mahommed Bey Mustapha and twenty cavasses. While proceeding to the Austrian Consulate they met a party of rebels, who fired a volley. Gordon and Mahommed Mustapha fell dead.

The diary kept by General Gordon in Khartum, with entries up to December 10, 1884, is reported to be at present in possession of the British Government. The Conservative papers charge the Government with suppressing the diary and letters, in which Gordon stated that he sent Colonel Stewart away from Khartum in order to save his (Stewart's) life, intending himself to meet death at Khartum, as he knew no help could reach there in time to rescue him. When Parliament assembles, the production of all despatches of the Government in regard to the Sudan campaign will be demanded.

The British Cabinet on Wednesday approved General Wolseley's plan for an early advance from Suakim to Berber. A narrow-gauge railway will be laid to Ariab, 130 miles west of Suakim, where an intrenched camp will be formed, with a central depot for stores. English firms offer to build the road in a fortnight. Leaving Ariab, the troops will proceed by forced marches to Berber. Other despatches assert that the railroad will be laid the whole way to Berber.

The expectation of the British war officials is that the forces will reach Berber by April 25. Hassan Bey, brother of the Khedive, has, at the request of General Wolseley, assumed the command of the Egyptian forces in the Sudan. This is to indicate that England has no desire to conquer Egypt for herself. Radical members of Parliament are organizing opposition to the Government on the Sudan question.

The contingent from India to take part in the Suakim-Berber expedition has been raised to 3,000 men. General Hudson will be in command of the contingent, which is expected to arrive at Suakim several days before the Guards reach there. The entire force for the expedition is due at Suakim within three weeks. General Graham has been appointed to the command of the Suakim-Berber expedition. General Freemantle will command the Guards, and General Greaves act as chief of staff..

General Wolseley was compelled to remain at Korti until Monday, owing to the importance of the communications constantly passing between him and the Government. He started for Gubat on Monday.

Despatches from Massowah state that the situation there has improved steadily since the Italian occupation.

It is estimated that Osman Digna has 12,000 hostile Arabs at Tamai.

A spy returned to Suakim on Friday from Hesheim, the place where the reconnoitring party of Hussars and Egyptians were attacked on February 3. The Hussars got as far as Handub without opposition, but, having on their way out burned a native village without reason, they were attacked on their return at Hesheim. The attacking party lay in ambush, and the Arab fire was so terrible that the Hussars could not face it, and saved themselves from annihilation by retreating at full gallop to Suakim. Eight Hussars and three Egyptians were lost. Spies were at once sent out to ascertain the fate of the missing troopers. The spy who has returned could learn nothing of them, but he found in the desert, near the scene of the fight, several articles of clothing which had evidently belonged to the missing men. They were all pierced, as if by spears.

The recent dynamite explosion in the House of Commons having demonstrated the fact that, under the existing rules governing the admission of strangers to the galleries and lobbies, it would be an easy matter for dynamiters to convey explosives into the buildings during a session of Parliament, the Government has decided to adopt more stringent rules regulating the admission of visitors. Members of Parliament in future will not be allowed to introduce strangers into the galleries and lobbies. The Speaker of the House of Commons will alone have the right of granting tickets, and he will only issue tickets to members for their friends after having received a week's notice, so that in the meantime the antecedents of the proposed visitor can be inquired into.

The police and other witnesses for the Crown in the case of James G. Cunningham, the alleged dynamiter, charged with high treason-felony, have received letters threatening them with death if they persist in giving damaging testimony against the prisoner.

Further testimony was presented on Monday at the Bow Street Police Court, London, against Cunningham and Burton, inculpating them in the Gower Street Station explosion of January 2 last. They were remanded for one week.

It was announced in London on Wednesday afternoon that the police had made an important seizure of dynamite on the Harrow Road. It was found in a bookstore occupied by two supposed Americans. Later reports proved the affair to be of little account.

Cardinal McCabe died in Dublin early on Wednesday morning, after a brief illness, at the age of sixty-nine. He took a prominent part in Irish politics, and on several occasions warned the people against the principles of the Land League. He was made Cardinal on March 30, 1882. A pastoral letter, written just before the Cardinal's death, was read in Dublin churches on Sunday, solemnly warning the people against the dynamiters.

There was a demonstration of 3,000 unemployed workmen in London on Monday. They invaded Downing Street, and were dispersed by the police.

It was officially announced on Wednesday in London that Lord Rosebery had been appointed Lord Privy Seal and also First Commissioner of Public Works. Both Lord Rosebery and Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, Postmaster-General, will occupy seats in the Cabinet.

It was announced on Thursday that the Government of Portugal and the International African Association had been enabled, through the mediation of England, France, and Germany, to reach an understanding in regard to the rights claimed by each along the Congo River.

The final adjournment of the West African Conference at Berlin is delayed by the action of the delegate from the United States. Minister Kasson opposes the proposal to make the acts of the Conference equivalent to a treaty between the Powers represented, and refuses to sign the memorandum which has been drafted. The other Ambassadors are impatient over the delay.

Germany has annexed the island of Samoa despite the protests of the English and American consuls.

The German Reichstag on Monday agreed to raise the duties on rye and wheat to three marks. During the debate, when Bismarck was speaking, a great tumult arose among the Socialists. They were severely rebuked by Bismarck.

A despatch from Tonquin on Thursday stated that the French column which was advancing toward Langson under the command of General Brière Delisle had had three days' hard fighting in the defiles of the mountains. The French losses were heavy, but the troops were making steady progress despite the obstinate resistance of the Chinese.

General Brière Delisle telegraphed on Sunday that the French occupied Langson on February 13. A battle was fought between the French and Chinese not far from the town. The fighting was severe.

The French loss at the taking of Langson was 30 killed and 222 wounded.

A terrific explosion occurred in a powder magazine at Gibraltar on Monday, killing seventeen men and doing considerable damage otherwise.

Advices from Durban, South Africa, state that the bellicose section of the Boers declare that if a single shot is fired in Bechuanaland, they will absorb the colony of Natal. The inhabitants of the latter country are firmly resolved to resist the aggression of the Boers.

SENATOR EDMUNDS AND THE ELECTORAL COUNT.

THERE is something very amusing about the commotion which Senator Edmunds has created in both houses of Congress by his brief declaration that, as President of the Senate, he had no "authority in law to declare any legal conclusion whatever" concerning the electoral count over which he presided on Wednesday. He made the declaration that Cleveland and Hendricks were elected, "only as a public statement in the presence of the two houses of Congress." This is precisely in accordance with the position which Mr. Edmunds held in the bitter controversy of 1877, and he doubtless took genuine pleasure on Wednesday week in having his decision officially entered upon the record as a precedent. If the Senators and Congressmen who are disposed to question the sound constitutionality of his decision will turn to the debates in Congress in January and February, 1877, they will find much instructive matter for contemplation.

At the outset of the Tilden-Hayes controversy, all the extreme Republican partisans, led by Senator Morton and "Zach" Chandler, took the ground that the President of the Senate had absolute power to count the vote in case the two houses were unable to agree. Their position was substantially this: "Granted that the two houses of Congress have the right to count the votes, if they please. The exercise of it, however, requires joint action expressed by some prior resolution, or rule, or statute. If they adopt no such joint method, they cannot count. If they cannot, the President of the Senate, from the necessity of the case, must do so, and, as presiding officer of the joint convention, he is under the control of neither, and, having no joint instructions, must count as he thinks fit." Any one can see at a glance that this was an iron-clad, fire-proof plan for the purpose designed, namely, to secure the Presidency for Mr. Hayes in spite of all obstacles. The President of the Senate was a Republican, and could be depended upon to decide every disputed Southern State's vote in favor of Hayes. The plan was supported with great unanimity by the Republican press, and any criticism of its fairness was denounced as "heresy" of the most unpardonable kind. Yet Mr. Edmunds did not fear to raise his voice against it. He refused to support it at all, and sustained instead the Electoral Commission Bill, which was constructed on the assumption that the President of the Senate had no power whatever over the count. His strongest ally was Senator Conkling, and it was through the combined efforts of the two that the Morton-Chandler plan was defeated and the Commission adopted in its stead. On the final vote in the Senate the Commission Bill was opposed by sixteen Republicans, who followed Morton's and Chandler's lead, of whom about half were Southern carpet-baggers. Twenty-one Republican Senators supported it, and it was adopted by a vote of 47 to 17. The result was a grievous disappointment to the advocates of the other plan, but when the Commission decided in favor of Hayes their faith in the perpetuity of Republican institutions was restored. Anything more monstrous than their assumption that the Vice-President had power to decide absolutely all disputed questions concerning the electoral count, it would be difficult to conceive.

The vote of 1877 ought to have been considered final in the matter, and probably would have been, had not Vice-President Wheeler departed from all precedent when, after the counting had been completed in 1881, he declared:

"Wherefore I do declare that James A. Garfield, of the State of Ohio, having received a majority of the votes of the whole number of electors appointed, is duly elected President of the United States for four years, commencing on the 4th day of March, 1881; and I do further declare that Chester A. Arthur, of the State of New York, having received a majority of the votes of the whole number of electors appointed, is duly elected Vice-President of the United States for four years, commencing on the 4th day of March, 1881."

It is probable that Mr. Edmunds had this declaration in mind when he made his statement. He has done the country a service in setting the record right, and a further service in calling fresh attention to the need of legislation providing some means for disposing of disputed returns. There was no need of such a law this year, and the formalities were carried through easily enough under the old joint rule, which was adopted again for the occasion; but if there had been a disputed return we should have been confronted with a situation full of perils. The extraordinary bitterness of the last campaign, combined with the now almost universal belief that a gross fraud was perpetrated in 1877, would have made an electoral controversy a grave danger to our institutions.

The present session is so nearly ended that there is no hope for any action on the question by either house. There are two bills providing methods for counting the vote pending in Congress at this time. One is the Edmunds bill, which has passed the Senate twice, and is an admirable measure, and the other is the Eaton bill, drawn by Congressman Eaton, of Connecticut. Mr. Edmunds's plan provides that each State may establish tribunals for the trial of electoral contests, and that their decision shall be final; that if there be any dispute as to the lawfulness of the State tribunal, or if there be double returns from a State which has not provided such a tribunal, only that return shall be counted which the two houses, acting separately, shall concur in receiving, and that any single return shall be counted unless rejected by both. The Eaton bill, which is proposed as a substitute, provides that the two houses of Congress shall meet in joint convention, and gives the majority of both houses the right to accept or reject votes in the same manner as the majority in the houses of State legislatures in joint convention elect United States Senators. This would give the final decision in almost every case to the Lower House, for its greater numerical strength would outweigh the Senate in all disputed questions. The Edmunds bill provides a means for getting the disputed returns out of Congress entirely, by having them settled in the State in which they originate. There can be no valid objection to this, and every argument for public peace and safety is in its favor.

THE MONEY MATTERS OF THE BONAPARTES.

ONE of the first things done by the French Government after the war was over in 1871, was to appoint a commission to collect, classify, and publish the private papers and correspondence of the Imperial family found in the Tuileries after their flight. The Commission was appointed in September, 1870, and early in October it had issued two volumes, one of 480, and the other of 288 pages, which were extensively distributed, but, strange to say, almost immediately disappeared, and have ever since been all but impossible to find. A writer in the January number of the *Edinburgh Review* seems to have got hold of a copy, and makes a synopsis which certainly contains some facts that no Frenchman ought to be able to read without a blush. The papers show that the French nation in 1851, seventy years after the great Revolution, allowed a vulgar adventurer to take almost as complete and as irresponsible control of its Treasury as Louis XIV., who had all the traditions of the old monarchy behind him, and who governed in an age when no Continental nation had ever voted its taxes or seen a budget.

The private correspondence of the Emperor and the memorandum books of his Secretaries prove that the Bonaparte family—that is, the Emperor's relations, far and near—received from him, between 1853 and 1870, in the way of gifts or allowances, and without any service rendered therefor to the State, over $14,000,000. Besides this the Emperor distributed in "allocations, subventions, pensions, gifts, succors, indemnities, and encouragements to art, science, and literature," over $10,000,000. To this must be added various allocations on "the privy purse," a special fund reserved by the Emperor for his personal use. Under this head about $200,000 were distributed annually by M. Thélin, "the keeper of the privy purse." Then there were other distributions of a similar character by Persigny, one of the conspirators of the *Coup d'État*, when he was Minister of the Interior, making altogether, the Commission estimate, about $14,000,000 more. All this $38,000,000 comes under the head of "munificence." It has nothing to do with the regular civil list or salary paid to the Emperor, or rather appropriated by him, as "Chief of the State."

The number of smaller pensioners and beneficiaries was very great. Napoleon's mistress before his marriage, a Miss Howard, received, between 1853 and 1855, $1,089,000. Letters were found from her later, in 1855, asking for $500,000 more. There are memoranda showing that in one year, not mentioned, but doubtless soon after his marriage, there was sent to his mother-in-law in Spain, the Countess de Montijo, no less than $1,358,160. The Empress had a regular allowance of $20,000 a month. The Emperor was, in fact, very generous to various women. A certain Mlle. Marguerite Bellanger acknowledges gratefully the receipt of considerable amounts, but there is no trace of the exact sums. A Countess Émilie Campana had endorsed a note for him, when he was President, for $6,600. By 1870 she had received nearly $80,000. Miss Mary Gwynne, another mistress, apparently received, between 1846 and 1868, $26,000 by

way of pension; then she got $5,000 by way of "dot" on her marriage in 1852, and then $2,500 by way of "succor" in 1868. A lady named "T." got in 1857 alone the enormous sum of $40,000. Another, Mlle. Alexandrine Vergeot, got numerous sums, finishing up with $5,000 in 1852. The christening of the Prince Imperial cost $180,000. Besides all this, it appears that the Emperor had in 1866, on deposit with the Barings in London, nearly $5,000,000 in money and securities, as a provision for a rainy day.

The corruption of the rest of the gang, of course, kept pace, according to their opportunities, with that of their chief. Morny got 30 per cent. on the Jecker bonds for his influence in forcing a recognition of them from Mexico, and grew, as is well known, enormously rich in similar ways. Magnan, another confidant of the *Coup d'État*, was made a marshal, with good pay, allowances, and chances, but nevertheless died $167,000 in debt, which was discharged by the Emperor. Fialin, alias Persigny, pocketed, undoubtedly, large amounts also, but they were mainly through salaries and allowances for the high offices he held. He was undoubtedly, too, Louis Napoleon's go-between in many dirty transactions. There is one memorandum showing that an offer of $20,000 was made through him for "the authorization by the Prince of the docks for the Rouen railway," which was doubtless accepted. In fact, between 1848 and the *Coup d'État* in 1851, the Prince and his friends were very "short." They came over from London wretchedly poor and heavily in debt, and when he was elected President it was at a comparatively small salary, and without access to the Treasury. There is abundant evidence that during this period he was "on the make," and borrowing heavily on the strength of his criminal designs against the Republic.

The publication of these papers by the Thiers Government was a mistake committed in the first moments of anti-Bonapartist rage and mortification, and without thinking of the humiliating light in which they would present France to the world. This was probably soon recognized, and the suppression was doubtless due to the exertions of the Government itself. That a nation as great as France, which had experienced both Louis XIV. and Louis XV., which remembered the building of Versailles and the orgies of the Parc aux Cerfs, should, in our own time, after thirty-five years' experience of parliamentary government and of a free press, give its Army and Treasury over for twenty years to the absolute control of a crapulous adventurer and a small party of his broken-down companions, and never call him to account until he had failed in a great war, is surely the most striking phenomenon of recent history. When we reflect, too, that during all this time the Empress was very pious, and that no sceptic or rationalist was allowed to get any of "the boodle," and that the maintenance of the temporal power of the Pope was one of the most sacred portions of the Imperial mission, the picture becomes complete to the point of absurdity.

It is needless to add that the first Napoleon managed the National Exchequer in precisely the same manner. He levied what he chose, disposed of the taxes as he chose, and rendered no accounts. M. Léon Say brings to light, in a recent discussion of the national finances, the remarkable fact that there is no trace whatever in the French archives of the receipt of the $15,000,000 paid by the United States for the purchase of Louisiana. The First Consul, doubtless, pocketed it and spent it as he thought proper.

A FRENCH EXHIBITION IN LONDON.

LONDON, February 1, 1885.

THE "Salon Parisien" in Bond Street is composed chiefly of the works of a Belgian artist, Jan Van Beers, who holds a high position in Paris as a very skilful painter of a class of subjects tolerated only by people whose taste has been thoroughly demoralized by luxury and vice. Mr. Van Beers has chosen the scenes he depicts from the demi-monde and the corps de ballet surrounded by the evidences of ill-gotten wealth. It is a relief to turn for a few moments to inspect the crape-draped case containing the last unfinished work of Bastien-Lepage in this same exhibition. How true and serious and how pathetic is the little Chimney Sweep in his patched black and gray garment. His face is solidly modelled, and so firmly painted that he seems to live; the face and hands are grimy with soot, especially the latter, yet one can see the flesh, warm and palpitating, through the smears of black, and the relief is perfect throughout. The child sits on a low chair before the dying embers of a little iron basket of charcoal; he holds in his hand a large slice of bread upon which lies a small piece of ham. He has just thrown a tiny scrap of fat to a playful gray kitten at his feet, and he is watching her seize the dainty morsel, while a white cat opposite the child is gravely looking at him, patiently waiting her turn for his bounty. The scant furniture of the room is extremely battered. This portion of the picture (the background) is unfinished, as is also the white cat in the foreground, which is merely blocked in; but nothing could be more masterly than the painting of the kitten, and yet, when one looks into the work, it seems to be done in a few touches, which give form, detail, color and texture of fur, as perfectly as one could desire. The child's shirt, too, shows almost the threads of the coarse dark linen stuff of which it is made, and yet all is done with ease and with no elaboration, and the face is kept the principal point, with its kind, pathetic, childish look of interest in the kitten.

As we return to examine Mr. Van Beers's pictures the attendant hands us a magnifying glass, that we may note the wonderful finish with which he treats every inch of his work—for the most part ballet girls in very eccentric costumes, flinging themselves in many graceless attitudes on complicated sofas upholstered in the very latest fashion as to variety of stuffs and complications of passementeries and tassels, in plush-lined boudoirs strewn with lion and tiger skins. Of these smaller pictures there are more than a dozen, all very cleverly executed as to painting of stuffs and indication of textures, but very characterless in flesh-painting and conventional as to the type of head. "Mélancolie," No. 4, is a good example of the small pictures. A girl in a pale-yellow short silk dress is lying at full length on a gray-blue couch ornamented by variegated tassels and stuffs. She is stretching out her feet, covered with tawny gold-colored silk stockings, of which one can see the meshes. The painting of the closely-pleated flouncing of yellow, enclosing a crisply-starched, flounced white petticoat, is marvellous. The brilliant black of the hair gives the dark note to this harmony, while the floor is covered by the skin of a lion, and the background here and there shows suspicions of strawberry pink in the hangings. This is one of the prettiest and most refined of this class of subjects, and we must acknowledge that the smaller size suits this painter's capacities best. In "Peace with Honor"—a life-size soldier in scarlet, flirting with a nursemaid on a bench in a spinach-green park—we see a very poor sample of impressionist painting: everything is heavy and gray and flat, and the color throughout is monotonous.

The place of honor in the Exhibition is held by a more attractive subject, "Embarqués," and we recognize at once a work which would exactly satisfy the artistic limitations of the public, and which has already become popular and fetched a very high price. The canvas (a square one) is covered with transparent gray-green sea, through which an outrigger is cutting. The lady facing us is steering; she fills the greater part of the picture with a harmony of blues. Her costume is luminously rendered and cool in tint. She is so attentively steering that she is heedless of soiling her long pearl-gray gloves, and does not perceive that a large lion-skin which has been thrown across the narrow seat on which she is sitting, is dipping into the water. Her dress is of the palest tint of blue, almost white; her silken petticoat a tone deeper; her stockings bluer still, and her parasol pale blue, while a bunch of blue cornflowers in her black bonnet give the brightest note, and the black boots repeat the black of the bonnet. The young man rowing has his back to us and occupies the foreground. His arms are bare, and their untanned look and his generally refined appearance and fashionable yachting jersey show that he belongs to the "jeunesse dorée," and that he is embarked in a perilous adventure, led by the handsome lady who steers. The flesh is smoothly painted and well modelled, though the treatment in this case, as in all other examples here, shows that flesh is not Van Beers's strong point, and we should suppose that he felt this himself, as he has not treated the nude in his many vagaries on the walls around. But the "Embarqués," agreeable in line and color, and with fine atmospheric effect, is quite the most artistic example, though of well-painted lace, plush, and velvet and silk hose there is no lack.

There are a number of female heads, large-eyed, small-mouthed, of the conventionally pretty type, all very poor in painting; and a very clever mad life-size head, floating in its cap and bells on a vermilion background, spotted with black or blue. Nothing could be more ghastly than this sight, for the head is realistically painted, the eyes are sunk and mad-looking, the flesh seems nearly livid against the scarlet background, and the grimacing pale-blue red mouth is open and hideous. Why should art be put to such a purpose? There are other examples of this kind here—a Pierrot (a sculpture) modelled up in white, the color dabbed on, looking and grinning from its plush stand in the middle of the room, with a tambourine behind the head on which are painted dancing ballet girls.

Among the 300 landscapes, mostly about three inches by six, or thereabouts, there are very beautiful effects very cleverly rendered—some with surprising dash and rapidity, others with more elaboration. Here we see that our artist has great gifts for landscape, which we could not suspect from the larger examples in the backgrounds to figures about the room.

Besides Van Beers's works there is a room of Belgian artists composed of no very striking examples of well-known names. There are also two colored pieces of sculpture by Ringel, the "Rakoczy," No. 86, a life-size musician, evidently a portrait, in a long coat, playing on a two-stringed instrument taller than himself. He is bending over it in a fury of inspiration: his hair is tumbling over his face, his eyes are gleaming through

half-closed lids; every line of his figure expresses absorption in his art. The whole, stained to a very dark flesh tint, with brown coat, and long matted black locks, has a weird look almost too real to be decorative; and still less so are St. John the Baptist's head, with gore and a scimitar, on a charger, treated in the same manner—though both works denote power and knowledge.

Correspondence.

COLLEGE-BRED MEN IN CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statement made in the *Nation*, No. 1023, that the University of Virginia "has to-day more of its alumni in the Senate of the United States than has any other college in the Union," is not borne out by Poore's 'Congressional Directory' for 1884. According to this volume, there are three colleges or universities in the United States that have two alumni each in the Senate of the Forty-eighth Congress, viz., Western Reserve College, lately removed from Hudson, O., to Cleveland; Miami University, at Oxford, O., temporarily discontinued some ten years ago, and Brown University, Providence, R. I. There are twenty-three college graduates in the Senate, but no college except those named has furnished more than a single alumnus.

Taking Congress entire, the colleges which are most largely represented are Harvard, Dickinson, and Miami. These have furnished eight, seven, and five graduates respectively to that body. Perhaps it is to the credit of our large colleges that they have sent out so few practical politicians, but in this respect they have done much less than many of the little-known literary institutions. Three others besides those just named sent four graduates each to Congress, several three, and quite a large number two each. C. W. S.

Athens, O., February, 1885.

[The statement to which our correspondent refers was based, as it was thought, upon an article which appeared in the *National Republican* of January 20, 1885, taken from the *Collegian*. A careful review of that article proves that the statement in question is erroneous. "The University of Virginia," according to the *Collegian*, "has graduated more men in this *Congress* than any other institution of learning. Harvard comes next to it in point of numbers." If "Congress" be substituted for "Senate" in the *Nation's* statement, it will be borne out, we think, by Poore's 'Congressional Directory,' which credits the University of Virginia with one Senator and fifteen Representatives. It is not meant to be said that all of these are graduates of the academical department of that institution, or that they have even taken a degree of any kind. One cannot by mere length of attendance, or even by high attainments, secure a degree from the University of Virginia, but only by "standing" all of the examinations for which a *formal application* is made. Comparatively few students make this formal application. Still, those who attend the lectures but who do not apply, and those who apply but do not pass the examinations, are, as well as those who secure degrees, styled *alumni* of the University of Virginia.—Ed. Nation.]

BOHN'S TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The inaccuracy of Bohn's translations (upon which your correspondent animadverts in the *Nation* for February 5) has impressed me afresh in a recent reading of Schiller's "Maid of Orleans." Perhaps one or two examples will be of interest as contributions to the "proof upon proof" which your correspondent invites.

In Raoul's speech (act i, sc. 9), the words

"ein Glanz
Vom Himmel schien *die Hohe* zu umleuchten"

are translated:

"A heavenly radiance shone around *the height*."

"Die Hohe" means, of course, Johanna, whose lofty stature, with its saint-like aureole, is thus referred to as a fitting climax to the description in the preceding lines, where she is compared to a "war-goddess," "fair yet dread to look upon." Even if the translator had an edition with the reading "*die Höhe*" (which I doubt), the context should have shown it to be a *Druckfehler*, for they were not on any "height" at all, and Raoul expressly says "als wir *in das Thal* . . . herunter stiegen," the apparition of the maid appeared "aus *der Tiefe* des Gehölzes."

Many similar evidences of careless or incompetent work appear in this translation. Especially frequent are the substitutions of the singular for the plural, causing not merely arbitrary alterations in the style of expression (some of which might, of course, be defended), but often real confusion or obscuration of the sense. For instance, in the Prologue, scene 3, the line—

"Umsonst erschallt *der Fürsten* Aufgebot"

is rendered:

"In vain the summons of *the king* resounds."

The king, as the context shows, had made no "summons," but *his princes* or nobles were unable to bring up their forces, owing to the panic which had seized the common people. Only one knight had collected sixteen companies, and was marching to join the king.

One more instance:

"In deiner Freunde, deines Königs Armen,"

from act v, scene 14, is rendered

"Supported by *thy friend* and by thy king,"

which is not what Charles says or means. Did space allow, many similar inaccuracies could be noted.—Yours most respectfully, E. H. H.

Worcester, Mass., February 12, 1885.

PRIMITIVE COLOR-PREFERENCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. W. O. Sproull, writing from Cincinnati, January 24, to the *Nation*, undertakes to account for what he calls the ancients' and savages' preference for the colors red and yellow. His explanation is, that men who lead an outdoor life become sated with the colors of the vegetation (green) and of the sky (blue), and consequently feel a grateful sense of relief when beholding the complements of these colors.

There may be a shade of truth in this theory, but it is very doubtful. This liking is not confined to the two colors named, nor is it peculiar to savages or the ancients. All bright, decided, flashy colors awaken in all men (and in many other animals) more pleasurable feelings than the dull, neutral tints. The child raised in the city, where its opportunities for seeing green and blue are rarer than those of the savage, begins to manifest at a very early age its preference for bright colors, and I see no explanation for this, except that the greater luminosity of such colors creates more vivid and pleasurable sensations. Every child, if allowed to select its own garments, would, I believe, invariably dress in the "loudest" colors. When he grows up he is told that it is vulgar and in bad taste to adorn one's self in a flashy way, and hence he submits to the dictates of fashion; but this is no proof that pleasure in such colors no longer exists. On the contrary, many people, either through ignorance or a disregard for public opinion, freely indulge their liking for gaudy attire, and in this they but follow native instincts, which are common to all men and would be universally followed but for fashion's sake. This is evident from the fact that the refined, as well as the vulgar, man experiences great pleasure in looking at the showy, gaudy costumes seen on the stage.

What is true of colors is true of many other things. Whatever we most clearly and distinctly perceive will impress us most, and the pleasure or pain attendant upon our sensations will be proportionate to their distinctness of perception.

Samuel Garner.

Bloomington, Ind., February 7, 1885.

Notes.

The Rev. William Cushing's 'Initials and Pseudonyms: A Dictionary of Literary Disguises,' will be published by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. The material amassed by Mr. Albert R. Frey, of the Astor Library, will be incorporated with Mr. Cushing's collection.

The 'Life and Letters of John Brown,' prepared by Mr. Frank B. Sanborn, will be published early in the spring by Roberts Bros.

The author of 'The English Governess at the Siamese Court' and 'The Romance of the Harem,' Mrs. A. H. Leonowens, is about to come before the public with another work, entitled 'Life and Travel in India,' of which Porter & Coates will be the publishers. They announce also a luxurious edition of the 'Ingoldsby Legends, limited to 450 copies.

We learn that Mr. Walter H. Page, editor of the Raleigh (N. C.) *Chronicle*, is preparing a work on 'The Negro Problem.' Mr. Page's previous contributions to the discussion of Southern questions warrant us in expecting from him a fair and faithful treatment of this, the largest of them all.

It is understood that the author has written a special preface for the American edition of 'Obiter Dicta,' which is to be published immediately by Charles Scribner's Sons.

William S. Gottsberger has ready a translation of Georg Ebers's romance, 'Serapis,' by Clara Bell. The German edition reached us some weeks ago from B. Westermann & Co.

Ginn, Heath & Co., who have already brought out an abridged translation of Rousseau's 'Émile,' have in press Pestalozzi's 'Leonard and Gertrude,' translated and abridged by Eva Channing. Prof. G. Stanley Hall furnishes an introduction.

'Arthur Penrhyn Stanley: His Life, Work, and Teachings,' by Mrs. Grace Oliver; 'An Actor's Tour,' by Daniel Bandmann; and a popular edition of Mrs. Frances Brooks's translation of Johanna Spyri's 'Heidi,' are promised by Cupples, Upham & Co.

E. & J. B. Young & Co. have nearly ready the Bampton Lectures for 1883, of which the author is the Rev. W. H. Mauth, Canon of Canterbury, and the title, 'The World as the Subject of Redemption.'

'Man's Birthright; or, The Higher Law of Property,' by E. H. Clark, a sort of antidote to Henry George, will be published by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Cassell & Co. will shortly issue a 'Dictionary of English History,' by Sidney J. Low and F. S. Pulling; volume ii. of Edward Walford's 'Greater London'; John Webb Probyn's 'Italy,' from the fall of Napoleon I. to the death of Victor Emmanuel; and a 'Memoir of Dr. Humphrey Sandwith,' compiled from autobiographical notes, by Thos. Humphrey Ward.

'John Knox,' by the Rev. Wm. M. Taylor,

with a steel portrait, is in the press of A. C. Armstrong & Son.

We receive from G. Bell & Sons, London, the appendix to Vasari's 'Lives,' edited by J. P. Richter, forming vol. vi of the edition, the entire volume being occupied by notes and emendations giving all the newer information collected or discovered since the former edition of the 'Lives.' Vasari is known to have been most inexact and credulous in all that relates to the painters before him; but he is still, as to his contemporaries, the great source of information, to be checked and corrected, however, by students more critical and scientific than he was. Richter's commentary is studious and in the true historical temper. He has already distinguished himself as of classical authority, especially in his 'Da Vinci' noticed last year.

No one, unless the publishers themselves, can object to a popular edition of 'Alice in Wonderland' and 'Through the Looking-Glass' such as Macmillan & Co. have just brought out in one volume, both in paper and in cloth. These old favorites will now enter upon a useful competition with base literature.

This competition might extend even to the schoolroom. In a late circular of information of the Bureau of Education (No. 4, 1884), containing the proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association at Washington a year ago, we have found nothing better than some remarks of Superintendent Geo. J. Luckey, of Pittsburgh, on the subject of reading—of "readers," particularly. "It is painful to reflect," he says, "that the vast majority of our children, after spending seven or eight years of the best period of their lives in the school-room, have never read a book"—only the disconnected and half-intelligible scraps of the primary, first, second, etc., even to sixth, readers. His remedy is a school circulating library, but experience is against it. The great obstacle to improvement is the uncultivated literary taste of the teacher.

No. 19 of the *Journal of Social Science* (Putnams) contains the transactions of the American Association at Saratoga last September. Noticeable is the paper on the "Conflict of State Laws" by Mr. Eugene Smith. It is rather a plea against centralization, concurrent State action being recommended as the remedy.

One is filled with fresh hopefulness as to the future of the South who reads the newly published proceedings of the Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund (Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.). The Agent accounts in detail for the distribution of upwards of $30,000 among twenty-three institutions, almost all of which have been founded by Northern philanthropy since 1865, while every one combines industrial with scholastic training. The reports of the several beneficiaries carry conviction as to the immense utility of this noble charity, and we recommend them to the attention of the benevolent who can profit by the hints they afford. President Gilman has appended an interesting biographical sketch of the late Mr. Slater. His father's business relations with Moses Brown, of Providence, and his own education and residence in Windham County, Conn., in a burning period of the anti-slavery agitation, seem to furnish some explanation of his concern for the welfare of the colored race.

The last annual report of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station possesses its usual interest for all who are scientifically minded as well as for cultivators of the soil. The Station saved last year about $1,000 out of the annual appropriation of $8,000. One's ideas of physical geography are jostled on finding the elephant a domestic contributor to Connecticut's fertilizers—thanks to the wintering of Barnum's menagerie at Bridgeport.

The latest Boston notion is broached in *Science* for February 13, which advocates a new building (a "Bowditch Hall") to serve at once as the depository of the libraries of several local scholarly and scientific bodies, and as a convenient rendezvous for their respective members. It will, we suppose, be found difficult to reconcile all the interests involved. The Massachusetts Historical Society is one of those contemplated in the scheme.

The third series (for 1885) of the Johns Hopkins "Studies in Historical and Political Science" opens with a republication of Dr. H. B. Adams's valuable paper read before the Maryland Historical Society in 1877, entitled "Maryland's Influence in Founding a National Commonwealth." The title is now changed to "Maryland's Influence upon Land Cessions to the United States." We are not sure that the change is an improvement, as the emphasis placed by the former title upon the relation of the public domain to the national sovereignty has always seemed to us an important feature of the paper. We do not see that the paper is changed in the republication; three short appendices are omitted, and Appendix No. 2, "Washington's public spirit in opening a channel of trade between East and West," is divided into three, treating respectively of Washington's interest in the Potomac Company, his plan for a National University, and the origin of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.

The address of Mr. John Jay, delivered before the New York Historical Society on its seventy-ninth anniversary (November 27, 1883), has just been published by the Society in an octavo pamphlet of 230 pages. Being a review of the peace negotiations of 1782, in the light of recent evidence, it is a valuable supplement to the late revision of Bancroft's history of this period, and contains in full the grounds for the changes made by Mr. Bancroft in this edition. The historian does not always agree with the author of the address. Mr. Jay, as is natural, defends his grandfather for refusing to proceed with the negotiations with Great Britain until the independence of the United States was acknowledged. Mr. Bancroft, on the other hand, still maintains that Vergennes and Franklin were right in holding that the terms of Oswald's first commission "would do," and that Jay's obstinacy in the matter imperilled the success of the negotiations. He appears also to give more credit to the sincere friendliness of Count Vergennes than is done by Mr. Jay. The most interesting point in both writers, however, brought to light by publications since the appearance of the original edition of Bancroft's tenth volume, is the readiness of the French Count to sacrifice the interests of the United States in the matter of the boundaries and the fisheries. The family compact between France and Spain, and the obligations entered into by France towards Spain, made her relatively indifferent to the interests of this country. A map at page 121, taken from the life of Lord Shelburne, shows the narrow territories which the French were ready to leave to us. The rest of the pamphlet is occupied with documents and illustrative extracts, all making the points in question very clear.

The *Commercial Advertiser* has been having a little contention with some one about the date of the introduction of the practice of interviewing into American journalism. The *Herald*, intervening, rightly says that it began in 1866, after the war. But it was rare, and attracted little or no attention, until 1868, when it was used to draw talk from General Butler about his greenback crusade, and from Charles Sumner about the *Alabama* question. This led to an article on "interviewing" in the *Nation* of January 28, 1869, which was the first formal notice of the practice under that name, and caused the adoption of the term both in this country and in England, where it was hailed as an amusing American novelty.

As a means of preparing the French to be better colonists by making them more disposed to travel, M. Ernest Michel recommends, in *La Réforme Sociale* for January 15, world-tours on Cook's system. He enters into some details in this number, and promises more hereafter.

It may interest those who have read the recent analysis of M. Dumas's new play by our Paris correspondent to know that "Denise" has been promptly published (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern). M. Dumas refused an offer of 25,000 francs for the American stage-right on condition of not publishing in France.

Parts 131-135 of the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) carry us to the telegraphic cable in the letter K. The weightiest articles are on Ireland, Italy (with its several subdivisions of wars, art, language, literature, music, philosophy), Japan, Jesuits, and Jews. Several beautiful maps accompany the article on Italy. That on Ireland concludes with the comforting assurance that peace is making headway in spite of dynamitic attempts, instigated by O'Donovan Rossa from this country, to intimidate the British Government. A few American notabilities—Andrew Jackson, Andrew Johnson, Jefferson, and Stonewall Jackson—are included in the present instalment.

The publisher, F. A. Brockhaus, Leipzig, announces the immediate appearance of his 'Kleines Conversations-Lexikon,' in its fourth edition, completely revised. It will be sixty weeks in reaching completion in as many weekly parts, the price of each being twenty-five pfennigs. This smaller work will be welcomed even beside the larger one just described and still unfinished.

It is difficult to avoid repeating the fatigued quotation, "Who reads an American book?" when one glances through the advertising columns of the leading English literary weeklies, and as one notices the steady and yet rapid increase in the number of American books reprinted or, at least, republished in England. Perhaps the *Spectator* is the most abundant and the most kindly in its criticism of American books, but the *Saturday Review* lags not far behind. In the number of this journal dated January 31st there are twelve long book-reviews, of which five are devoted to American publications—four wholly and one almost entirely; and no one of these articles is unfriendly in tone.

No surprise will be expressed that the Council of the Royal Astronomical Society should this year have found no more worthy person for the award of the Society's gold medal than Dr. William Huggins, of Upper Tulse Hill, London. Eight years ago, in conjunction with Dr. Frankland, Dr. Huggins received the Society's medal for marked successes in spectroscopy, and now the award is made for his spectrum determinations of the motion of stars in the line of sight, and for his photographic spectra of stars. Dr. Huggins received the medal at the Society's meeting on February 13, the presentation address being delivered by Mr. Edwin Dunkin, F.R.S., the President of the Society.

A late number of the *Observatory* states that Dr. David Gill, Her Majesty's astronomer at Capetown, South Africa, has obtained a grant from the Government fund for scientific research sufficient to enable him to set on foot a photographic survey of the Southern heavens, and that Mr. Woods, who was sent out by the Royal Society to Caroline Island to photograph the solar eclipse in 1883, has already gone to the Cape to begin the work. He will also continue, if possible, the work of photographing the sun's corona on which he

was lately engaged in Switzerland, under the direction of Dr. Huggins.

An entirely novel plan of obtaining money for scientific uses is suggested by the announcement of Dr. J. Palisa, of Vienna, that he will sell the right of naming the latest discovered small planet (No. 244) for £5, as he desires to raise funds for his projected expedition to observe the total solar eclipse of August, 1886. Had he been successful in disposing of this right at the same figure for all these bodies of which his industrious search has led to the discovery, he would already have accumulated a fund of some $10,000.

—The Astor Library has begun the printing of its new catalogue, which will include books of no later date than 1880, and, as a rule, no accessions to the Library received after that year. It will thus embrace the acquisitions of the fifteen years since the printing of the Supplement in 1865, which will also be incorporated with it. The titles will probably require four volumes, as did the original catalogue prepared by Dr. Cogswell, and will be likely to be somewhat bulkier. The new work will introduce a number of improvements upon the old. Titles, contents, and authors' names, for instance, will be printed in three different types, so that the page will be more varied and legible. Books will be entered analytically under subjects or authors not mentioned on the title-page, or with reference from editors and translators, only in exceptional cases, although biographies and town histories will be catalogued under both authors and subjects; otherwise the catalogue will be simply one of authors. The material is now nearly all ready for the printing, which will be done by the Riverside Press, and the work will go on without interruption. There were added during the last year 6,209 volumes, exclusive of pamphlets; 5,030 of these were bought. Some of the volumes, manuscripts, missals, and early editions, whose accession was chronicled some time ago, are very rare and fine copies, of great pecuniary value, and a very choice addition to the Library's treasures. These were the gifts of Mr. and Mrs. J. J. Astor. The number of books belonging to the Library, December 31, was 214,638, excluding pamphlets. The amount of the endowment at the same date was $1,888,607 03—all, of course, the gift to New York of the Astor family for this invaluable reference library. As nearly a million of this sum has been expended for building, site, books, and equipment, there remains a productive capital of $435,812 69, yielding an income of about $24,000. This sum would not carry on the Library work as at present administered, and keep the Library supplied with the latest books and the best, if it were not for Mr. J. J. Astor's special gifts, which amounted to $15,000 last year for the regular purchase of books alone, aside from the $20,000 or $30,000 which, with great liberality, he expended for the rare treasures before mentioned.

—The first number of volume vii. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* has been for some time upon our table. We take the first opportunity, although somewhat late, to call attention to it. With the new volume Prof. Simon Newcomb assumes the duties of chief editor, Prof. Sylvester, the former editor, having been elected Savilian Professor of Geometry in the University of Oxford. All the papers in the present number are of the highest order, no less than four being contributed by Prof. Cayley of Cambridge, England. This is something of which *Crelle's Journal*, which for more than half a century has been known to mathematicians all over the world, might well be proud. It is curious and noteworthy that the opening paper by Prof. Cayley takes up and develops "A very remarkable discovery . . . recently made by Captain MacMahon"; while the second paper, by Captain P. A. MacMahon, R. A., "carries on" an investigation of Prof. Cayley, "from the point where it was left" by him. This is but one among many indications of the friendly feeling which, as a general rule, seems to prevail among the scientific men of both Great Britain and America, and is in marked contrast with the custom of a large part of the scientific men of Germany, who seem to regard personal detraction as the necessary seasoning of any reference to the labors of their contemporaries. The number also contains several mathematical tables by Prof. Cayley, the labor of preparing which must have been extreme, which are of great value to those engaged in studying the most abstruse branches of mathematics, and which can nowhere else be found. To those whose tastes incline them, or whose professional duties require them, to keep pace with mathematical progress, and to be familiar with mathematical studies of the highest order, the commencement of a new volume, under the direction of a new editor of such high scientific reputation, and so remarkable for his skill in exposition, as Prof. Newcomb, offers an opportunity which they should not let pass of becoming subscribers. The first volume of the *Journal* is already numbered among the books "out of print." Other volumes will gradually fall into the same category, and perhaps before the close of the present century the volume which is now beginning will only be procurable at long intervals in the second-hand book-store or the auction-room, and then only at a premium.

—The latest number of the *Anglia*, VII., *Heft* 3, contains a long article by Prof. James A. Harrison (Washington and Lee University) on "Negro English." The article will interest not only the professed philologist, but even the general reader. It is a very full collection (made from the author's own observations and from the writings of "Uncle Remus" and others) of negro peculiarities of every kind, whether of pronunciation, of grammar, of idiom, or of style. We recognize here a great many old friends of our childhood. It is a pleasure to see them thus made *hof-fähig*, as it were, by a touch of the grammarian's wand. The collection is a valuable one, and if we take the liberty of criticising here and there, it is not because we are ungrateful. We have one general ground of complaint, namely, that the author does not draw a stricter line of demarcation between what is properly negro and what is merely Anglo-American. For instance, why cite "sparrer-grass" for "asparagus"? One need only visit Philadelphia to hear the vegetable called "sparrow-grass," or, concisely, "grass." We did not wait for the negro to invent "up" as a verb. Lowell's "Courtin'" might have reminded the author of Yankee capacity in that line. Besides, "up" as a verb is as old as the language, being found in King Alfred's translation of the 'Pastoral.' Is "chock-full" negro? The list of general Anglo-American archaisms and provincialisms (pp. 259-260) proves, it is true, that the author has been somewhat on his guard, but hardly with sufficient persistency. Every one will admit that "dish-yer" for "this here," "bret" for "breath," are pure negro. But can we thus get rid of responsibility for "let her rip"? "Her" for "it" is Anglican vulgarism, beyond a doubt; as for the "rip," we are less confident, but assuredly it is not negro. The analysis of negro pronunciation is good. Better still is the synopsis of conjugation and irregular verbs. This section might afford material for a study in psychology, by showing us the African mind wrestling with the puzzles of Indo-European logomachy. Few will read Professor Harrison's paper without gaining a higher respect for the fervor of negro imagination and the heartiness of negro character. The speech thus delineated is a child-dialect, but it is not contemptible. We hope that the grammarian will continue his labors.

—The last few months have brought us several German text-books, which will attract the attention of college teachers. Professor Brandt's 'Grammar of the German Language' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) will rank among the very best works of its kind. It combines with a clear and precise statement of the general rules of the language a very thorough and detailed treatment of phonology, word-formation, and history of words, and will thus prove of equal value to the beginner and the advanced student. It is based upon the highest philological authorities in Germany, and may be said to reflect the present state of scientific investigation. In this country it has not its equal. We cannot speak so favorably of Mr. W. H. Rosenstengel's 'Reader of German Literature' (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The author has endeavored to give in his book an idea of the whole development of German literature from Ulfilas to the present time. But instead of selecting the very highest productions of the different periods, and giving these as complete as possible, he offers an almost bewildering quantity of little scraps chosen without any discrimination—thus, for instance, ranking Von Giesebrecht and Ranke with obscure writers like K. Faulmann and C. Beyer. On the whole, this book is neither a reader nor a compendium of German literature, but a mass of indigested and mutilated fragments. Mr. William Deutsch, of St. Louis, shows better taste. His 'Colloquial Exercises and German Reader for Schools and Colleges' (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.) can be warmly recommended to teachers of elementary German. The first part of the book contains one hundred short stories, easy enough to be committed to memory. The second part comprises fairy tales, extracts from history, some standard poems, and a collection of phrases and idiomatic expressions. Copious English notes and an alphabetical vocabulary add to the value of the book. In a second edition it is to be hoped that the vocabulary will be somewhat more complete. Professor Heness, in his 'Neuer Leitfaden beim Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache' (Henry Holt & Co.), embodies the results of his long and successful experience in applying the so-called Natural Method to the study of foreign languages. For all those who believe in this principle—and we are glad to say that the number of them is increasing steadily—Mr. Heness's work will be of great importance. Under the somewhat pretentious title, 'Comparative Study of German,' Mr. William W. Valentine, of Richmond, Va., publishes specimen-pages of a more comprehensive work on the same subject, now in preparation. The author does not lack learning, and we anticipate from his large work a good deal of instruction, provided he heeds the golden rule, *nonum prematur in annum*. In its present form, his work is marred by many traces of inconsistency and immaturity. Thus, for instance, we read on page 22: "Noun-substantives may have one form and one grammatical gender for both sexes—*Gast*, *Liebling*, etc." But on the following page we find: "Substantives with a double gender do not occur in German. Such are in English *friend*, *neighbor*, in Latin *civis*, *artifex*, etc." This is a want of consistency which ought not to be exposed in print. That the understanding of a language may be greatly advanced by comparison with kindred languages, is beyond question. But it seems a waste of learning to explain the German *Hirschbock*, *Hirschkuh*, by referring to the Thibetan *ra-pho*, he-goat; *ra-ma*, she-goat. Finally, we notice an excellent little pamphlet by Professor Vietor, of Marburg, on 'German Pro-

nunciation' (Westermann & Co.). It will be very serviceable to those who wish to acquire a standard pronunciation of German, which is described as "High German word-forms pronounced with Low German speech-sounds." It will help, also, to destroy the undeserved prestige generally given in this country to the Hanoverian dialect.

—Few occurrences in recent years have so taken the musical and social world by surprise as the death on Sunday of Dr. Leopold Damrosch. The first symptoms of his illness showed themselves at a meeting of the Oratorio Society, with which he rehearsed Verdi's Requiem, unconscious of the fact that it was his own requiem which he was preparing for performance; and it is impossible in this connection not to think of poor Mozart and his Requiem. There can be no doubt, however, that what undermined Dr. Damrosch's health was the herculean labors he undertook in connection with the season of German opera. From early morning till midnight he busied himself there, with an enthusiasm that proved contagious to his associates, and accounts for much of the remarkable success of his operatic venture. It was a victory such as few operatic conductors have achieved, and it revealed a power on his part of dealing with the most complicated forms of music, that astonished even his friends and former admirers. The excellence of the ensemble which he imported from Europe did indeed facilitate his labors and lessen his responsibilities; yet, taking into account the shortness of the time at his disposal, and the fact that he produced some of the most difficult of operatic works, it must be regarded as little short of a wonder that, in a season including fifty performances, there has not been a single serious mishap. What the fate of the German opera, and of Dr. Damrosch's vocal and instrumental societies may be, it is too early to conjecture. Dr. Damrosch came to America in 1871, in response to an invitation of the Arion Vocal Society, who were in want of a conductor. When he arrived, the rough, pioneer work of educating audiences to an appreciation of classical music had already been done by Mr. Theodore Thomas. But the numerous concerts given by the Oratorio and Symphony Societies under Dr. Damrosch have also had an influence which must not be underrated. Dr. Damrosch was a personal friend and follower of Liszt, and the works of this composer, in particular, always received an interpretation which rendered clear their complicated structure and revealed their great beauty. Of Wagner also he was a personal friend, and by the excellent productions of "Tannhäuser," "Lohengrin," and "Die Walküre," given under his bâton this season, he won thousands of new admirers for the great master, and destroyed a legion of misconceptions regarding the modern music-drama. This last achievement of Dr. Damrosch will always rank as his greatest; and his friends congratulate themselves that, after years of hard work, with scarcely any material reward, he lived to see the realization of his ideals, and to establish on a firm basis the music of the German operatic composers, whom he so greatly admired that, in his last moments, their scores divided his attention with thoughts of his family.

—The rehanging of the Watts collection at the Metropolitan Museum finally accorded will allow the public to see to advantage some of the pictures which before were scarcely visible, and all to better advantage. The impression made on the public taste by this exhibition has been greater by far than Mr. Watts's most enthusiastic admirers had expected, and we have received numerous indications of its influence in quarters where we had hardly expected to find any. As we said in a former article concerning it, the art of Mr. Watts will always remain caviare to the general, and the artists and critics who are educated in the school of surfaces will always be at loss to judge it intelligently, as they would be to judge that of one of the old masters, if his work were for the first time introduced to their acquaintance. Mr. Watts, by his intellectual tendencies and the nature of his art, must be classed with the great Venetians. If his achievement in their way is less, the reasons are easily found in his surroundings, the isolation in which he found himself, and the utterly unartistic atmosphere of England. Critical opinion in New York has, of course, spoken in very varied tones, but on the whole the reception accorded the collection is flattering to our public, because to understand the true position of art of this type implies a catholic and healthy taste. To admire and really sympathize with Mr. Watts's work is even more the proof of high cultivation than to accord it intelligently its relative rank; because, besides being of a severe and exalted walk in art, it is strongly individual in its character, so that even where the intellectual appreciation is not lacking, the personal sympathy may be, No doubt, some who are ready to accord the artist his true rank among the great painters of all time, are less disposed to sympathize with the temperament of the painter, and its tendency to the more melancholy phase of feeling and the more tragic motives of composition. Little critics will, of course, always carp and rail at any new great art until overpowered by authority; and the general public, which only knows of art as the looking-glass of external nature, will find little to its taste in the Watts Exhibition. But to many among us it has been the beginning of a higher art education, and one which will not be effectless. We owe to the committee which organized and carried out the exhibition, to Miss Mead and Mr. Millet, who undertook the most of the labor, a debt of gratitude, but especially to Mr. H. G. Marquand, to whose liberality the good intentions of others in the matter owe their fruition.

WOODBERRY'S LIFE OF POE.

Edgar Allan Poe. By George E. Woodberry. [American Men of Letters Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE career of Edgar Poe has long been a mine for eager biographers, and affords, indeed, just the materials for their work—genius, unhappiness, and a prolonged series of very small conundrums. So many disappointments, debts, disappearances, love affairs, and miscellaneous escapades are rarely crowded into a single career; and what with his own ingenuity in doubling these by exaggeration, and what with the accumulated contradictions and blunders of others, the task of his biographers has come to resemble those labyrinths in English pleasure-grounds where a dozen people are trying to find each other, and, although always within speaking distance, can never meet. Thus, among Poe's chroniclers, Stoddard follows Griswold, and Ingram pursues Stoddard, and Gill goes upon the trail of Ingram, and now Woodberry winds up the chase, after all the rest, and each is sure that he and he alone has the clue to the labyrinth; and, after all, the whole area of the puzzle is but a hundred feet square, and the question arises at the end whether it is worth so much trouble. To be sure, a human character is involved; but here occurs another curious thing, that, while each is engaged in vindicating Poe's reputation against somebody else, they all have to admit very much the same damaging facts. Neither Mr. Griswold, the prosecuting officer, nor Mr. Ingram, of counsel for the defence, nor Mr. Woodberry, who sums up in a judicial fashion, really presents anything which modifies the reputation as to truth or morality acquired by Poe during his life-time; and a very poor reputation that was.

In a detailed notice some years since (see the *Nation* for Nov. 18, 1880), of some of the more recent Poe literature, we expressed the opinion that Poe's true biographer was "yet to come." It is a satisfaction to be able to say that, if we take biography in a strict sense, Mr. Woodberry has fulfilled this hopeful prediction. It is not merely that he writes later than the rest: the later a man writes, the worse for him, if the theme grows more and more perplexed and he has not the brains to disentangle it; but the advantage is, in the case of the present author, that he is the kind of man who ought to come last. He has been helped, not hindered, by the work of his predecessors; he has cleared away their cobwebs and added none of his own. Henceforth the record of Poe's life may be regarded as being, for the first time, established. There is no more correspondence to be unearthed that can essentially vary the result; no more files of obsolete newspapers; no more War Department correspondence; no more reminiscences of simultaneous and equally impassioned love-affairs. There may yet be brought to bear, on some of these points, even more acute and ingenious analysis of character than is here exhibited; but so far as facts are concerned, the case may be said to be closed. We may, therefore, turn to what is, for the purpose of the series of which this book forms a part, the more important matter, viz., the consideration of Poe's place in the literary history of the time. On this point, we regret to say, our praise of Mr. Woodberry's work must be far more limited and our criticism more marked.

It becomes more and more obvious, as the two parallel series of "American Men of Letters" and "American Statesmen" develop, that the characteristics of the two are to be very different. In the "Statesmen" there is far more of a monotone, both in treatment and in theme, than in the other series—a more level excellence and a less exciting variety of treatment. This arises in part from a greater uniformity of subject, since the statesmanlike character is more simple and less diverse than the literary character; but it also comes in part from the mode of handling. Each of the "Men of Letters" series is by a different author, whereas five of the memoirs of "Statesmen" are by Messrs. Morse and Lodge, whose point of view is somewhat similar, and who have long been accustomed to work together. But above all, there is the difference, that in the "Men of Letters" series there is generally much pains taken to exhibit the whole life and environment of the subject; whereas, in dealing with the statesmen, the treatment has kept close to what may be called the professional career, and it has sometimes been rather difficult to make sure even that the man described had a wife and children. Be that as it may, it is certain that the present collection of lives of authors exhibits a marked variety of method. Comparing only the last two, we shall be compelled to acknowledge that Mr. Woodberry's work is strong where Doctor Holmes's is weakest, in the record of personal history, and that it becomes less satisfactory where Doctor Holmes is strong, in the department of literary criticism.

We should say, for instance, that Mr. Woodberry errs at the very outset in laying such stress on Poe's own career as a critic, except as the secret of the perpetual hot water in which he lived. To say, for instance, that Poe's independence as a reviewer was regarded in his lifetime as his great distinction (p. 270), shows the writer to be misled by dwelling on the little world of the New York press of that day. The readers of the country at

large hardly ever saw or heard of these criticisms. They bought, on the other hand, several thousand copies of the 'Gold Bug': every college student racked his brains over the ingenious plot of 'Murders of the Rue Morgue'; and almost every newspaper in the land reprinted "The Raven." Again, Mr. Woodberry goes too far in saying of his hero that he was "the first to take criticism from mere advertising, puffery, and friendship, and submit it to the laws of literary art" (p. 270). So far as the first part of this statement is concerned, Margaret Fuller went to New York in the same year with Poe (1844); she wrote in a journal of four times the circulation and influence of any he attempted—the *Tribune;* and Poe himself pronounced her reviews "frank, candid, and independent" (Works [Armstrong], 5:506), at least when she agreed with him. In the next place, if Poe got rid of these objectionable methods at all, it was not to substitute in any degree the laws of literary art—for, as Mr. Stoddard has well said, he established no criterion—and he set up something as objectionable as anything he displaced. What that substitute was is stated by Mr. Woodberry himself, in his quotation from the man who of all men in New York had best opportunity to know Poe thoroughly, Mr. C. F. Briggs, his associate in the *Broadway Journal*. Poe's criticisms were declared by Briggs to be "purely selfish" (p. 234). "I have never met a person," he says in another letter, "so utterly destitute of high motive. He cannot conceive of anybody's doing anything except for his personal advantage" (p. 237). For want of recognizing this, and by a rather arbitrary selection from Poe's helter-skelter criticism of what makes for his own argument, Mr. Woodberry presents a case which seems to us quite overstated.

After admitting Poe to be a reckless, erratic, and unscholarly judge (p. 270), he tries to build up for him a claim of final justice in his judgment on individuals. The means by which this is done is very obvious. Let a man scatter praise or blame broadcast to win favor or to gratify ill-temper; let him do this without the slightest attempt at consistency, and then, whether the persons about whom he writes turn out great or small, a judicious biographer can quote a prediction corresponding to the verdict. To Poe, Tennyson was at one time "the greatest of poets"; at another time Elizabeth Barrett Browning was worth a dozen of him (p. 219). Which, now, shall we regard as Poe's judgment of Tennyson? At one time he pronounced Hawthorne "original at all points" (p. 158), and at another time "not original, but only peculiar" (p. 280). Is it not a misuse of language to claim that these authors, so waywardly treated, were "foreknown by him when their names were still in doubt" (p. 269)? As to Lowell, the case is still worse, for here the waywardness was enhanced by selfishness. When Lowell was projecting a magazine, and was supposed to have influence with Boston lecture-courses, no praise was too great for his melodramatic early poem of "Rosaline" (p. 177); but as soon as Lowell touched Poe in his "Fable for Critics," Poe announced that "no failure was ever more complete or pitiable" (Works, 6:243). It is easy to honor a prophet by only recording his successful guesses; and a shrewd sibyl can secure many such triumphs by judicious "hedging"—by betting, as it were, for and against every horse in the field. It would be just as easy to make out an overwhelming case against Poe by dwelling on the fact that he declared Horne's forgotten poem of "Orion" to be "never equalled" "in all that regards the loftiest and holiest attributes of true poetry" (Works, 6:489), and that his whole verdict on Carlyle was that he was "an ass" (Works, 6:167).

But it is when we come to Mr. Woodberry's criticisms on Poe's poetry that we feel compelled to mingle with general praise some very hearty dissent. To our thinking, he strikes a false note, at the outset, when he calls "The Raven" a great poem. We should say that the general consensus of good criticism now regards "The Raven" as a sensational and meretricious poem, of which, as Mr. Stedman has well said, "the artificial qualities are those which catch the fancy of the general reader." To produce or even enhance an effect by such mere jingle as "the pallid bust of Pallas" is in no sense good art. The popularity of the poem was very much like the popularity among collegians of those turgid and inflated verses beginning "I am dying, Egypt, dying"; or that of the pompous "Spartacus the Gladiator" among schoolboys. Poe himself carried this turgid quality to the verge of disgust, or beyond it, in his "Ulalume." But his fame as a poet really rests upon far higher ground than this—on the exquisite early verses "To Helen," on the really great poem of "The Haunted Palace," and on the wonderful melody of "Lenore" in its earlier form. Here, again, we come upon a point where we must wholly dissent from Mr. Woodberry. The whole value of his criticism is impaired when he makes the general statement that, in Poe's frequent changes of his poems, "in every instance the alteration is judicious, the step is a step forward" (p. 253). We should say precisely the contrary—that, as Poe grew older and, if that were possible, more self-conscious, the artificial habit so grew upon him that his ear demanded more and more jingle; and he took some of his best verses and bound them hand and foot with that tiresome "repetend" which became his bane. This was a habit of closing every verse with two lines varying by a word or two only, sometimes attaining such a height of the ludicrous as in:

> "Of cypress, I roamed with my Soul,
> Of cypress, with Psyche, my Soul,"

or, yet worse,

> "Till the fair and gentle Eulalie became my blushing bride;
> Till the yellow-haired young Eulalie became my smiling bride."

It is strange, in looking back, to see that even Lowell was at one time so infected by this trick as to write in his "Moods," of the pine-tree,

> "Meeting with graceful resistance,
> With a graceful though sturdy persistence."

But this was soon dropped by Lowell, and these very verses were so altered as to remove the mannerism, while Poe tended that way more and more. "Lenore," as it appeared in the *Pioneer*, had a lyric motion that recalled Coleridge, but it stands now as Poe made it after he had caught the fountain at its source, and compelled it to turn the weary mill of a "repetend." Instead of

> "And let the burial rite be read,
> The funeral song be sung,
> A dirge for the most lovely dead
> That ever died so young,"

we have the cramped lines

> "Come! let the burial rite be read, the funeral song be sung,
> An anthem for the queenliest dead that ever died so young,
> A dirge for her the doubly dead in that she died so young."

And so it goes on through the poem.

But the point, after all, where Mr. Woodberry seems to have most distinctly erred—to the extent, we should say, of directly reversing Poe's own announcement of his position—is in a passage on Longfellow's versification. It is the more remarkable, because the biographer himself endorses precisely the opinion which Poe would have repudiated. We read (p. 231) that Poe made it an objection to Longfellow that he was a writer of hexameters. "In this there is so much truth as is involved in the milder statement that . . . his ear was too little refined to be offended by the spondaic flatness of an English hexameter"; the words omitted referring to a wholly different charge. Spondaic flatness! But Poe's whole complaint against Longfellow and the English language itself was that the latter did not afford spondees enough to fit out a hexameter handsomely. He charged it upon "Evangeline" especially, not that it was too spondaic, but that it had the opposite fault and was too dactylic; had plenty of short syllables, but two few long ones. "We maintain," he wrote in his paper on Longfellow's Ballads, "that the hexameter never can be introduced into our language, from the nature of that language itself. This rhythm demands, for English ears, a preponderance of natural spondees. *Our tongue has few.*" (The italics are our own.) "In glancing over the poem ["The Children of the Lord's Supper"] we do not observe a single verse which can be read, to English ears, as a Greek hexameter. There are many, however, which can be well read as mere English dactylic verses; such, for example, as the well-known lines of Byron, commencing 'Know ye the | land where the | cypress and | myrtle.' . . . Now, a great many of Professor Longfellow's hexameters are merely these dactylic lines, continued for two feet" (Works, 6:387). What now becomes of the "spondaic flatness" of Mr. Woodberry?

We are firm in the opinion that it is better, in writing the life of an author, to have a final summing up of his literary character in one place, instead of distributing the criticism in fragments amid biographical details. This said, and waiving a few merely verbal criticisms on Mr. Woodberry's usually excellent style, we pronounce his book, as a whole, a very valuable addition to an important series of works. So far as the biography is concerned, he has perhaps given us the final word; so far as criticism goes, there is nothing in the book so admirable as Mr. Stedman's remark that Poe's place is, after all, rather with Doré than with the masters of art.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Mystery of the Locks. By E. W. Howe. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

Within the Clasp. A Story of the Yorkshire Jet-hunters. By J. Berwick Harwood. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Farnell's Folly. By J. T. Trowbridge. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

The Widow Wyse. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

Tompkins and Other Folks. Stories of the Hudson and the Adirondacks. By P. Deming. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Modern Midas. By Maurice Jokai. Translated from the German by Mrs. L. C. Bullard and Miss Emma Herzog. R. Worthington.

Christmas at Narragansett. By Edward Everett Hale. Funk & Wagnalls.

Stories by American Authors. VIII. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Talk of the Town. By James Payn. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Face to Face. By R. E. Francillon. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

By Mead and Stream. By Charles Gibbon. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

From Post to Finish. By Hawley Smart. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

'The Story of a Country Town' was in several ways so peculiar that 'The Mystery of the Locks' cannot help creating curiosity; but it will hardly sustain the interest which was awakened by Mr. Howe's first novel. He has seen fit this time to forego the pleasure of a preface; so one element

that gave much of its individuality to the more pretentious novel is lacking. Just what else is lacking is hard to determine. It is plain, however, that Mr. Howe has forsaken realism, and one is apt to imagine that whatever of realism was in 'The Story of a Country Town' was due to his having written from experience. He has an eye for the queer and incongruous things of the world, and is far more concerned with delineating striking and unusual characters than he is with giving an accurate impression of the life in which his scene is laid. It is this penchant for oddity, combined with a certain independence of literary tradition, which makes 'The Mystery of the Locks' a striking novel, for Allan Dorris is not an unusual personage, nor his history a particularly uncommon one. The circumstances of his unfortunate marriage are left almost entirely to supposition; that he should be divorced and seek oblivion in an obscure town on the Missouri River is natural enough. His happy marriage with Annie Benton follows, not exactly as a matter of course, but still with a certain inevitableness, while his violent death by the hand of his first wife's brother seems more like a forced tragedy than a necessary growth out of the circumstances. Nor is Annie Benton so very remarkable, especially after Jane Eyre; and Tug Whittle's chief peculiarities are his big eye, which is always staring, and his little one, which is always cocking. Perhaps the way in which his scalp is always creeping over his forehead to look at his smile, and the devotion with which he sets out first to protect and then to avenge Allan Dorris, with the merest thread of a motive, are quite as peculiar as his eyes. And throughout, the characters, for all their commonplaceness, are rather bundles of conceits and peculiarities than living beings. For the power that is really in the book one must not go to Mr. Howe's realism, after all; it lies in another direction. The mind does not dwell upon the queer people that recall Dickens's caricatures, but upon the eddying, turbulent river hurrying away from Davy's Bend, its dark nights and muddy streets and discontent—upon the weird mystery of the Locks, and the ghostly Hedgepath graveyard. Mr. Howe's imagination is content to sacrifice reality for the sake of effect—of inducing a mood that shall be consonant with the matter. He has, in 'The Mystery of the Locks,' striven after art instead of realism.

In spite of the claim on the title-page, 'Within the Clasp' is not a story of the jet-hunters; it is the stale story of the long-lost son, with the conventional smooth villain and the conventional heavy villain in wicked partnership to win the lovely heiress from him. With the real life and interests of the picturesque jet-hunters the novel is not concerned. They and their dangers on the treacherous Yorkshire coast serve only to give occasion for a few melodramatic scenes, while their true purpose is to harbor the lost child until the proper time come for restoring him to his noble father. Who the noble father is, appears plainly enough as soon as the melancholy Wyvern, Earl Wyvern, the eminent statesman and diplomat, is introduced. And one is tolerably certain, too, that, in spite of his life among ignorant people, young Lord Wyvern will prove a "son of whom any father would be proud" in the eyes of his aristocratic father. When they are made known to each other this turns out to be the case. Nor is the son less satisfied, but, after three minutes' conversation with the noble Earl, decides that had the choice been given him he would "have gratefully chosen as fate had willed it." In fact, there is from the start very little of which the reader does not feel certain. When the lovely heiress is put on a vicious horse he knows very well what will happen, and who will rescue her; it is the same when she is attacked by a savage stag; and when the smooth villain in the person of an indigent baronet pays court to her, he reads on in comforting confidence that some of the baronet's dark deeds will be discovered in time to save her. Of course the heavy villain meets his just doom, and falls from a high cliff on the very rocks which he had intended should be the last resting-place of young Lord Wyvern.

The facility with which Mr. Trowbridge always writes is as apparent as ever in his latest novel. The 400 and more pages which are required to tell the story of 'Farnell's Folly' were, we may be sure, not written painfully, nor yet carelessly; but there is a rapidity about the style that makes the movement of the story seem tedious by contrast. As now and then happens with facile writers, the points are often so much insisted on that the characters, while not seeming exaggerated, still fail to seem natural. Then, a reader objects even to the apparent assumption that he has no discernment whatever. The story is essentially American in its qualities. The people of Waybrook, their environment and traditions, are all in keeping with a village of western New York. Ward Farnell, whose magnificent house was to have been his pride and became his folly, is a type of the successful American, led on to financial ruin by love of display; and some of the minor characters are excellent from the way in which the limitations of their birth and nurture are portrayed, while their real worth and honesty are not sunk out of sight. Though the story is American, it is not new; both the incidents and the characters have an exasperating way of seeming to have been already encountered somewhere. This is ordinarily a mark of commonplaceness; yet it may not be disagreeable to many who have grown tired of the strained effort for novelty in much of the current fiction—the painful search for queer types and unused material—to read a novel in which their imaginations are not asked to leave the earth, nor even to dwell in strange places.

The author of 'The Widow Wyse' very judiciously chooses to remain unknown. We risk nothing in guessing that she is a woman. Not much is to be expected of a book that opens: "A tumble, a roll, a bump, and a prolonged howl broke upon Miss Ethel Townsend's ear," and is made up of a young girl's letters from boarding-school, and the very simple machinations of a pretty widow who deceives no one. But even the insight given by the first chapter does not fully prepare one for the absolutely colorless descriptions, the perfunctory delineations of character, and the total lack of structure and interest which await him in the succeeding pages. The story can hardly be said to have a plot. Miss Townsend is merely hurried from Mobile to boarding-school, and through a series of visits in Boston, Newport, and in the country, to a picture gallery in Europe. Here she is found by Major Apthorpe—whose chief merit seemed to be that he always travelled with a dress-suit in his trunk, and at a moment's notice could make himself perfect in evening costume—and her tone in welcoming him with the "one word 'Gerald'" betrays the secret which he had come to discover. The Widow Wyse plays but a small share in the little episode, and why the book should be called after her is as difficult to imagine as why it was written at all.

It would be a relief to turn from such unsatisfactory work to a volume of fresh and taking tales like Mr. Deming's, even if they were less entertaining than is really the case. Readers of the magazines have already, perhaps, met with 'Tompkins and Other Folks'; at any rate six of the seven stories which make up the volume have been printed either in *Harper's*, or the *Atlantic*, or in *Lippincott's*. However, they lose nothing by being grouped, and any one who enjoys encountering an old acquaintance in good company will take up this "Little Classic" volume with pleasure. The chief charm of the stories is their quietness; after that, perhaps, their suggestiveness, though they owe not a little to their tone of kindly humor and mildness. Mr. Deming avoids the disagreeable things in life; his stories show a disposition to be lively—not from animal spirits, but from that genial attitude of mind induced by looking on the bright side. That Tompkins should lose his illusions, and turn from the enthusiastic hopes of his college days to auctioneering in Chicago, might be made to seem a genuine tragedy. Yet most young men are enthusiastic, their hopes have some such ending as Tompkins's; and Mr. Deming prefers to dwell, in his pleasant, half-pathetic way, on the auctioneer's unromantic love affair and his warm-hearted remembrances of early days. One or two of the stories are hardly more than sketches. "The Court in Schoharie" is nothing but the description of court week in a slumberous, old-fashioned village among the Catskills; but it is done with such a touch of sympathy—the influence of the simple people and their humble, picturesque surroundings on the old Judge's remaining bit of sentiment is so delicately suggested—that the piece is better than a story would have been. This sketch and "Mr. Toby's Wedding Journey" make the best of the book; but throughout there is an evenness both in matter and in style that makes a choice almost entirely a matter of taste.

Maurice Jokai reveals the complex and highly romantic fortunes of 'A Modern Midas' most skilfully. The selection of fields comparatively fresh to the English reader, and of characters nearer to nature than the ultra-civilized ladies and gentlemen whom most of our novelists struggle to mould into heroic form, gives him a great advantage for dramatic purposes. Very probably the fact that few of us are on terms of familiar intercourse with the dwellers by the lower Danube may add much to the charm of the story, for we are not called upon to determine what passions or emotions are natural or possible to a multitude of Greeks, Turks, and Hungarians. From the moment that Timar and Timea appear in the grain-laden vessel on the Danube, the reader must mentally let himself go. Timar is the supercargo, and Timea the daughter of Ali Tschorbadschi, flying, with great treasure, it is whispered, from the wrath of the Sultan. Tschorbadschi dies on the voyage, and Timar gets possession of his priceless jewels in a way which, not to put too fine a point on it, is far from honest. He thus lays the foundation of the fortune of Midas and of the great unhappiness of Timar. His practical restitution by marriage with Timea is vain, and vain, too, are his enormous public charities. The man is afflicted with a moral nature which, to quote the author, "longed for honesty, human respect, philanthropy, and self-sacrifice; but by a strange and sad destiny he had, through temptations too great for him to withstand, become a man whom others esteemed and honored, but who must despise himself as the veriest hypocrite." Only on "No Man's Land," cut off from the world by the waters of the Danube, can Timar find any peace for his soul. And even here there is always the sting that Naomi, the loving Eve of his Paradise, knows nothing of his true position, and nothing of his cold, faithful, wronged wife, Timea. The methods which the author adopts to free Timar from his burdens, insuring long life and happiness, are not at all in harmony with the Anglo-Saxon standard of morals, nor has he been trammelled by any prejudice in favor of the final reward of good and punishment of evil. He has, however, followed the prompting of a thoroughly artistic nature, and brought his story to a logical and natural if unrighteous conclusion.

"His wallet of stories," says a recent eulogist of Edward Everett Hale, "seems as inexhaustible as Fortunatus's purse." The essayist is so dazzled by Mr. Hale's honest gold that he is incapable of detecting counterfeit, much of which has found its way into the 'Christmas in Narragansett.' The volume is largely a reprint of short stories told by people who have already appeared in the author's works. In almost every story one comes across something original, shrewd, amusing, aptly expressed; but the keynote is assumption of indifference to literary conventions and affectation of extreme familiarity. "Pilchards" and "Cromwell's Statue" are worth telling and well told, while "The Return Message," "Law and Gospel," and half-a-dozen anecdotes are inconceivably weak and pointless. Many seem to be written in conformity with the dictum of one of the narrators, that an extraordinary, improbable event should be chosen for a short story. This is very well as far as it goes, but if the extraordinary impress the reader only as absurdity, then the story is a failure. Colonel Ingham's interview with his antipodal counterpart at the North Pole is an illustration of such failure. But to stamp that kind of fantasy even momentarily with reality requires an imagination of the finest fibre, combined with the subtlest literary touch. The talk of those who tell the stories and link them together is painfully strained, and necessarily offensive to people of any intellectual repose—which is not by any means a euphemism for stupidity.

Miss Phelps's "Zerviah Hope" is, beyond comparison, the best thing in the eighth volume of "Stories by American Authors." It has the simplicity, fervor, and strength which give the author high rank among living writers of fiction; it has none of the obscurity and pedantic affectation which mar all of her novels and many of her sketches. The story of atonement for a crime committed in the heat of passion, by devotion to a fever-striken city, is admirably fitted to display Miss Phelps's perception of the spiritual possibilities in very common humanity. The management of the story, too, is remarkable; for, though a profound impression of horror and desolation is made, all ghastly and loathsome details are avoided.

In the 'Talk of the Town' Mr. Payn has attempted to make the Ireland forgeries of Shakspere in the last century a groundwork of fiction. The central figure, William Henry *Erin*, is an unmistakably cool young scamp. The audacity of his forgeries is equalled only by the completeness of his success, but it is improbable that a young gentleman with his *aplomb* should not defy a mere bully like Reginald Talbot. In spite of Mr. Samuel Erin's disagreeable personality, his implicit belief in the authenticity of the MSS. lavishly supplied by his son attracts sympathy, and we grudge that "inveterate scoundrel," Malone, his triumph over the sturdy stickler for the "text." Many scenes in the Erin household are very clever, but the story drags, as if the author were treading not perfectly familiar ground, and had not fairly entered into the spirit of the age and theme.

Mr. Francillon has dipped into history for the material of his 'Fact in Seven Fables; Face to Face.' On the eve of his marriage, an honest Englishman, seized by mistake as a deserter from the ranks, is carried off to fight through a campaign of the Peninsular War. His adventures abroad are woven with his betrothed's troubles at home into a graceful, quaint, and interesting tale. The misfortunes of the lovers are just grave enough to stimulate compassion, while the author leads smoothly up to a happy end and a new moral—"If you would be good, be happy."

There are pleasant sketches of English landscape and farm life in 'By Mead and Stream,' but it is not on the whole either idyllic or pastoral. The complications of the plot arise from bitter enmities, gloomy jealousy, and intricate financial operations. Though the indefinable quality which excites interest is lacking, the careful elaboration of characters not met with every day will gratify readers of a patient and inquiring mind.

'From Post to Finish' is full of instruction about the horse. It is, moreover, exciting to a limited range of feeling. The racer, Dancing Master, is the real hero, and, with all his faults, a fine fellow, filling his exalted rôle admirably. The moral of the tale would seem to be that impoverished gentlemen need no longer stand idle in the market-places. The career of a jockey lies open, with riches and honors accruing, and liberty to marry a trainer's daughter by gracious permission of her relations.

MORE LAW BOOKS.

Some Leading Principles of Anglo-American Law, expounded with a view to its arrangement and codification. By Henry T. Terry. Philadelphia: T. and J. W. Johnson & Co. 1884.

The Nature of Positive Law. By John M. Lightwood, M.A. Macmillan & Co.

The Law of Extradition, International and Inter-State. With an appendix, containing the extradition treaties and laws of the United States, the extradition laws of the States, several sections of the English Extradition Act of 1870, and the opinion of Governor Cullom. By Samuel T. Spear. 2d ed. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co. 1884.

A Digest of Statutes. Admiralty Rules and Decisions upon the jurisdiction, pleadings, and practice of the District Courts of the United States. By Erastus Thatcher. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1884.

The Board of Trade and the Produce Exchange. Their history, methods, and law. By Lewis H. Bisbee and John C. Simonds. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

Leading Cases Simplified. A collection of the leading cases in criminal law. By John D. Lawson. St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1884.

The Jewish Law of Marriage and Divorce in Ancient and Modern Times, and its Relation to the Law of the State. By Rev. Dr. M. Mielziner, Professor of Talmud at the Hebrew Union College. Cincinnati: The Bloch Printing and Publishing Co. 1884.

MR. TERRY has been a Professor of Law in the University of Tokio, and he begs the indulgence of his readers on the ground that his book was written in Japan, where he had access to a very small library, and was often compelled to cite authorities at second-hand. We doubt if the reader will think the explanation necessary, for we have seldom read a work more suggestive of wide research. Like Judge Holmes's book on the common law, it is a credit to American scholarship, and is a significant bit of evidence of the constantly increasing interest, in the Anglo-Saxon world, in the scientific study of jurisprudence. Mr. Terry differs from a good many of his fellow-students in the same field in refusing to abandon Austin, and in insisting that his general principles of analysis are correct. He differs from Austin, however, in putting forward a different classification of rights, which he divides into correspondent, permissive, protected, and facultative. His discussion of the matter will be found very interesting, and embodies the part of his work for which Mr. Terry claims originality. We can do no more than refer to it here. A more practical topic in this part of the world at the present time is codification, as to which Mr. Terry has a good deal to say. He has a poor opinion of the draft of a code pending in this State, and the lawyers who are engaged in trying to prevent its passage by the Legislature could not do better than publish and circulate his criticism:

> "Many most essential definitions have been omitted, and of many important rights and duties only very brief and meagre statements have been given, less full and complete than would reasonably be expected in one of the every-man-his-own-lawyer manuals that are occasionally issued for the ensnarement of the lay public. The points on which any question is likely to arise which a lawyer of ordinary learning could not answer off-hand, and for which he would need the help of a code—at least such as belong to the now unwritten law—are usually passed over without notice."

He quotes what the draft Code has to say about the subject of fraud, and merely adds: "Comment on this is unnecessary." With regard to "obligations" Mr. Terry makes the cruel suggestion that the codifiers apparently had some idea of adopting the civil-law theory of obligation *ex delicto*, but that either they did not grasp the true nature of the theory, or else they saw fit to give the word obligation a new meaning, alike inconsistent with its use in the civil law and in our own. Mr. Terry thinks on the whole that the Code had better "remain unenacted, since in that condition it would be just as serviceable, and would be free from the inconveniences of an authoritative code, whose *ipsissima verba* could be made the ground of innumerable quibbles." It must not be supposed, however, that he is opposed to codification. He admits that a final and complete code is impossible, owing to the continual accretions of new judge-made law; but he would have the whole subject put in the hands of a commission consisting of a dozen or twenty of the best lawyers in the country, and paid by the national Government; and he adds the quaint suggestion that "if the enterprise were undertaken jointly with Great Britain, an equal number of codifiers would, of course, be appointed from that country." He also thinks the commission ought to comprise a few civilians, who "would probably be able now and then to make very useful suggestions which lawyers trained exclusively in our law might overlook." Suggestions of this sort do not so much show the proper method of codification as throw a strong light upon the difficulties which surround all modern undertakings in this field.

The discussion which has been carried on in England during the last few years over Austin's view of law and legal conceptions is full of interest. Sir Henry Maine was the first critic of Austin who showed that that great analyzer's system must now be studied in the light shed by modern historical research upon the growth of jurisprudence, and that there are periods of social development in which Austin's fundamental conceptions of sovereignty, command, sanction, and even law itself are faint or non-existent—periods when custom is not indeed a source of law, but supplies its place. In a Russian *mir*, in an Indian village community, Austin's analysis would not merely be forced, it would be meaningless. We, are, therefore, confronted with the question, which Mr. Lightwood, among others, has attempted to solve, whether the Austinian view must be given up. No solution can be said as yet to have been agreed upon, but it is of the utmost importance that some should be reached, if only in the interest of systematic legal education. If the view taken by Austin be overthrown, we must have something in its place. What can be substituted?

Mr. Lightwood offers a view of the subject which seems, as far as we understand it, to make

jurisprudence dependent upon, instead of distinct from, ethics:

"Law," he says, "is a collection of rules regulating either human actions or human relations, which spring from and explain the current rules of morality, and which, therefore, depend for their support upon the general assent of the people. Owing, however, to the fact that individual wills are sometimes in opposition to the general will, the law must occasionally be enforced by the physical power of the community, and, owing to the complication of human affairs, it must sometimes be directed by courts of law. Further, these rules are made by a sovereign who is acquainted with the wishes of the people, either directly in accordance with such wishes when they can be ascertained, or, where this is not possible, by reference to the principle of utility, or else upon the advice of jurists who are skilled in legal matters."

The difficulty with this and other similar views is, that they tend to confound the province of law with that of morality, and to be so very general as to be useless. And possibly it may turn out in the end that such speculations are directed to an unattainable object. To discover the principles which underlie all systems of jurisprudence is one thing; but to discover the principles which underlie systems of jurisprudence and (if we may so express it) not-jurisprudence, seems a hopeless task. But is not this what Mr. Lightwood hoped to be able to do? In early social systems the right of private revenge is exercised, but as long as this right is exercised among men much as it is in the animal world, the conception of law can hardly be applied to it. The avenger slays his enemy, and there is the end of it. Subsequently a religious sanction is attached to the notion of revenge, just as a custom grows up about common proprietorship. All this, however, is anterior to law as we know it, just as much as it is anterior to territorial sovereignty. How any conception, therefore, of law that is of any value can be made to cover all the diverse and antagonistic systems out of which law has grown, it is hard to see; and, curiously enough, we find the author in his preface hinting that

"perhaps hardly any idea of law is likely to be accepted by all students; it is sufficient if each aspect is from time to time brought prominently forward, and so made to influence actual conduct. In the complication of human affairs it is enough for us to give every view proper expression and representation; the blending of them is effected, and the final result worked into the history of the race, by forces which are beyond human control."

We have had such frequent occasion, in the course of the discussions over the extradition treaty with Great Britain, to refer to the first edition of Mr. Spear's work on extradition, and have found it so full and careful a work, that we take great pleasure in commending this revision to the attention of the public. Mr. Spear is doubly qualified for his task, as he is the author of a very good book on the Federal judiciary, a subject with which any one writing on extradition ought to be familiar. Every one interested in extradition will open the book to see what he has to say about the cases of Eno and Tully. Here we find that the author holds much the same views expressed in these columns at the time that the cases were disposed of—that there was no room for criticism of the position taken by the judiciary. The general principle of these decisions, as also of the Windsor case in England, was that a treaty crime cannot be stretched beyond what was intended to be covered by the language of the treaty at the time of its ratification by the contracting parties. It would certainly be very convenient if, having a treaty with England authorizing the extradition of persons charged with the crime of "forgery," we could then, by simply enlarging the meaning of that term in our statutes, make falsification of accounts and embezzlement treaty crimes, notwithstanding the fact that the treaty is entirely silent about them. There seems hardly any limit to the use we might make of our legislative prerogative: if we could make false accounts forgery, in the third or fourth degree, could we not make any misrepresentation of a fact on paper forgery in some degree a little more remote, and thus transport ourselves by easy stages into the realm of perjury, or any other offence of which falsehood is an essential part? Indeed, on the theory contended for by those interested in Eno's extradition, could we not, by simply declaring in a statute that any crime or misdemeanor should hereafter be known as forgery in such and such a degree, enlarge and change the treaty to any extent we pleased?

Besides the cases relating to this point, Mr. Spear has added to his authorities on the old question of the right to extradite for one crime and try the prisoner for another. In the case of Vanderpool and Jones, the Supreme Court of Ohio had it before them very recently. The defendants were indicted for forgery committed in 1880. On being arraigned, they pleaded that prior to the finding of the indictment they had been extradited from Canada to Ohio for another offence under the treaty of 1842; that they had been tried, convicted, and sentenced, and were now serving out their sentence in the penitentiary. The Court held that the prisoners could not be put on trial for a crime for which they were not extradited. In Ker's case, the matter came up in a different way before Judge Drummond, in the Circuit Court for the Northern District of Illinois. Ker was kidnapped in Peru, brought to the United States, and duly indicted for crimes within the jurisdiction of the court. He applied for a writ of habeas corpus, and the court thought the case not so clear as to authorize the issuance of the writ, and used language implying that, while a prisoner might be entitled to the writ when he was extradited for one crime and tried for another, if he were simply kidnapped, the question of the right to hold him under the treaty could not be raised. But the Judge also pointed out that his decision was not final, as the prisoner could set up the defence in other ways, and said that on this account he was the less inclined to grant the writ. Mr. Spear makes the further suggestion that "he might very properly have considered a preliminary question, and that is whether, upon the showing of the facts, he had any jurisdiction over the case."

Thatcher's 'Digest,' originally confined to the Supreme Court, has grown into a work of three volumes, embracing the District and Circuit Courts as well; *i. e.*, the whole field of Federal practice. It is a valuable book of reference, probably the best of its kind. We cannot compare it with Judge B. R. Curtis's invaluable little handbook on the jurisdiction of the Federal Courts, for that consists of elementary lectures delivered at the Harvard Law School, while this is simply what it is called by the author, a digest—that is, a collection of decisions, rules, and statutes for use in actual practice. The practice of the tribunals of the United States is getting every year to be more important, the field of jurisdiction is growing wider and wider, the number of cases annually reported is always increasing, and the interests involved in litigation continually rising in amount and value.

It is a curious fact, as pointed out by Judge Curtis in his lectures, that a large part of this Federal business should have got into these courts through a fiction of law, introduced in the middle of the nineteenth century by the judges of the Supreme Court, by a process analogous to, if not identical with, that which grafted so many fictions upon primitive Roman and English law. This fiction is that of the citizenship of corporations in the State of their creation, which is simply a fiction growing out of the imaginary presumption that the corporators are citizens of that State—a presumption which the judges of the Supreme Court held, in the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad Company vs. Wheeler, 1 Black, 286, could not be contradicted or disproved. The Federal courts might to a very great extent be shorn of their jurisdiction over corporations by the simple enactment of a statute repealing this rule, for it would in nine cases out of ten be impossible to prove the jurisdictional fact which is now conclusively presumed. We mention this here because one of the plans for the relief of the Supreme Court is the withdrawal altogether of the jurisdiction of the Circuit Courts so far as it is founded upon citizenship in different States.

In Mr. Thatcher's present volume there are citations from 246 volumes of reports. These are classified under various heads, to which there is an alphabetical index. So far as we have been able to test this, it seems full and accurate. The author gives in all cases the date of the decision, the importance of which so many digesters overlook.

The Produce Exchange, like the Stock and other commercial exchanges, is already producing every year a crop of decisions by which the peculiar customs and obligations of its members in their relations with each other and with the public are being gradually classified and regulated under general principles of law. The process is an interesting one in any department of human activity, and the mere mention of the great body of new law on the subject of warehouse receipts, and of the legal nature of membership in exchanges, will serve to remind the reader of what he will find in a volume like that of Messrs. Bisbee and Simonds. Their collection of cases is valuable, and their statement of the conflicting views of courts on such topics as we have mentioned seems fair. In a second edition they will perhaps be able to give a more careful exposition of their own views on the subject of the law governing warehouse receipts. Their treatment of it shows marks of haste, which perhaps does no very substantial harm, as it is made up for by great fulness of treatment; but as a specimen of legal style the book might be greatly improved. It contains, besides its discussion of the law, much valuable information as to the history and organization of the institutions to which it relates.

Mr. Lawson's last volume completes his series of 'Leading Cases Simplified.' He has now treated in a "brief and semi-humorous form" the leading cases of the common law, of equity, and constitutional law, and of criminal jurisprudence. In the present volume he includes an "assize sermon" of his own to the judges of appeal, which shows that Mr. Lawson takes the view of delay in capital cases always maintained in these columns—that the procedure needs to be much more rapid, and the result much more certain.

In less than 150 octavo pages, all told, Doctor Mielziner gives all that the lay reader, especially the Gentile, cares to know about the Jewish law of marriage and divorce. The main subjects treated are "monogamy and polygamy," which has only an historical interest; prohibited marriages; forms of the marriage ceremony; effects of marriage; dissolution by death or divorce. The author, though free from the exuberant show of erudition which John Selden made in his 'Uxor Hebraica,' gives in his foot-notes illustrations from the laws and customs of different countries, nations, and churches, from which the Jewish custom may, in some instances, be derived, while in others there is only the resemblance due to a common origin. Curiously enough, he never quotes Selden. He gives first, by way of introduction, the ethical drift, as distinguished from the legal provisions, in Bible and

Talmud. Though both allow polygamy and divorce at the husband's will, both of them deprecate these relics of barbarism, and teach man to honor and cherish woman as his companion and equal. Coming to prohibited marriages, we are told that the Jewish interpreters, unlike the Catholic and Anglican Church, have never extended the Levitical degrees by construction; hence an uncle may, and often does, marry his niece, though a nephew cannot wed his aunt. All Jewish authorities agree, under the plain provisions of Leviticus, xviii. 18, that a man may marry the sister of his deceased wife. The "secondary" degrees which are prohibited by the rabbis, are unimportant, and, with the exception of the "maternal aunt by marriage," almost out of the question; and as to these degrees, it is plainly admitted that the prohibition is not Scriptural, but only *propter bonos mores*, and a marriage within them is but voidable—that is, the parties to it are bidden to dissolve it by divorce.

As to the *forms* of solemnizing marriage, it is shown that the use of the ring as the "money's worth" for the purpose of "acquiring" the wife is very recent among the Jews; the Talmud nowhere mentions it, neither does Maimonides, writing in Spain in the twelfth century. The presence of a rabbi or minister of any kind is also a comparatively modern usage. Formerly a rabbi was never called in, except to give his opinion as to legal obstacles to a proposed union; the groom himself, or one of his friends, would recite the benedictions, both at the betrothal and at the nuptials. Doctor Mielziner makes it very clear that neither of these ceremonies is a "sacrament."

HUMAN INTERCOURSE.

Human Intercourse. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1884.

Mr. Hamerton has chosen what at first sight seems a singular title for his latest volume; yet on examination it proves not to be a bad one. It is dedicated to the memory of Emerson, on account of the "great and persistent influence" that author had on Mr. Hamerton's course of thought and work; and human intercourse is certainly a subject to which much of Emerson's writing relates. Mr. Hamerton, however, shows the influence of Emerson much more in his subject than in his treatment. He is no mystic, nor poet; simply an essayist gifted with more than ordinary curiosity, intelligence, and power of analysis and exposition. The ground covered by him is that which has been gone over by poets, essayists, dramatists, novelists, psychologists, since the world began. The difference is that few of his predecessors, so far as we can remember, have avowed by the title of their works the ambitious extent of their researches.

Mr. Hamerton's book we should distinctly call, like everything else he has written, "readable." We can give the best idea of it, perhaps, by analyzing one of the chapters—that on "Differences of Rank and Wealth." He opens this by saying that the most remarkable peculiarity about the desire to establish distinctions of rank is, that public opinion should establish distinctions among people who are not people of title at all. As an illustration of this, he says that he once dined at a country house in Scotland where the host asked one of the guests, "Are you a land-owner?" in order to determine his precedence. He adds these reflections: "It struck me that the distinction between a man who had a moderate sum invested in land, and one who had twice as much in other investments, was not clearly in favor of the first." Again, Mr. Hamerton professes himself unable to understand, except "in the most confused manner," the distinction between "those who are in trade and those who are not." He declares that he can understand trade being objected to socially because it is followed solely for profit. But if this were the ground of the objection, "every profession followed for profit has in it what is objectionable in trade," and the professions themselves are not noble unless they are followed "in a disinterested spirit."

"I should say, then, that any attempt to fix the degree of nobleness of persons by the supposed nobleness of their occupations must be founded upon an unreal distinction. A venal clergyman who does not believe the dogmas that he defends for his endowment; a venal barrister, ready to prostitute his talents and his tongue for a large income, seem to me to have in them far more of what is objectionable in trade than a country bookseller who keeps a little shop and sells note-paper and sealing-wax over the counter; yet it is assumed that their occupations are noble occupations," etc., etc.

Again, why is the wine trade considered (all this applies to England chiefly) a specially gentlemanly occupation? Are not bread, cheese, beef, and mutton, Mr. Hamerton asks in surprise, more useful to the community than alcoholic drinks? Another "wonderful unreality" which he points out is, that people, "in order to fill their pockets and preserve their rank at the same time," "engage in business anonymously, either as members of some firm in which their names do not appear, or else as shareholders in great trading enterprises." Another inconsistency is, that a man may be excluded from "good society" because he is in trade, while his grandson may be admitted because his grandfather was in trade, that is, "through a fortune of commercial origin."

Mr. Hamerton next advances to the indisputable proposition that "there is a great deal of unreal distinction in the matter of ancestry," many persons of old family being in humble social positions, simply from want of money, "whilst others usurp their coats-of-arms and claim a descent that they cannot really prove." In conclusion, what should the wise man think of all these things? Should he not think of rank and wealth at all and simply take human nature as it comes? If he does, he had better go and live in a tub or in a cave, for nowhere else will he escape both these evils; and Mr. Hamerton, having first shown how unreal are distinctions of rank, has many a good and true word to say, per contra, for wealth, and what it does for "human intercourse," making it easy and refined, bringing within our reach so many varied kinds of interest. Not that Mr. Hamerton is a worshipper of the golden calf, but he is a just man, and likes to look at a subject on all its sides, and say neatly and well all that it occurs to him to say with regard to it.

Sometimes Mr. Hamerton suggests a new view of some old topic, as witness the following:

"The general opinion in our own country condemns falsehood by exaggeration, but it does not blame falsehood by diminution. Overstatement is regarded as a vice, and understatement as a sort of modest virtue, whilst in fact they are both untruthful, exactly in their degree of departure from perfect accuracy. . . . By a strange result of conventionalism, a man is admired for using language of the utmost clearness and force in literature, whilst if he talked as vigorously as he wrote (except, perhaps, in extreme privacy and even secrecy with one or two confidential companions) he would be looked upon as scarcely civilized. This may be one of the reasons why English literature, including the periodical, is so abundant in quantity and so full of energy. It is a mental outlet, a *dérivatif*."

Mr. Hamerton's horizon is by no means confined to England. He is familiar, as readers of his other books know, with French life, and what is most valuable in this volume comes from his knowledge of European life. His "human intercourse" is generally the social intercourse of Englishmen with one another as observed by one who knows how the same things seem in France. If he wishes to extend his range of observation, he could not do a better thing than to study "human intercourse" in the United States; for he would find here a country in which most of what is regarded as adventitious and factitious in English human intercourse has been dropped, where there are no ranks, no rules of precedence, hardly any social distinctions founded on occupation; where falsehood by diminution is looked upon with as much disfavor as falsehood by exaggeration or inflation—if, indeed, in some circles the latter is not looked upon with positive approval; and yet where "good society" is hollow and frivolous and pretentious and unreal and still satirized as being devoted to mere wealth.

There is one point which Mr. Hamerton and all philosophers like him who undertake to discuss society as it is and society as it might be, overlook, thus introducing great confusion into their best work—and that is, the object for which "good society" is carried on. This is not self-improvement or edification: it is simply and solely amusement and relaxation. Whether it amuses itself in a refined way or in a vulgar way, in an intelligent way or in a stupid, boorish way, in a moral or in an immoral way, will depend on the general fund of education and refinement and morality upon which it draws. But the idea that it will ever change its object, or keep itself going for the sake of making the world more moral or more refined or more educated, is a great mistake. Good society is what a community puts forward as one of its flowers; if the growth be rank and poisonous, there is no use in addressing homilies to the flower. There is clearly something wrong in the soil, in the community, or, perhaps, in the race of which the community is a part.

Syntax des Französischen und Englischen in vergleichender Darstellung. Von Dr. Friedrich Brinkmann, Oberlehrer. Braunschweig: Vieweg & Sohn; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 2 vols.

Dr. Brinkmann holds that "there is no greater difference between the syntax of the French and that of the English than between the French and the Spanish or the Italian syntax." It is true that he does not think this fancied similarity so very great in modern French as it is apparent in the French of the sixteenth century, "the uniting link between modern French and modern English." It is to "that form which it [the French language] had gradually assumed by natural development before the last alteration was made in it, in the seventeenth century," that he calls attention, as also to "the language of the great prose-writers, Calvin, Rabelais, Montaigne, Amyot, and the poets, Marot and Ronsard and his school," as presenting examples of that great freedom which is found in English, and which distinguishes it and the French of the sixteenth century from modern French.

The learned author finds good reasons for this in the fact that the two languages lived side by side for centuries, in England, the French predominating; and he quotes Macaulay to show that William the Conqueror's companions and their descendants, to the fourth generation, spoke French; that this language was spoken in the court, in the castles of the barons and knights, and, by degrees, made its way into the courts of justice and the Parliament. It was not till the middle of the fourteenth century, says Doctor Brinkmann, that the supremacy of the French language and literature began to wane in England. About that time English was substituted for French (as a study) in the Latin schools, and somewhat later in the courts of justice, while the use of French in Parliamentary business was kept up until the following century, and still later as the language of the laws. Yet French main-

tained its influence in literature, even at that time. For these various reasons, Doctor Brinkmann concludes that the syntax of the English language is, "for the greater part, an imitation of the French and Latin."

He overlooks, however, the fact that while the nobles and the officers of the Government accepted, perforce, the language of their rulers, the people stoutly resisted its introduction, and the conquerors had to learn the idiom of the conquered—the Anglo-Saxon. This language, which had absorbed the Celtic, had received but slight modifications from the invasions of the Danes and Norwegians, and these modifications only tended to strengthen the German element. When Alfred, disguised as a minstrel, penetrated into the Danish camp, the Danes understood his Saxon songs and stories. After the Norman invasion, another blending process followed, by which Norman-French words were grafted upon the native stock. The language of William and his followers can scarcely be called "French," for at the time of the invasion the *langue d'oïl*, spoken in northern France, was divided into four principal dialects—namely, those of Normandy, Picardy, Burgundy, and the Isle of France—which last, the fountain-head of modern French, finally absorbed the others in the fourteenth century. Roger Bacon, who visited France in 1240, noticed the existence of these various dialects, and mentions them in his 'Opus Majus.' William the Conqueror and his followers, therefore, spoke *Norman*, and the gradual transformation of this dialect into French must have been slower and less complete in England than on the Continent. That the antagonism between the two languages continued while "they lived side by side" is demonstrated by the very fact that, during the glorious reign of Edward III., English was recognized as the legal language and French banished from the courts of justice. This could not have been a sudden measure. It was the culmination of the latent but protracted struggle of the national language with that of the foreigner. It was a public confession that, after three centuries of possession, French had failed to root out or to absorb the Anglo-Saxon—the language from which modern English derives its structure, idiom, and inflections, the language to which it owes its terseness and simplicity, while its irregularities are due to the many sources from which it has drawn its wealth and variety of expressions.

French, once banished, must have fallen rapidly into disuse, even within the precincts of the court. Shakspere in his "Richard II." makes the *Duchess of York* exclaim, as she pleads for her son to *Bolingbroke*:

> "Speak pardon, as 'tis current in our land;
> The chopping French we do not understand."

And in the charming wooing scene in "King Henry V." the enamored king tells fair *Katharine* of France: "It is as easy for me, Kate, to conquer the kingdom as to speak so much more French. I shall never move thee in French, unless it be to laugh at me." And, further on, "Now, fie upon my *false* French! By mine honor, in *true English*, I love thee, Kate."

This "true English" was the old Anglo-Saxon, softened by the smooth French sounds that had been added to it and enriched with many new terms, but losing nothing of its originality. Chaucer, while preserving the Saxon characteristics in his verse, used many French words which have since disappeared from the language. Especially in Spenser's time was the Anglo-Saxon rid of these superfluous additions; and here, two facts may be noted: first, that the English words of French extraction have benefited poetry more than prose; and secondly, that the major part of the words retained are but synonyms, giving new names to existing things and ideas.

What was the condition of the French language, *in France*, during that period of three hundred years? M. A. Brachet, in his 'Grammaire historique de la langue française,' tells us that old French, with its two cases (borrowed from the original six cases of the Latin declension) and its several dialects, prevailed until the close of the thirteenth century; the work of transformation then began, to continue through a whole century. The fifteenth century saw the birth of modern French; the sixteenth, its growth. Says M. Brachet:

> "The French language, such as it appears to us as early as 1535 in Calvin's celebrated manifesto ('The Institutes of the Christian Religion'), is already completely mature; it is an excellent instrument for every shade of expression; our idiom seems to have fixed forms. And if the French language had remained in that condition, it is clear that the seventeenth century and Malherbe would have had nothing to reform; but it was spoiled and compromised by an extravagant invasion of foreign words, borrowed from the Italian, the Greek, and the Latin."

Now, the English language of the fifteenth century—save in its uncertain orthography—bears as much resemblance to modern English as the French of the same period does to modern French. Modern English, according to most grammarians, arose during that brilliant epoch of our literature, the reign of Elizabeth; but its foundation may be found in the grammatical revolution which occurred in the latter part of the fifteenth century, and it owes its development to the Reformation and its polemic writers. "The progress of the human mind has been," says a French writer, "from poetry toward science; and all modern languages, at a certain period of their history, have shown a tendency to leave the synthetical construction for the analytical, thereby gaining in precision and clearness what they lost in poetical force and harmony." At no time was this tendency more marked than during the sixteenth century. The English language assumed certain fixed forms about the same period that French attained its highest point of perfection and that modern German was modelled by Luther, who reformed the language as well as the religion of Germany.

The points of syntactic analogy between French and English—and Doctor Brinkmann has certainly made the most of them—are not sufficiently striking or numerous to support his theory. Where analogy is found between English and Latin grammar, it is precisely in those rules which French—a Latin language—had rejected long before the sixteenth century: for instance, the declension of nouns, inflection, and the neuter gender. Nor does the invariable definite article of the English in any way resemble the article which the French made out of a Latin pronoun; it is Saxon, and was in use in England before the *lingua rustica* gave way to the Romance language in France. The use of the abstract nouns without this article—more common in French in the sixteenth century than nowadays—was just as common in old English. Nor can we detect any analogy in the auxiliary verbs or in the syntactic rules that govern the adjectives and participles in the two languages. The difficulty in finding this analogy becomes greater when we consider the names of the "great prose writers" mentioned in this connection by Doctor Brinkmann. Did he discover it in those clear, forcible writings of Calvin which any French scholar can read with as much facility as he can Thiers's or Guizot's works? Was it in Rabelais's works, so rich in quaint words and novel expressions, but which can be understood only with the help of a glossary? Or did the English model their syntax upon the masterpieces of "Ronsard and his school," after these worthies had attempted to reconstruct the French language upon Greek and Latin bases, thereby destroying its beautiful simplicity and clearness?

Doctor Brinkmann's work is a monument of vast learning and patient research, and the German student will find it of invaluable help in mastering both French and English. It might be less voluminous without losing anything of its effectiveness. Where two or three examples would be deemed amply sufficient by an English or French writer, our author gives twenty. Yet, as this disposition to amplify is essentially a German characteristic, his German readers will not complain. His subject could not have been treated in a more thorough and exhaustive manner. He is evidently as familiar with the literature as with the syntax of the two languages he proposes to teach. The French authors, from Amyot to George Sand, and the English, from Shakspere to Carlyle, furnish him many an apt quotation. He is not, however, always happy in his rendering of idioms—of which there are several long lists in his book. The idea conveyed by the expression "faire fureur," which is 'to be in vogue,' 'to be much sought or run after,' is hardly grasped when rendered by 'to create sensation.' "Faire abnégation de" is not 'to deny,' but to make a sacrifice which implies self-denial; nor does "faire abstraction de" mean 'to abstract.' A plunderer may "faire main basse" on everything he can lay his hands on, or, figuratively, a hungry fellow on all the eatables; neither can be said to 'put to the sword' the plunder or the viands. "Avoir bon nez," 'to have a fine nose'—in German, 'Eine feine Nase haben'—Doctor Brinkmann quotes from Molière's "George Dandin," and his misconception is the more remarkable since Molière used it in the figurative sense of 'to be sagacious, far-sighted.' The German who, wishing to "pay his address to a [French] lady," should make known his intention to "lui conter fleurettes," would be guilty of a grievous mistake. 'To watch or sit up in the night' is simply "veiller," not "être sur pied." 'To walk like a wolf,' for "marcher à pas de loup" (that is, stealthily), is rather too literal. 'Blind by birth,' for 'born blind' or 'blind from one's birth,' is scarcely English. The "delicates," instead of the delicacies (of the table), although used by Dryden and Shakspere, is no longer modern, we believe, and Doctor Brinkmann is somewhat at sea as to the meaning when he renders 'to be at sea' by "aller par mer," instead of "être en mer," or "sur mer."

But such idiomatic blunders, and even the more serious one of misquoting a passage from Mme. de Staël (*que* for *qui*), and thereby making that writer guilty of a mistake in French syntax, may be due to the careless handling of the dictionary and copying of extracts by an amanuensis charged with the drudgery of the work. They detract nothing from the scientific part. Besides, one may have a perfect knowledge of syntax and yet be bothered by an idiomatic expression.

Ueber Nervosität. Vortrag von Prof. Dr. von Krafft-Ebing. Zweite Auflage. Graz: Leuschner & Lubensky.

Dr. von Krafft-Ebing is not only one of the leading alienists of the day, but a remarkably clear and incisive writer. In the brief space of sixty pages this brochure contains so many valuable suggestions on nervousness, its causes, symptoms, and treatment, that a translation of it would doubtless find numerous readers and do much good. We are accustomed to regard nervousness as a special American prerogative; but Krafft-Ebing, speaking particularly of Austria and Germany, declares that the two great failings of our time are anæmia and nervousness, as

a glance at a numerous class of advertisements alone would show. Formerly nervousness was confined to the upper classes, but now it is common to all, to men and women, to teacher and pupil, to brain and muscle workers. He believes, however, that it is merely a transient phenomenon of civilization, due to the unprecedented activity in every sphere of life, which makes the struggle for existence more severe than ever, while those who feel they are succumbing hasten their ruin by indulging in the stimulants and narcotics which modern science and commerce have placed within the reach of all. The decrease of the rural population and the consequent overcrowding of cities are also referred to as leading causes of nervousness, the correctness of this diagnosis being evinced by the fact that a short visit to the country usually at once dispels the symptoms of the disease. The difficulty of establishing a comfortable home induces an increasing proportion of men to marry late or not at all, and this throws on the world a large number of women who have to earn their own living. Among this class of women—bookkeepers, telegraphers, postal clerks, governesses, etc.—the Professor finds a peculiarly large number of victims; and he explains this as due not to any natural incompetence of the female brain to engage in regular work, but to the fact that centuries of purely domestic life have left the female mind without that special elasticity and strength which inherited capacity and habit alone can impart.

Over-pressure in schools appears to be responsible for much nervous weakness and suffering. From 60 to 80 per cent. of school-children in Germany are shortsighted. The higher class of the Gymnasia and Realschulen have thirty-six hours a week of school work, with an additional two or four hours a day of home work. Gymnastic exercise is everywhere prescribed to mitigate the evils of over-pressure; but Professor Nussbaum declares that experience shows that "injuries to the brain are not repaired by strengthening the muscles. Limitation of the school hours is the only remedy." Professor Krafft-Ebing's remarks on the treatment of nervous children are of especial value; and he also points out the dangers of hereditary transmission, as the nervous constitution is specially apt to be inherited. Among the general prophylactic measures recommended are the inculcation of temperance principles; non-taxation of the most necessary articles of food; hygiene of the home, schools, and factories; state regulation of the hours and wages of operatives; lowering of school hours and raising the age of admission.

Comments are made on our foolish habit of reserving for parlor and reception rooms our largest and sunniest apartments, and sleeping in small, badly-ventilated rooms. Weather-strips are useful in saving fuel and preventing colds, but the alternatives are anæmia, nervousness, and consumption. The writer regrets that whereas there are plenty of asylums for the insane, there is but little provision for nervous patients, who need, above all, removal from their every-day surroundings and petty annoyances. He speaks favorably of the growing habit of rusticating in summer, but suggests that brain workers should be allowed four weeks of vacation, atonement being made by the improved quality of work and postponement of the time for pensioning. The Professor has an ingenious way of explaining why nervous patients are so apt to fall into the hands of charlatans. The body is greatly influenced by the mind, as is shown, *e. g.*, by the facts that fear of the dentist very frequently drives away toothache; that the presence of a trusted physician dispels other evils; and that the mere presence of a favorite narcotic on the night table may overcome sleeplessness. The quack acts on this principle, gives his patient some harmless dose or pill, and trusts to the faith cure for the rest. The patient believes in the remedy, recovers cheerfulness, which alone was needed to tone up his nerves; and the quack succeeds because he is a better psychologist than the physician, who made light of the patient's complaints on the insufficient ground that some of them were purely imaginary.

The Chief Works of Benedict de Spinoza. Translated from the Latin with an introduction, by R. H. M. Elwes. 2 vols., pp. 387, 420. [Bohn's Philosophical Library.] London: George Bell & Sons. New York: Scribner & Welford.

Benedik Baruch von Spinoza's Stellung zum Judenthum und Christenthum. Von Dr. Alfr. Chr. Kalischer. [Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen.] Berlin: Carl Habel. 8vo, pp. 88.

THE two volumes of Spinoza by Mr. Elwes, giving a translation of the works of the great Jewish thinker in the convenient Bohn edition, are a valuable and much-needed addition to a philosophical library. Taken with the recent essays of Pollock and Martineau, and the Continental ones collected by Knight, and Auerbach's biographical novel, they give us a pretty full knowledge of a philosophy about which the English materials were before so scanty. A complete English edition is still wanting. Notwithstanding his abstruse style, with its quasi-mathematical demonstrations, it is only necessary to mention Lessing, Goethe, Heine, Coleridge, Shelley, and George Eliot to see what an attraction Spinoza has had for poetic minds of a transcendental cast. The loftiness and eternal calm of his teachings were full of zest to them; and Mr. Elwes notes in this preface the kinship with Stoicism to which his doctrine of the all-embracing nature of the divine substance led Spinoza in his moral code, though his view of moral emotions and exaltation of personal pleasure was far more Epicurean in its type.

Not a few modern thinkers sympathize with his conclusions, although the force of his logic is weakened by his pantheistic assumption that mind and matter are essentially identical (being different modes of the same substance), and hence that an idea, if it was distinct and adequate, must necessarily be true. This strange way of taking the conceivability of a notion as the test of its truth, permeates his whole system so thoroughly that it is impossible to eliminate it, or throw his work into a sound logical form; and the hedonism, pantheism, and disbelief in personal immortality which he taught are obstacles to many thinkers. On the other hand, Mr. Elwes ought to have noticed the valuable nature of his work in disproving the theory of a multiplicity of substances, urged by Leibnitz and others, and giving us instead his lofty view of the unity of the divine substance. This fundamental opposition was doubtless the cause of the slighting way in which Leibnitz spoke of him.

It seems idle now, in our better understanding of Spinoza's views, to look for any foundation for the belief in personal immortality, or the atheism, which his contemporaries were so ready to assign to him.

"Strange," says Dr. Hedge, "that the stigma of atheism should have been affixed to a system whose very starting point is Deity, and whose great characteristic is the ignoration of everything but Deity, insomuch that the pure and devout Novalis pronounced the author a God-drunken man, and Spinozism a surfeit of Deity. Naturally, enough, the charge of atheism comes from the unbelieving Bayle, whose omnivorous mind, like the anaconda, assisted its enormous deglutition with a poisonous saliva of its own, and whose negative temper makes the 'Dictionnaire Historique' more morgue than Valhalla."

Of the pamphlet of Dr. Kalischer it is not necessary to say much, for it is not very able, and is written from a somewhat Jewish standpoint. His main points are, that Spinoza did not recognize sufficiently the religious endowment of the Jewish nation or the spiritual character of prophecy (as, for instance, in putting Solomon among the prophets); and that he thought too much of keeping the Jews a distinct people, and too little of the Christian ceremonies. Dr. Kalischer defends him, however, against the criticisms which George Eliot puts into the mouth of Mordecai, which he calls sickly sentimentality, and gives a good many appreciative quotations from Schopenhauer, Novalis, and Goethe.

Personal Traits of British Authors. I.—Wordsworth, Coleridge, Lamb, Hazlitt, Leigh Hunt, Procter. II.—Byron, Shelley, Moore, Keats, Southey, Landor. Edited by Edward T. Mason. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885.

THE object of these two volumes, together with the two others which will supplement them, is to give the literary gossip, already set down in books, regarding twenty-seven of the authors whose works have made the literature of this century memorable in English speech. The treatment of the twelve authors named in the titles above may be fairly taken as that of the whole series, and of its kind it is entirely satisfactory. The papers in each case are made up of paragraphs from the various volumes of biography or reminiscence in which first-hand knowledge of the author in question is to be obtained. The only original matter is the semi-bibliographical note prefixed to each bundle of extracts, and the chronological tables of each life. All that can be asked of an editor who adopts such a method of compilation is a thorough acquaintance with the field, and good sense and good taste in his selection; and these capacities Mr. Mason exhibits.

The result is that, although the personal traits are fairly recorded, without any marked prejudice for or against any of the authors, nevertheless no consistent personal impression is given. It is necessarily so, because the extracts are from the whole range of friendly or hostile comment and observation. Here is what a cold or dull man perceived, and next to it what an enthusiast saw in his hero. The lack of any attempt to harmonize, or even to sift out and in some way arrange, the different and frequently conflicting impressions of several persons regarding Byron, for example, leaves the reader at the end of his perusal with a very mixed notion of what Byron was after all, what traits he really and normally had, and how they entered into his composite character. One has much the same feeling as after reading the summaries of character in the 'Variorum Hamlet'—the heart of the mystery, he feels, is still to be plucked out. The material for private judgment, however, is given, and one is told where to find more if he desires further evidence in the case. In fine, the series is not critical, but encyclopædic, and thus, while it does not relieve one of the task of weighing evidence, it affords a literary brief, and makes many books (often not easily to be obtained) unnecessary to the student of literary character. Primarily its interest is that of anecdote. The portraits are poor things.

The Foundation of Death: a Study of the Drink Question. By Axel Gustafson. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

THE temperance, or more strictly the alcohol, question as a social problem is constantly extending its scope, or at least its volume, and is yearly, in one direction or another, making stronger appeals to reason and to emotion. The argument, however, is by no means one-sided; for while the

literature is essentially aggressive, an occasional formal defence is made, as when the Brewers' Association publishes a discussion of the 'Real and Imaginary Effects of Intemperance,' and a perfectly honest respect for personal liberty occasionally finds vent on the platform. The natural reaction against control, and the feeling that every man should be his own governor, influence much private conversation, and excuse, if they do not explain, a good deal of the moderate and social drinking. A silent, but the most strenuous, antagonist of all is the appetite that, spontaneous or kindled by emulation of the elders, daily recruits its supporters from the adolescent, and in the truest sense grows by what it feeds upon.

On the attacking side, the latest weapon, or, better, arsenal of weapons, is the volume above named. Its pages teem with argument, statistics, and entreaty, looking to total abstinence as the only safe rule for one's self and one's neighbor. The author began with the impression that moderate drinking might be advisable, or at least permissible. He speedily reached the conclusion that drink is an accursed thing, with which no one may tamper. The work is essentially a compilation, but it is in the main well done, and the exaggerations that seem almost inevitable in dealing with this question are neither gross nor numerous. On a few points more might be said, and, in our judgment, a little be left unsaid; but it is a valuable mine to the reformer, and we commend its careful reading to those who think it harmless to look upon the wine when it is red.

The Development Theory. A brief statement for general readers. By Joseph Y. Bergen, Jr., and Fanny D. Bergen. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1884. 12mo, pp. 240. Illustrated.

THIS work contains a fair and very readable presentation of the theory and evidences of organic evolution. "In the preparation of this elementary book on a great subject, the authors have tried to meet what seems to them a real need." Their aim has been to present a more concise view of the present standing of the theory, and at the same time one which, seen by the majority, will be less obscured by technicalities than any that has yet appeared. The book is well adapted to its purpose in plan and execution. It deserves a favorable reception. Whether the title will in all cases convey the idea intended is doubtful. On taking up the volume the question naturally suggested to many will be, "Which of the numerous theories?" It is explained in the first pages to mean the theory of Organic Evolution or that of Descent, which will hardly meet the approval of advocates of various development theories. Linnæus is not generally called the father of Natural History, as by the authors; Aristotle has a better and an older right to the designation. The description of the metamorphosis of the Axolotl is included in these words: "Some of these animals cast their skins after crawling out of the water, and begin a new existence in the shape of a common salamander (Amblystoma)," which is worse than no information on the subject. Several of the illustrations are very poor: fig. 25, Adult Male Orang, for instance, adds nothing to the attractiveness of the theory of descent.

The Ancient Empires of the East. By A. H. Sayce, Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology, Oxford. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884. 12mo, pp. 301.

PROFESSOR SAYCE'S object, in his new Oriental history, can be best described in his own words. He says that, owing to the rapid progress of research and the numerous discoveries in this field, the works of Rawlinson, Lenormant, and Maspero have already become antiquated in some regards, and it was time "that stock should once more be taken of our present knowledge, and the ever-increasing mass of facts—many of them hidden away in obscure periodicals—be reduced to order and consistency." His book is in reality the second volume of an edition of the first three books of Herodotus. In a very interesting preface, Professor Sayce discusses the trustworthiness of the "father of history" in relation to Oriental history, with the conclusion that he is not at all to be relied upon. He calls attention to "the profound difference between the history of the East as told by the great writers of classical antiquity and by the native monuments themselves"; and then, after examining the nature of Herodotus's evidence in some detail, declares that "modern research obliges us to endorse the judgment passed upon Herodotus almost as soon as his History was published: it is not only untrustworthy but unveracious. We cannot accept a statement made by the author, even where he seems to be describing his own personal experiences, unless it is verified by other and better testimony."

Having thus cleared away the rubbish, as we may say, Professor Sayce proceeds to inform his readers what the monuments, and they only, tell us of the ancient history of the East. In this volume his object has not been to present a complete account of his subject, but rather an account of what is new in it. He passes very cursorily over familiar ground, but dwells with considerable detail upon the facts that have been recently discovered. An outline is given of the whole history, so that it may serve as a manual for the subject; but the special use of the book will be as a supplement to older and more elaborate works, as, for example, that of Lenormant and Chevallier. A very valuable feature of it is the careful statement and appreciation of the sources of information, whether literary or monumental. In this respect the book will prove a useful guide to the student who wishes to enter more deeply into the study.

Perhaps the most striking piece of recent information is in regard to "the important part once played by the Hittite race"—a fact, says Professor Sayce, not recognized even in so recent a book as that of Maspero. The history of the Hittites is brought into Chapter iv, "Lydia," in which it occupies several pages. We are told (p. 212) that, "as late as the seventh century B. C., a non-Aryan population still held the country" east of the Halys. Of this "Proto-Armenian" race the Hittites were the most important branch, having "founded an Empire which contended on equal terms with Egypt, and once extended its sway as far as the Ægean. Its two capitals were Kadesh, on an island in the Orontes, and Carchemish, . . . on the Euphrates. . . . A Hittite tribe even succeeded in settling in the south of Palestine, in the neighborhood of Hebron. . . . But the Semites gradually managed to push the Hittites to the north, whence they had come." The final victory of the Semitic race was marked by the conquest of Carchemish, B. C. 717, by Tiglath-Pileser II. The Herakleid dynasty of Lydia, ending with the half-mythical Candaules, appears to have been of Hittite origin, and the Georgians may be regarded as the modern representatives of this Proto-Armenian race.

Besides the sketch of Hittite history, there are several matters of detail which will interest the historical student. We find (p. 242) the interesting fact, previously brought out by Professor Sayce in contributions to periodicals, that it was not Cyrus but Darius who was the representative of the pure Persian race and the Zoroastrian religion. The exodus of the Israelites is placed (p. 46) in B. C. 1320. The identification of the Elamite King Cudur-Lagamar with the Chedorlaomer of Genesis is maintained (p. 111). The religions of the Oriental world are well described, and this will be found a very valuable part of the work. There is no index, but an appendix contains elaborate lists of kings, both from the ancient writers and from the monuments. Twelve pages are given to those of Egypt alone—an invaluable aid to study.

An Historical Atlas: a chronological series of one hundred and twelve maps at successive periods, from the dawn of history to the present day. Seventh and enlarged edition. New York: Townsend MacCoun. 1884.

MR. LABBERTON'S historical atlas, which was first published in 1871, appears with a change of publishers, and with a very valuable addition—eight full-page maps and one supplementary one (of Alaska), illustrating the historical geography of the United States. In these American maps we cannot agree with the editor in regarding Oregon as a part of the Louisiana purchase; apart from this, they are accurate and very useful. There have also been added since the first edition maps to illustrate the Eastern Question, the annexation of Cyprus, and the growth of the British empire in India.

When the atlas was first published, we pointed out some errors and misprints (see *Nation*, October 19, 1871), which we are surprised still to find in this (professedly) revised edition. A few other points have attracted our attention, which we submit for consideration in any future revision. In map 7 Parthia should be considerably further north; it would be desirable, also, to give the Caspian Sea. In No. 8 we find *Zazynthus* for *Zacynthus*. No. 9, "Sixth progressive map, Hellenic ascendency," is the only one of the "progressive maps" which gives a date (as all ought to do). Unfortunately, the date is incorrect—B. C. 300. At this period, just after the battle of Ipsus, the kingdom of Thrace, under Lysimachus, embraced as well Thrace as all the western half of Asia Minor. The map here given, omitting the kingdom in question, is correct for 281, after the death of Lysimachus. In No. 12 (containing four small maps) we think the editor is mistaken in changing the coloring of the Balearic Isles, which in the first edition were represented as Carthaginian possessions before the first Punic war. He is certainly wrong in giving Sardinia the Carthaginian color after this war: it was occupied by Rome earlier than Corsica. No. 17 is an excellent one, giving correctly the divisions of the empire in the fifth century; it would add very much to its value to insert also the position of the half-dozen principal Germanic nations at this date (400). This would be desirable as a preparation for their changed positions in 500, in No. 18. Here, however, the Longobards ought to be further south—partly, at least, south of the Danube; and the Ostrogothic empire should stretch to the Rhone. In No. 19 the empire of Clovis in 507 should include the Alemanni. In No. 20 the Italian dominions of the Byzantine empire are not extensive enough. Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles all have the Saracen color in No. 20 (eighth century), but have lost it in No. 21 (ninth century); the reconquest was not until long after this date. The inclusion of Denmark within the empire of Charlemagne, in the same map, may have some formal basis, but has certainly no basis in fact. Bulgaria should also be south of the Danube—probably both north and south. In No. 28 the blue-red line (incorrectly called green-yellow, by a careless alteration from the old edition) should run east, instead of south, of Flanders, which was a French fief. In No. 28 the coloring gives the erroneous impression that Hungary and Bohemia were united in 1400, which was not the case until 1419.

In No. 33, Cleve should have the Prussian color, as well as Mark and Ravensberg.

An atlas as good as this is should be made faultless. For class purposes there is nothing to compare with it in the lucid and accurate presentation of territorial changes; especially in modern history the student will find it most serviceable. It does not aim to give the amount of detail that is required in reading our standard historians; but towns and rivers do not change their places, and can be found on modern maps. What the reader of Prescott and Motley wants is the larger relations and the shifting boundaries; and these he will find given admirably in this atlas.

Comparative Anatomy of the Vegetative Organs of the Phanerogams and Ferns. By Dr. A. DeBary, Professor in the University of Strassburg. Translated and Annotated by F. O. Bower and D. H. Scott. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1884. Royal 8vo, pp. 659, with 241 woodcuts.

THIS book has been long in coming. Intended as an integral part of the 'Handbook of Physiological Botany' commenced by Hofmeister in 1865, it appeared originally in the spring of 1877, and has only now donned its English dress—a becoming one, although in places rather stiff and awkward with German idioms and punctuation. Great thanks are due to the English translators and to the Delegates of the Clarendon Press. It does not so much matter that circumstances did not permit the work to be brought up to the latest date, either by the author or the translators; for "supplementary patching" is never quite satisfactory, and the fruits of many recent researches are still unripe. The occasional references to the more important subsequent memoirs given in foot-notes will serve for the present.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

About, E. La Mère de la Marquise. William R. Jenkins.
Allen, J. B. A Second Latin Exercise Book. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Baker, W. S. Medallic Portraits of Washington. With Historical and Critical Notes, and a Descriptive Catalogue of the Coins, Medals, Tokens, and Cards. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay.
Bankers' Directory and List of Bank Attorneys. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Bolles, A. S. The Banker's Almanac and Register for 1885. Homans Publishing Co.
Butler, A. J. The Ancient Coptic Churches of Egypt. 2 volumes. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Carroll, L. Alice's Adventures in Wonderland, and Through the Looking-Glass. Illustrated. In one volume. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Cleveland, Mrs. E. H. J. No Sect in Heaven. Library Edition. Philadelphia: George H. Buchanan & Co. 20 cents.
Comstock, J. M. Civil Service in the United States. From the Reports of 1884. Henry Holt & Co.
Cooke, J. E. My Lady Pokahontas. A True Relation of Virginia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Crafts, Rev. W. F. The Sabbath for Man. Funk & Wagnalls.
Cross, J. W. George Eliot's Life, Related in Her Letters and Journals. 3 vols. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents each.
Daudet, A. Le Siége de Berlin, etc. William R. Jenkins.
De Graff, E. V. Calisthenics and Disciplinary Exercises. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
De Laveleye, Émile. The Socialism of To-Day. With an Account of Socialism in England, by G. H. Orpen. London: Field & Tuer.
De Candolle, A. Origin of Cultivated Plants. D. Appleton & Co.
Dillwyn, E. A. Jill. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Duval, M. Artistic Anatomy. Cassell & Co.
Furneaux, H. Cornelii Taciti Annalium Libri I.–IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Gerhard, F. The Coming Creed of the World. Philadelphia: W. H. Thompson.
Hills, W. H. Students' Songs. Cambridge: Moses King. 50 cents.
Hopkins, E. W. The Ordinances of Manu. Translated from the Sanskrit, with an Introduction, by the late A. C. Burnell. Trübner & Co.
Howe, E. W. The Mystery of the Locks. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.50.
Jex-Blake, Sophia. The Care of Infants. A Manual for Mothers and Nurses. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Johonnot, J. Friends in Feathers and Fur, and other Neighbors, for Young Folks. D. Appleton & Co.
Johnston, Prof. A. Representative American Orations, to Illustrate American Political History. 3 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3 75.
Journal of Social Science. Transactions of the American Association: Saratoga Papers of 1884. Part I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Kennedy, J. Life and Work in Benares and Kumaon. 1839-1877. Illustrated. Cassell & Co.
Kost, H. G. Poems. 1885.
Lathrop, G. P. An Echo of Passion. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Lotze, H. Outlines of the Philosophy of Religion. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.
Magruder, A. B. John Marshall. [American Statesmen Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Merriam, Prof. A. C. The Sixth and Seventh Books of Herodotus. Harper & Brothers.
Minchin, G. M. A Treatise on Statics with Applications to Physics. Vol. I. Third Edition, Corrected and Enlarged. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Monteith, J. Boys and Girls' Atlas of the World. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Morris, Dr. E. D. Ecclesiology: A Treatise on the Church and Kingdom of God on Earth. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Oliver, P. Charley Kingston's Aunt. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Phillips, Maude G. A Popular Manual of English Literature. Outlines of the Literature of France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and the United States. In 2 vols. Harper & Brothers.
Quincy, E. Wensley and Other Stories. Edited by E. Quincy, jr. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Sargent, Dr. D. A. In Case of Accident. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 60 cents.
Shinn, C. H. Mining Camps: A Study in American Frontier Government. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Sidgwick, A. Æschylus. Choephoroi. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Skeat, W. W. The Tale of Gamelyn. From the Harleian MS. No. 7334. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Sornberger, S. J. Normal Language and Lessons. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Soulé, J. H. United States Blue Book. Fourth Edition. Washington.
Spyri, Johanna. Red-Letter Stories. Swiss Tales. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 80 cents.
Tayler, F. Studies in Animal Painting, with Colored Plates. Cassell & Co.
Tefft, Dr. B. F. Evolution and Christianity. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Terry, S. H. Controlling Sex in Generation. Fowler & Wells Co. $1.
Thomas, Bertha. Ichabod. A Portrait. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
White, A. D., and others. Methods of Teaching History. Vol. I. of Pedagogical Library. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.50.
Woodberry, G. E. Edgar Allen Poe. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

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Service of the United States. Edited by John M. Comstock, Chairman of the Board of Examiners of Customs, New York. 12mo, $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1885.

The Week.

THERE appears to be little doubt that Senator Bayard is to be Secretary of State in the Cleveland Administration. If the general belief proves to be well founded, the country will feel reasonably secure against any sudden outbursts of "foreign policy" like those which overtook Mr. Blaine at the beginning of Mr. Garfield's Administration, and those which overcame Mr. Frelinghuysen at the close of Mr. Arthur's. Mr. Bayard represents in an eminent degree the conservative and common-sense policy embodied in Washington's farewell address, which has been the text-book of the common people from the earliest period. It will be a great satisfaction to know that there is a man at the head of the State Department whose leanings are favorable to peace, and opposed to every form of foreign embroilment and adventure. People will sleep more soundly under such an assurance, and business will rest upon a surer foundation. The dynamite Irish will, of course, be estranged by Mr. Bayard's appointment. Every faction which esteems American citizenship valuable chiefly for the opportunities it gives for pestering foreign governments, and seeks to make this country a fulcrum for disturbances abroad, will be aggrieved at the selection of Mr. Bayard. All the speculators in Central American lands, all the brokers of canal privileges, all the would-be builders of a great navy, and "all the unsettled humors of the land," will be disappointed and shocked. Fortunately these constitute a very insignificant part of the American people, and if they go over to the Republican party, or, being there already, decide to remain there, the Administration will be the gainer by such a disposition of the restless elements of the body politic.

It has been a part of the current Washington gossip that Mr. Bayard was reluctant to accept the position of Secretary of State on account of the expense which society imposes upon the head of that department. It is said that he is unable to maintain the scale of private expenditure which has been kept up by nearly all of the later chiefs of the Department. If this be true, he will have the rare opportunity of introducing a new and simpler mode of life, which is much to be desired. The social distinction which comes from giving the most elegant balls and the most expensive dinners, can be achieved by any fool who happens to have money, and has become so common that it has ceased to be a distinction. It is time for somebody in the higher ranks of public life to set an example of "plain living and high thinking." Here is a chance for real distinction, and Mr. Bayard is just the sort of man to lead the way. If he has the courage to let society know in the beginning that he does not intend to alter his style of living one iota, or to add a dollar to his private expenditures on account of his political promotion, he may not, indeed, shame the extravagances of the rich, but he will keep in countenance those who are not rich, and will set an example which will be generously applauded by his countrymen.

Judging from the talk at the meeting of the Bay State Club, in Boston, on Monday, some of the Democrats in that region are indulging in what Mr. O'Brien, the Mayor, calls "pleasing dreams" about the civil service. They think they are going to get rid of competitive examinations and all that sort of flummery, and treat the country to another old-fashioned hoggish scramble for the national offices. We believe, however, that if they fancy Mr. Cleveland is going to treat them to anything of the kind they have mistaken their man. Moreover, if he attempted to gratify them, four years would see the end of their revel. The Democrats have now to decide whether they will enjoy prolonged power with decency, or have a short bout of hoggish indulgence, and then be driven from the trough for another quarter of a century. The wise men among them know this very well, and no one knows it better than Mr. Cleveland.

We believe, however, that the new President, in the legitimate and proper exercise of his authority, will have to make plenty of vacancies. There is not a doubt that two or three of the departments at Washington are honeycombed with corruption, and will have to be overhauled and cleaned out with an unsparing hand. For this the Republicans are not so much to blame as human nature. Human nature cannot bear twenty-five years of irresponsible power, with plenty of money, and this the Republicans have had. When you tell any body of men that they are so good, compared to everybody else, that it would be a sort of sin to prevent their doing what they please or to ask them for a pecuniary accounting, they take to corruption and abuse as a duck takes to water. But then, no matter how many vacancies President Cleveland may have to make in the subordinate places, he will fill them under the law with the best men who offer themselves. He will not put in another set of thieves or incapables simply because they are short of money, and have never been able to persuade honest business men to give them work. This sort of thing is over, and anybody who expects to revive it must prepare himself for defeat and humiliation.

The Senate has made itself a party to a very discreditable job in confirming the nomination for a second lieutenantship of Mr. Wright, who failed in his studies at West Point, and resigned in order to avoid being dropped. He would, had he remained in the Academy, have graduated in 1886. Having failed, he appears to have gone to work to secure "influence" enough to get a commission without graduating. The nomination he got; but a long-standing regulation of the Academy, based on common justice as well as sound policy, prescribes that no one who has failed to graduate shall obtain a commission until both his own class and the classes above him have graduated and been commissioned. In other words, if he enters the army at all, he has to enter it below his former classmates and seniors at the school. This regulation in Wright's case was set aside. His commission gives him rank above the class of this and next year. In other words, a positive rule, approved by many Presidents and Secretaries of War, has been violated, not only to save him from the consequences of failure, but to put him in a better position than he would have held had he not failed. That the President should have made himself a party to such a performance is, we must honestly say, not surprising, as he has made himself a party to things still worse. But that the Senate should have been ready to sanction it is surprising. It is also surprising that Mr. Wright and his father should have been willing to accept a favor of this kind, which starts a young man in a profession that everywhere makes honor an object of special cultivation, through a somewhat tricky job. A worse beginning for a soldier's career it would be hard to think of. To make the thing complete, Mr. Wright is not ordered out to the dreary plains of the West, but has been assigned to duty here at the East, where he can make himself comfortable.

The action of the Senate in putting the Pacific Mail subsidy, which was rejected by the House, back into the Post-office Appropriation Bill, is striking evidence that the Republicans of that body do not yet realize that the country has really entered upon a new epoch, in which subsidies are to find very small favor. It was a curious blunder in politics to take this step now. There is, we are glad to believe, not the slightest danger that the House will recede from its position. The subsidy will be cut out by the Conference Committee, and all that Senator Frye and his subsidy allies will be able to accomplish, will be to show that they are loyal to the old subsidy policy to the last. The pretence that the donation of $400,000 in this way is designed to accomplish in some inscrutable manner a "revival of American shipping," is so worn and thin that it deceives nobody any longer. If the project were put in its true light, as a present from the United States Government to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, there would at least be no humbug about it.

The Anti-Foreign Contract Labor Bill, which has passed the Senate, is one of those mysterious fruits of modern statesmanship which nobody is capable of fully explaining. As it passed the House originally, the bill made it unlawful for any person or company to bring any alien or aliens into this country under contract to perform any kind of service whatever. Every person bringing in an alien under contract was to pay a fine of $1,000. Italian street-sweepers, Hungarian miners, and railway workers were not only barred out by these penalties, but opera-singers, actors, lecturers, French nurses and servants as well.

The free and unfettered American, and the alien already on our shores, were to be "protected" against the talent and the labor of the whole outside world. The Senate has interfered with this fine scheme, and has so amended the bill as to omit singers, actors, lecturers, private secretaries, nurses and domestics. The Hungarian and Italian laborer is, however, still to be forbidden to come in under any contract whatever, under penalty of $1,000 fine, the fine to be paid by the person bringing him in.

An amendment was offered, but does not appear to have been adopted, fining the laborer who came in under contract $1,000. This would have been a noble scheme for enriching the country. How the fine was to be collected we do not know, but probably the Italian or Hungarian would be nabbed by the Custom-house officers when he landed, and required to give his note for $1,000 before he was permitted to begin work. The idea was as sound as anything else in the bill, and its rejection is inexplicable. One provision which remains is in direct conflict with the general tone of the measure. By it a person or corporation engaging in a "new industry not at present established in the United States," can engage under contract skilled labor for the purpose, provided such labor cannot be otherwise obtained. This permits British capitalists to take a lot of "pauper laborers of Europe," bring them in here free of duty, and establish a hated foreign industry on such a low wage basis that American competition will from the outset be impossible. If contract-labor is wrong in principle when applied to an old industry, how can it be right when applied to a new industry? And what is to prevent laborers who are brought here under contract to work for an alleged new industry from being employed in some other industry after they are once admitted?

The Spanish treaty has been so deeply buried under the débris of the Nicaraguan treaty that a fresh reminder of its existence, coming by way of Madrid, seems to be needed to refresh our recollection. It is said that the Spanish Government has directed its Minister at Washington to withdraw certain "concessions on sugar" if the treaty is not ratified before the end of the present session of Congress. We had been of the opinion that all the concessions on sugar were of our making and not of Spanish origin at all, seeing that whatever is allowed in the way of discrimination in favor of Cuban sugar is in the nature of a bounty and a gratuity. The withdrawal of all concessions of every sort on both sides will be the most satisfactory disposition of the matter, and this is the most probable outcome of the adventure. It is manifestly impossible for both houses of Congress to act upon the treaty during the half-dozen working days which still remain to the present Congress. When the new Administration comes in, it will be a question whether the treaty shall be withdrawn from the Senate or not. Probably its withdrawal by the Executive would not be permissible under the comity of nations. An agreement having been made to submit it to the legislative branch of the Government, good faith will require that the formalities which the Constitution provides for in our dealings with foreign countries be fully observed.

The *Rochester Democrat* says that Mr. Evarts, in his late speech at the Union League Club, "outlined the cardinal principles of Republicanism." We have read the speech with care for the purpose of discovering them, but in vain. This may, however, be due to mental obtuseness on our part, and we shall be grateful to any Republican contemporary who will quote the passage which contains the "outline." There is great curiosity all over the country about "the cardinal principles of the Republican party," and it increases, and anybody who knows where they are and will reveal them, can, we think, now achieve some fame, besides making a little money. A rumor is afloat that they are among the private papers of the late Hugh Hastings which his family refuse to produce. Our own belief is that Mr. Evarts has not seen them. One gentleman has tried to persuade us that there is only one "cardinal principle" of the party, namely, that it ought to have the offices in perpetuity; but he is a Democratic wag.

Mr. Roswell Smith, the proprietor of the *Century* magazine, and President, though a layman, of the Congregational Club of ministers, expressed himself very forcibly at a meeting of the Club on the 17th with regard to Mr. Evarts's extraordinary statement, in his Union League Club speech, that the South "remained in heart, substance, and purpose" what it was in 1860. Mr. Smith declared, amid the cheers and laughter of his auditors, that

> "a man who has the audacity to stand up in the Union League Club and assert at this time that there has been no change in the sentiment of the South in the past twenty-five years, lies under a mistake, to say the least of it."

He further added that he himself was so disgusted with this utterance of Mr. Evarts that he rose and left the room on hearing it. We think he was too severe on Mr. Evarts, however. There was not sense or substance enough in the assertion to furnish materials for a mistake. Mr. Evarts was producing sound, not making propositions, and was satisfied if it kept people listening.

The Senatorial contests in Illinois and Oregon have passed through several new phases during the past few days. In Oregon, after sixty-eight fruitless ballots, the Legislature has adjourned *sine die*. By remaining in session a few days longer an election might have been effected, but the forty-day limit for a legislative session, after which the members receive no pay, had been reached, and that precipitated an adjournment. There is said to be some conflict of opinion about the right of the Governor, under the State Constitution, to fill the vacancy by appointment, but in reality it is the Federal and not the State Constitution which is his guide, and the language of that instrument is plain enough for anybody to understand. It expressly provides that "if vacancies happen, by resignation *or otherwise*, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies." The vacancy in the Oregon Senatorship will not be created till March 4, when the term of the present Senator will expire. The Governor can then appoint a successor who can hold office until the next meeting of the Legislature, which, as there are only biennial sessions in Oregon, will not occur until the fall of 1886, unless an extra session is convened.

In Illinois the case is somewhat different. The Legislature is still in session, and is likely to be for some time to come. A plan is said to be under consideration for throwing the appointment into the hands of the Governor, which is clearly unconstitutional. It is proposed, in case the present deadlock continues till March 4, to have a resolution introduced in the Legislature declaring a vacancy and requesting the Governor to fill it by appointment. Under the Constitution this clearly cannot be done. The power to fill the office is vested in the Legislature alone, and the only way in which it can be transferred to the Governor is by adjournment *sine die*. There is some talk of transferring it by having the Legislature take a recess, but this also is plainly in violation of the Constitutional provision. The Governors of Oregon and Illinois are both Republicans, so that the various plans in both States to have them fill the vacancies by appointment cannot be said truthfully to be designs for helping the wicked old Confederacy into the saddle again.

The votes taken at Springfield indicate pretty clearly that there will be no election of a Senator by the Illinois Legislature at its present session, and that there will be a vacancy in the Senate after the 4th of March. In any legislative body which is equally divided politically there will always be found one, or two, or three obstinate and possibly corrupt members who, in order to gratify some spite or crotchet, or to make some money, will refuse to agree to anything, and will change their own ground as often as there is any prospect of coming to an agreement. Of course reasons can be found in abundance to excuse or justify such persons. Four Democrats have refused to support Mr. Morrison on account of his tariff record. One Republican has refused to vote for General Logan for the singular reason that the caucus did not fix upon some candidate as their second choice. Failure to agree upon a second choice before a trial had been made of the first choice is construed by this severe casuist to mean "Logan or nobody." So he says that he is not voting against Logan, but against the principle of exclusiveness in caucuses. Here is a field for political reform which has been much neglected. The name of its cultivator is Sittig.

The Democratic bolters, with one exception, cast their votes for Haines, the Speaker of the House. One member has attached his fortunes to a rich cattle-dealer named Hoxie—this by way of protecting the iron interests of the country. The principal difficulty lies in the fact that if all the members on both sides should vote for their respective caucus nominees, the result would be a tie. This shows the impor-

tance of making the total number of members of the Legislature an odd number, so that a tie vote shall be impossible. Probably this contingency would have been looked after and provided against in the Illinois Constitution, had not the principle of minority representation been introduced. The plan adopted for putting it in force resulted in making a Senate of 51 members, a House of 153, and a joint session of 204. There has been a good deal of complaint against minority representation among the politicians of Illinois, because it upsets the calculations of both parties, but there is nothing to show that it does not fairly represent the popular will. Provision, however, ought to be made to avoid tie votes in the joint sessions.

They had an old-fashioned debate in the Massachusetts Legislature last week, over a bill abolishing the rule which makes the testimony of persons who do not believe in the existence of a God inadmissible in courts of justice. The facts of daily life, as observed by everybody, show that there is no perceptible difference in the matter of truth-telling between people who say they do not believe in the existence of a God and those who say they do. A declaration of this belief is in fact so easy, and does a man so much good with his neighbors, that nearly all liars make it as a matter of course. A man needs to be very honest and truthful to deny the existence of God, and as a general rule the testimony of such men is apt to be as reliable as that of professed believers. The principle that religious belief has nothing to do, and ought to have nothing to do, with a man's credibility as a witness is now acknowledged in the jurisprudence of most civilized countries, including twenty-eight States of this Union. But the Massachusetts Senate rejected it sternly by 24 to 10, after a luminous debate. One Senator held that a man who "denied under the genial sunlight his belief in the Author of that radiance," ought to be punished for it in some way. Another Senator opposed putting the man who denied the existence of a God "on an equality with the man who devoutly acknowledged it." The object of a court of law in examining witnesses is to find out the truth about a particular transaction, and not to discourage infidelity. No man conducts his business or his social life on the assumption that atheists are untruthful or dishonest; and to administer justice so as to deprive him of important testimony in his favor, on such a theory, is monstrous as well as barbarous.

The proposed change in the curriculum at Harvard is less of a defeat for the Grecians than would appear. They have only consented to make Greek or Latin optional for admission in cases in which the candidate agrees to take, in place of the omitted language, in addition to all other requisitions, two courses of college study, one in mathematics and the other in either mathematics or physics, as part of his preparation. These extra courses are to be courses actually given in the College, to Freshmen especially, and occupying each three hours a week in recitations through one year. Consequently, nobody can escape Greek or Latin without giving serious pledges to science. This arrangement was the result of a compromise in the committee, and probably the only one which the Faculty would have adopted, and is not wholly satisfactory to the scientific and modern-language men.

The condition of Ireland is telling just now seriously on English foreign policy, as it did once before at the close of the American war. There are about 30,000 good troops in Ireland who are sorely needed on the Nile, but General Steele, who is in command, says he cannot spare a man of them. There is something melancholy, under these circumstances, in the talk of a visit of the Prince of Wales to Ireland as a sort of sedative. Forty years ago, when the young Queen was making her plans of life, the transfer of the court during a portion of the year to Ireland, a little fostering of Irish sentimental nationalism such as has been bestowed so lavishly on that of Scotland, would doubtless have had a good deal of political effect. After half a century of neglect, however, on the part of royalty — neglect that may almost be called studied—and the infusion into the Irish mind from this side of the Atlantic of Republicanism in its least reverential form, coupled with savage social discontents, the Irish are hardly likely to receive the Prince in a very cordial way. In fact, the visit seems like an opportunity for insult and outrage, of which some wretch may avail himself, and which the rest of the population will take with a calm that will make Englishmen furious.

There are still but few indications of the probable result of the debate in the British House of Commons on Sir Stafford Northcote's vote of censure. Mr. Gladstone seems to be defending himself rather feebly, as if his heart were not in the work, and we presume there can be no doubt that he is really unable to make a creditable explanation of the Sudan affair. His policy in Egypt has reflected the varying moods of the British taxpayer; but when the taxpayer sees it traced in black and white he does not like it, and thinks some one has been blundering and must be punished. Lord Salisbury is said to have declared that he was ready for office, but this is enough to frighten a good many wavering Liberals. Much is evidently going to depend on the Irish vote, for which both sides are bidding. The Liberals can have it, if they will promise not to renew the Coercion Act, but they have apparently not made up their minds to do so. The Conservatives, like all parties out of power, are much readier with their promises. Mr. Gladstone's age and weariness are doubtless counting for a good deal in the conflict.

Mr. Gladstone's faults in Egyptian affairs, and notably the fault of hanging back, and doing no more than the occasion imperatively called for, are chargeable on the English public alone. They have all along wanted some interference, but as little as possible; and some fighting, but not one shot more than was necessary. They have forgotten, however, that one shot always leads to another, and that a nation big enough to have what is called "prestige" cannot carry on a little war. There was a universal chorus of approval of Wolseley and the Government from the moment he developed his plan at Korti until Wilson brought back the news of the fall of Khartum. The plan was based on the "general idea," as the strategists call it, that Gordon could hold out for a reasonable time, and that when the British got within sticking distance, he would be able with his garrison to reach out into communication with them, and either evacuate Khartum with their help, or drive the Mahdi away from it. The garrison of Khartum, headed by Gordon, was in fact an important element in Wolseley's calculations, and these proved wonderfully correct. He reached Korti by the river most successfully, with his men in excellent condition, and then made that brilliant push for the river across the desert which would have relieved Khartum and rescued Gordon had the latter held his own. The expedition was three days too late, but not in consequence of anything which a military commander can be expected to foresee or allow for. Treachery plays no part in the game of war, any more than thunder or earthquakes. If Gordon had fallen through an assault of the Mahdi's forces, or through the exhaustion of his supplies, after warning his superior of his weakness, the Ministry would be undoubtedly responsible for his death. But he had never expressed any doubt of his ability to hold the place. What he chafed under and complained of was his inability to go out and "smash the Mahdi," and the policy of "smashing the Mahdi" was one to which the Government never gave one word of support.

Nor can they fairly be held responsible for delay in going to Gordon's rescue. They did not begin to prepare the expedition until August, it is true, but they never thought of sending an expedition until Gordon's obstinacy and disobedience had led to his being shut up in Khartum, and his audacity had led the British public to make a hero of him. If August was late, it was because not until then did the Government feel really sure that the English public demanded that thousands of lives should be put in peril in order that one fanatical adventurer should be saved from the consequences of his own folly and insubordination. The military problem has now wholly changed its character. Wolseley is no longer marching to effect an entrance into an impregnable stronghold held by a friendly garrison. The Mahdi is no longer blockading Khartum with a few thousand spearmen, without artillery or ammunition. He has secured a fortress in which he can stand a siege, and the capture of which not only liberates the force with which he has been attacking it, but brings him thousands of new recruits from the surrounding region. He has, moreover, secured a good deal of artillery and ammunition, and is descending the river in such force that he could probably crush any of Wolseley's detachments by mere weight of numbers. Under these circumstances there is nothing for Wolseley to do but draw in his detachments, and wait until his expedition is enlarged sufficiently to undertake the new and immense task of conquering the Sudan.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 18, to TUESDAY, February 24, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

IN the House debate on the River and Harbor Bill on Wednesday, an amendment was adopted appropriating $500,000 for the improvement of Galveston Harbor, and directing the Harbor Board to proceed at once to examine the plans, specifications, and estimates for the improvement, and report to the Secretary of War for his approval.

The House Committee on Coinage, Weights, and Measures held a meeting on Wednesday to consider the bill introduced by Mr. Dorsheimer "to regulate the coinage and to promote the circulation of gold and silver equally." They gave a hearing to J. Edwards Pierrepont, of New York, in advocacy of that measure. He contended that the free coinage of domestic silver in dollars of 480 grains troy would increase the volume of the currency, which was now far too small, and would restore confidence to the business of the country.

The House debated the Naval Bill on Thursday. On a motion to strike out the paragraph appropriating $400,000 for the completion of the *New York*, Mr. Hewitt said that it was as preposterous as ridiculous for the country to undertake to build or finish the building of wooden ships. The motion to strike out was lost.

In Committee of the Whole on Friday, the Chairman of the House ruled out of order the clause in the River and Harbor Bill relative to the Hennepin Canal, on the ground that that Committee had not original jurisdiction of the subject, and that it should properly have been considered by the Committee on Railways and Canals. A motion to strike out the entire Mississippi River clause was carried.

The House passed the Naval Appropriation Bill on Monday, but without including Mr. Randall's proposition for rebuilding the navy, and with an amendment authorizing the building of a steel cruiser of from 5,000 to 6,000 tons displacement, at a cost of $1,780,000. The House also passed with the Senate amendments the bill forfeiting the Texas-Pacific land grant. On Tuesday the House voted down the other appropriation bills and took up the River and Harbor Bill by a vote of 139 to 122. This is not a hopeful indication for the progress of business.

The Post-office Appropriation Bill was reported in the Senate on Thursday. It appropriates $53,819,990, an increase of $300,000 over the bill as passed by the House, and $3,279,179 less than the estimates. The aggregate appropriated is $2,547,169 in excess of the estimated revenue for the fiscal year 1886. An increase of $490,000 is made in the appropriation for transportation on railroad routes.

Despite an earnest protest by Mr. Edmunds the Senate on Friday voted, by a large majority, to retain in the Post-office Appropriation Bill the clause fixing the rate of postage on first-class mail matter at two cents per ounce instead of two cents per half-ounce. On Monday it passed the bill with Mr. Frye's Pacific Mail subsidy amendment by a vote of 30 to 18.

The Senate on Thursday, with but two dissenting votes (Blair and Bowen), passed the bill forfeiting the Texas-Pacific land grant. It goes back to the House because of unimportant amendments.

The General Deficiency Bill reported to the House of Representatives on Wednesday provides for an appropriation of $3,561,916, of which amount $75,000 is made in compliance with the recommendation of the Postmaster-General for clerk hire in various post-offices.

The House Sundry Civil Bill gives the Federal Civil-Service Commission only $19,140. They will ask the Senate so to amend the bill as to give them one new clerk at $1,400 a year and a laborer at $660. Their clerical force is now so small that they are required to work regularly an hour longer each day than clerks in the executive departments.

In the investigation of the Pension Bureau on Wednesday, Mr. Sawyer, who has charge of the statistics of the Bureau, testified that when Mr. Dudley became Commissioner in 1881 the running expenses of the office were about $500,000 a year, and that for the last year they were $2,900,000, the special examiners' division alone costing about $1,000,000. He said that the increase in the amount of work now performed in the Bureau over that done before Mr. Dudley became Commissioner was very slight.

Recently the Treasury gold fund increased more than $1,500,000. This and other indications have convinced Secretary McCulloch that the action of the Department, the efforts to secure the stoppage of the silver coinage, and the probabilities of that result, have averted the threatened withdrawal of gold from circulation.

The findings of the Court-martial in the case of Judge-Advocate-General Swaim of the United States army, and the sentence of the court as approved by President Arthur, were made public on Tuesday. He was found "guilty of conduct to the prejudice of good order and military discipline, in violation of the 62d Article of War," and sentenced to be suspended from rank and duty for twelve years and to forfeit one-half his monthly pay for the same period.

The dedication ceremonies of the Washington Monument were successfully carried out on Saturday. In the morning at 11 o'clock there were open-air exercises at the monument, where speeches were made by Senator Sherman, Colonel Thomas L. Casey, President Arthur, and W. W. Corcoran (read by Dr. J. C. Welling). The great procession then moved to the Capitol, where, in the hall of the House of Representatives, Robert C. Winthrop's oration was read by ex-Governor Long, of Massachusetts. An oration was also delivered by John W. Daniels, of Virginia.

The Michigan House on Thursday, by exactly the necessary two-thirds vote, adopted a prohibitory constitutional amendment for submission to the people. All the Republicans but two, and twenty-three Democrats, voted yea. Its fate in the Senate is doubtful.

In the Assembly at Albany on Friday a Prison Labor Bill was reported favorably from committee which provides that "no contract shall hereafter be made by which the time or labor of any prisoner or prisoners in any State prison, reformatory, or penitentiary in this State shall be let, hired, or sold to any contractor. The system of labor in the State prisons, reformatories, and penitentiaries of this State shall be on State account, or by the piece-price plan, or partly by the one system and partly by the other, as the Superintendent of State Prisons, or the managers of penitentiaries and reformatories, may deem best for the interests of their respective institutions and the convicts employed therein." A motion to recommit the bill was carried by 72 to 35, no Democrats voting in the negative.

The Judiciary Committee reported to the Assembly against appointing a special committee to investigate the action of Judges Truax, Andrews, and Beach in the scandals attending the closing hours of Mayor Edson's administration in this city. After a warm debate the report was sustained, 59 to 37.

The American Iron and Steel Association has received returns of the Bessemer steel production in the United States last year. The total quantity of ingots converted was 1,538,355 net tons. As compared with the production in 1883 there was a falling off of 116,272 tons, or only 7 per cent. The maximum production of Bessemer steel ingots was reached in 1882, when 1,696,450 tons were converted.

The Harvard Overseers on Wednesday referred to committees the propositions to make morning prayers no longer compulsory and to print the quinquennial catalogue in English.

The Yale Alumni Association of this city gave a reception at the University Club Theatre on Friday evening to Senator-elect William M. Evarts, who was a member of the class of 1837.

Judge Houston, of New Orleans, has rejected both of Mrs. Myra Clark Gaines's wills. That in favor of Mrs. Evans is pronounced a forgery. The nuncupative will was in favor of her children. The succession will have to be administered according to Louisiana law. An appeal to the Supreme Court will be taken.

The funeral ceremonies of Dr. Leopold Damrosch took place on Wednesday afternoon at the Metropolitan Opera-house in this city. The musical services, in which the Oratorio Society and Symphony orchestra took part, were very impressive. Addresses were made by Felix Adler and the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher. A letter from Assistant Bishop H. C. Potter was read.

Dr. Louis Elsberg, eminent as a specialist in the treatment of the throat and larynx, and an author of books on those subjects, died on Thursday in this city. He was forty-eight years old, and was a native of Westphalia. He was the first physician to introduce the laryngoscope into general practice in this country.

William C. Kingsley, ex-President of the Brooklyn Bridge trustees, died in Brooklyn on Saturday at the age of fifty-two. After the death of the chief engineer of the work, the late John A. Roebling, in 1869, Mr. Kingsley was made Superintendent. He had charge of the work until the towers were three feet above high tide, and then resigned.

Jonathan J. Wright, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of South Carolina from 1870 to 1877, and the only colored man who ever held the office in that State, died on Thursday, aged forty-four years.

FOREIGN.

The British Parliament opened on Thursday at 4 P.M. In the House of Lords the Government was at once assailed with Conservative questions. Earl Granville, Minister for Foreign Affairs, replied. He frankly stated that the Government had left it entirely to General Lord Wolseley to decide whether the British forces should proceed to attack Khartum at once or delay the attack until later, say some time next autumn. Earl Granville admitted that the Government believed that General Wolesley would decide upon a postponement of the aggressive operations. He said: "The finances of Egypt and the relief of Gordon, that heroic soldier whose loss has excited the greatest sympathy and unanimous regret, are the prominent questions before the country.

In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone said that the present situation did not allow the Government to make overtures to El Mahdi, because such overtures might defeat their own object. He added that he had done all he could for General Gordon, and was not to be held responsible for his death. "Our policy in the Sudan," continued the Premier, "is still for evacuation. The recent events there prevented the immediate application of this policy. The fall of Khartum altered, in a military sense, the whole situation in the Sudan. Lord Wolseley is authorized to take what measures he sees fit to overthrow the Mahdi at Khartum. No further communications will be made to the Mahdi, but any received from him will be considered."

Sir Stafford Northcote gave notice that he would move on the earliest day possible that an humble address be presented to her Majesty the Queen, representing that the course pursued by her present Liberal Government in regard to Egypt and the Sudan had involved a great sacrifice of valuable lives and heavy expenses, without any beneficial results [cheers], rendering it imperatively necessary to the interests of the British Empire and the Egyptian people that the Government should distinctly recognize and take decided measures to fulfil the responsibility, now incumbent upon them

to insure good stable government in Egypt and in those portions of the Sudan necessary for Egypt's security.

Monday was fixed for debate on the motion, when Sir Stafford Northcote, in the course of his address, said: "We are getting daily into deeper water, and whatever the consequences may be I feel compelled to summon the House to pronounce a verdict in our case the same as it has done on previous occasions, with the additional experience of the value of the Ministry's promise and the success of the Ministry's action." In his reply, Mr. Gladstone paid a tribute to the devotion of Gordon, saying that his one object in life was to do good to all, irrespective of race, color, or creed. He denied that the Government had any reason to suppose last year that Gordon was in imminent danger. General Gordon's own despatches, said Mr. Gladstone, had led the Government to believe that he would retreat with the garrison southward if possible. The Government had not swerved a hair's breadth from the covenant to send General Gordon assistance when necessary and when possible to do so. He referred to the statements of General Gordon's colonels that under no circumstances could relief have been timely, as Farag had long ago agreed to betray Khartum as soon as the British arrived. If the House thought the Government had failed in its duty, the latter would cheerfully accept the verdict, but if they believed it had acted with good intentions and without palpable errors of judgment, he hoped they would give expression to their confidence, and thus strengthen the hands of the whole country in the face of the world. The debate was continued on Tuesday without noticeable incident, except the suspension of William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*, who created an uproar, and a significant speech by Mr. Goschen, foreshadowing his adhesion to the vote of censure.

In the House of Commons on Friday the Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for War, stated that Prince Hassan had been appointed Governor-General of the Sudan at the suggestion of General Lord Wolseley. Prince Hassan would be under the authority of Lord Wolseley. The Marquis also stated that the Government presume that Lord Wolseley has received one volume of General Gordon's diary. The remaining volumes, believed to be five in number, were on the way from Gubat to Korti. After he had seen these volumes, the Marquis continued, he would be better able to state whether or not their contents would be published.

Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Home Secretary, addressing a deputation of unemployed London workingmen on Wednesday, said: The question as to the best method of relief was an extremely difficult one. Experience had shown that attempts to relieve distress by inaugurating public improvements were unwise. The failure of the efforts made by France to relieve distress thirty-five years ago by starting and carrying on vast public works was pointed to as an illustration. The Government, however, the Home Secretary promised, would look into the matter closely, and would consider the advisability of stimulating the efforts of the local philanthropic bodies with a view to affording larger temporary relief.

It is announced that the Prince and Princess of Wales will make a tour of Ireland in April.

Doctor Walsh, the well-known President of Maynooth College, and leader of the Nationalist clergy, will be appointed Cardinal McCabe's successor. The new Cardinal "will be a figure in Irish affairs second only to Mr. Parnell."

It was made known in London on Wednesday that General Sir Redvers Buller on February 14, after rendering Gordon's two steamers useless, withdrew his whole force from Gubat to Abu-Klea, arriving at the latter place on the following day without firing a shot. The reason for the abandonment of Gubat was the advance made by El Mahdi from Umderman toward Gubat, and the retreat was ordered when the main body of the Arabs was twenty miles off; but an advance guard of 3,000 men, with five cannon, was within seven miles of the British lines. The total force at Abu-Klea, including the Egyptians and Sudanese, now amounts to 1,900 men, with 1,500 camels. The water supply is not sufficient for the men and camels.

General Sir Redvers Buller telegraphed on Wednesday that a convoy of wounded in charge of General Talbot, while on the way from Gubat to Abu-Klea, met a force of 5,000 rebels at a point nine miles from Gubat, and a slight skirmish ensued, in which one British soldier was killed and five wounded. The rebels then proceeded toward Metemneh. The convoy reached Abu-Klea in safety.

On Thursday the announcement was made that in view of the fact that the fall of Khartum and the death of General Gordon had rendered the main object of General Lord Wolseley's expedition impossible, the Government deemed it expedient to change the whole plan of the campaign in the Sudan. General Brackenbury, who succeeded the late General Earle, was ordered to abandon his advance on Berber, and to concentrate his troops at Korti. Gen. Sir Redvers Buller was also ordered to fall back on Korti. All the available troops in General Wolseley's command will be concentrated at that place and at Debbeh and Korosko, the main body being at Korti. It is probable that General Lord Wolseley may finally evacuate Korti and retire to Debbeh, where desert routes from Umderman, El Obeid, and Darfur converge on the Nile. General Lord Wolseley will there await help from England. At Korti he could be surrounded.

The alarm in England caused by this retreat was intensified on Friday by a despatch from Korti saying that General Buller had been compelled to halt at Abu-Klea Wells and intrench his troops in a position there, in order safely to defend himself against El Mahdi's men, who were gathering in large numbers on his line of retreat, and were continually menacing the British forces. Special despatches indicated that General Lord Wolseley would have to send strong reinforcements to General Buller if the latter is to be rescued from his perilous position.

It was also announced in London that the Government had called out the militia and suspended transfers of officers from the regular army to the reserves. This action created a profound sensation, and a general feeling of alarm respecting the safety not only of the forces under General Buller, but also of those under Generals Wolseley and Brackenbury.

The Queen's message does not, as at first reported, call out the reserves, but orders the soldiers at present serving, who would otherwise be entitled to retire as reserves, to remain in active service until further notice. Two batteries of artillery and six regiments of infantry of the militia, one being an Irish regiment, will be embodied. It is believed that a portion of the militia will be used to garrison Ireland.

The Coldstream Guards left England for Egypt on Thursday, and the Grenadier Guards on Friday. They were given a royal farewell. Queen Victoria sent them Godspeed. The Prince of Wales made a personal address. The Scots Grays departed on Saturday.

An Egyptian Blue-book, issued in London on Monday, contained a number of notable letters from Gordon. On November 4 he wrote to Wolseley: "I can hold out forty days longer with ease. After that it will be difficult. Your expedition, as I understand, is for the relief of the garrison of Khartum, which I failed to accomplish. I decline to admit that it is for the rescue of me personally." In a letter dated September 4 he said: "How many times have we written asking for reinforcements and calling your serious attention to the Sudan, and no answer came! Men's hearts become weary of delay. While you are eating and drinking and resting in good beds, we and those with us, soldiers and servants, are watching night and day, trying to quell the movements of the Mahdi. Of course, you take no interest to suppress this rebellion, the serious consequences of which are the reverse of victorious for you. Neglect thereof won't do." It appears from a letter dated December 14 that General Gordon never said, "I can hold out for years," as has been published, but, on the contrary, had declared that food was scarce and that relief should be sent him at once.

An Arabian paper reports that the Mahdi promised Farag 140,000 thalers to betray Khartum, but gave him only 60,000, and when Farag complained the Mahdi hanged him. It is said that the Mahdi captured 15,000 Remington rifles at Khartum.

General Gordon's trusted messenger, George, arrived at Abu-Klea on Wednesday. He says that almost all the native accounts agree that General Gordon, on finding himself betrayed, made a rush for the magazine near the Catholic Mission buildings. Finding the rebels already in possession, he returned to the Government House and was killed while trying to reënter it. The rebels were admitted to Khartum at 10 o'clock on the night of the 26th of January. It is reported that General Gordon's last message to General Wolseley, "I can hold on at Khartum for years," was preceded by the question, "What are you coming for? I have not asked for you."

A despatch from Korti on Friday brought the sad intelligence of the death of General Sir Herbert Stewart, who was wounded at the zareba fight of January 19. The death occurred February 16 at Gakdul Wells, where the wounded were brought from Gubat. This death cast a profound gloom over the whole army in Egypt. General Stewart was only forty-two, and had distinguished himself in the Zulu, Alexandria, and Suakim campaigns. His recent brave march across the desert from Korti to Gubat is fresh in public memory, as are the two victories of January 17 and 19.

A report was sent from Korti on Friday of a night attack by Arabs on General Buller, which occurred on February 16. The latter sent the following message: "About thirty of the enemy's cavalry scouted around us all day Monday. They were reinforced about an hour before sunset by 400 infantry armed with rifles. The infantry crossed the hills to the northeast of us, and have kept up a well-aimed, desultory, long-range fire. This fire has thus far caused sixteen casualties." Two of the British were killed. General Buller has erected three new forts, and is preparing for a siege. He despatched a messenger to General Wolseley describing his situation to be critical, and stating that El Mahdi was advancing with an immense force. General Wood, who is at Gakdul, immediately sent transport camels to General Buller.

The text of the treaty under which Germany has gained a protectorate over the Samoan Islands has been published. The treaty provides for the creation of a Council of State, to consist of the German Consul, two Samoans, and two Germans. This Council is empowered to establish laws in the interest of the Samoans and of the Germans resident upon the islands. A German officer will act as the adviser of the King, and will serve as judge in all penal matters in which Germans are concerned. Germany is allowed to withdraw from this agreement by giving six months' previous notice.

Admiral Courbet telegraphed on Wednesday that the French fleet had had an engagement with five Chinese men-of-war. Two of the latter were sunk by the French torpedo boats. The three others escaped in a fog to Chinghai.

The German Reichstag on Wednesday rejected a proposal to defer the adoption of the increased duties on rye until the expiration of the existing commercial treaty between Germany and Spain. The Reichstag also decided to retain the existing duties on oats and pulse, which the Government wanted to raise 50 per cent., but agreed to increase the duties on buckwheat and barley by 50 pfennigs.

THE SILVER CAMPAIGN.

LATE reports from Washington indicate that the extreme silver men are so exasperated against Governor Cleveland for what they call his interference with their prerogatives, that they will resort to filibustering against any bill which proposes to suspend the silver coinage, and that they will defeat the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill altogether rather than allow it to pass with such a clause. Filibustering is the last resort of a desperate minority. If it should be resorted to in this case, it would be evidence that the silver coinage is doomed, and that its advocates have no expectation of keeping it up by fair means. Filibusters in legislative bodies always get the worst of it in the long run. They might succeed in the few remaining days of the present Congress, but their proceedings would serve to make a political issue for the country. Nothing would be more acceptable to the advocates of honest money. They ask nothing better than a "square stand-up fight." Governor Cleveland could desire nothing better than an issue at the beginning of his Administration which should designate him as the champion and defender of an honest dollar.

The friends of honest money have no fears of the result of such a contest. They have fought similar battles in the past against greater odds. They remember the greenback craze of 1868, when even Senator Sherman, of Ohio, lent his influence and prestige to the faction which proposed to pay the bonds in greenbacks. They recall the "Inflation Bill" of 1874, when Senator Morton, of Indiana, became the champion of a bad currency. They have not forgotten the fight against specie resumption in 1877-78. They are as ready to try conclusions with the silver maniacs as they were with the greenbackers in those memorable contests. It would be in many respects a good thing to have such a battle at the hustings. The hollowness of the silver delusion would be exposed, and its dupes would be so thoroughly beaten that we might look for peace and common decency in matters of national finance for a generation to come. The actual presence of $200,000,000 of silver coin among us, largely unused, has deprived the silver advocates of the chief argument which served them when they passed their bill in 1878. The "dollar of the fathers" is now to be had in any desired quantity. Sentimental considerations no longer demand the sacrifice of $2,000,000 per month of the hard earnings of the people, to be stored in costly vaults already full to overflowing. If the devotees of the 85-cent dollar fancy that their opponents desire to shirk the issue or to put a stop to the coinage by trick or indirection, they are much mistaken. What they want is a stop put to a wasteful expenditure of the public treasure, and to a ruinous debasement and depreciation of the money in every man's pocket. If the Republicans in Congress are as far-seeing as they were when the Inflation Bill and the Anti-Resumption Bill were the great questions of the day, they will not allow Governor Cleveland to have the advantage of an issue which will surely draw to his side a great reinforcement from their ranks. Nothing would so rapidly disintegrate their party through all the marts of commerce, East and West, as an issue which should put them in the attitude of hostility or indifference toward the principles of sound finance, or which should enable the incoming Administration to take the headship of these principles away from them.

The principal strength of the silver faction, we regret to observe, is in the South. Why it should be so is an unsolved mystery; yet of the 121 members of the House who are counted upon to oppose any suspension of the coinage, 74 are from the Southern States. These States are not producers of silver. They are perhaps the most prosperous section of the Union today. The business depression of the past three years has affected them less than the North. The percentage of unemployed laborers is smaller with them than anywhere else in the country. Their great staple, cotton, would be the first to feel the evil consequences of a depreciated currency. Being managed by Northern brokers and Northern capital, good care would be taken that the losses consequent upon a slowly declining standard of value should fall upon the producers. Capital would take care of itself as it always does in such cases. The loss would fall chiefly on the cultivator and the laborer, and in the last extremity we should have two standards of value—one for the commercial classes, and the other for common people. The standard of the civilized world will be maintained by its own intrinsic force in spite of legislation, and all values will have to be computed in it, as was the case during the paper régime which preceded the restoration of specie payments.

The *Tribune* asserts, without a blush, that Republican members of Congress ought to consider themselves affronted by any attempt to curtail the coinage of silver, which confers upon the President of the United States the power to suspend such coinage, even for a single year. If they find themselves affronted by the proposed plan for relieving the business interests of the country, the suggestion is plain that they ought to vote against Mr. Randall's measure. The Chicago *Tribune*, on the other hand, which was perhaps the most ardent advocate of the Silver Bill in the whole country at the time when it was enacted, says that "If Cleveland can prevail upon his party majority in the House to order the coinage of silver to cease for the present, he will be entitled to the gratitude of the country, and *it will be an excellent start for his Administration.*"

The Democrats ought to learn a lesson from their adversaries in this matter. If the temporary suspension of the silver coinage will be "an excellent start for the Administration," and if the apprehensions of such a result lead the principal Blaine organ to change its policy and stultify itself in the grossest manner, the policy of Mr. Cleveland's friends ought to be clear to the dullest comprehension. Especially ought Southern members of Congress to see wherein the path of safety lies. The "pivotal States" which gave Mr. Cleveland the votes necessary to elect him, are very nearly of one mind regarding the silver coinage. Nearly all persons who think for themselves—that is, all who make the body of public opinion and give shape to parties and policies—in New England, New York, and New Jersey are earnestly opposed to silver. Their opposition rests upon a profound conviction that further coinage of that metal means disaster to business. They believe that it signifies not merely a change in the standard of value, but the introduction of two standards, of varying values, with all the confusion and uncertainty and loss which such an anomalous condition of monetary affairs must bring in its train.

"POLITICS" IN THE PENSION BUREAU.

WE are in a fair way to find out what it has cost the country to have the Pension Bureau in the hands of a political "worker" for nearly three years. The statistician of the Bureau, Mr. Sawyer, testified last week before an investigating committee, that when Commissioner Dudley took charge of the office in 1881 its running expenses were about $500,000 a year; that now they are $2,900,000; that the examiners' division alone costs $1,000,000 a year, though the increase in work there is very slight; that during the last six months, with 390 examiners at work, the number of cases decided was seven per cent. less than the number for the same period last year with only 240 examiners. The expense-account clerk testified that the reports of the special examiner showed that no work at all was done during the last two weeks of September—the period, it will be remembered, when the Ohio campaign was at its height, and the Commissioner was on the ground leading it in person. It was also shown to the Committee that the Medical Reviewer of the Bureau, Mr. Ross, went to Indiana six weeks before election, and devoted only five days during that period to his official duties, yet drew his salary all the time, together with nearly $200 for expenses.

Mr. Dudley, the late Commissioner, it will be remembered, was appointed under peculiarly discreditable circumstances, and his conduct in the last campaign was thoroughly disgraceful. When Garfield became President in1881, the Commissioner of Pensions was Mr. Bentley. He was a public servant of great ability and faithfulness, having administered the office with striking success during a period of great perplexity. The passage of the Arrears of Pensions Act had enormously increased the work of the Bureau, and at the same time, by holding out larger prizes, had greatly stimulated the greed of those who live by cheating the Government on the one hand, and the pensioners on the other. Mr. Bentley brought the service of the Bureau up to the point necessary for meeting adequately the increased demands, and by his vigilance and sagacity was able to thwart the designs of the thieves who sought to profit by the new situation. There were no complaints about him except those which came from the baffled swindlers, and from the politicians who wanted the place as a reward for political service. Colonel Dudley had been of great service in helping Dorsey to carry Indiana for Garfield. There was some doubt whether, as the organizer of the "soldier vote," he had not accomplished as much as Dorsey had with his "soap." Gar-

field resisted for a while, but finally succumbed, and, having removed Mr. Bentley for no cause, put Colonel Dudley in his place.

In September last, when the Blaine campaign was dragging heavily in the West, Mr. Dudley handed in his resignation, to take effect not immediately but on November 10, and started for Ohio. For two months he devoted all his time to organizing the "soldier vote" in Ohio and Indiana for Blaine, drawing pay from the Government at the same time at the rate of $5,000 a year. His operations in both States were unblushingly disgraceful, being nothing less than the use of the Pension Bureau, with all its power and influence, as a bribe for votes. It was openly announced that pensioners who voted for Blaine would be given precedence in having their claims heard at Washington, and with this announcement there was spread the naturally following intimation that a pensioner who voted against the Republican candidate would have to wait a long time for a hearing on his claim.

In fact, Garfield took the Pension Bureau out of civil-service reform control and put it into "politics." The immediate result is an increase in its cost to the people from a half million to nearly three millions a year, within less than three years. It is very evident from these figures that Dudley "used it for all it was worth," and it is easy to understand now why he was considered so useful a man. We have no idea that the full extent of his usefulness has yet been revealed. There is more to come in this as well as in other departments of the service.

The Pension Bureau was really a victim of the modern Republican plan of electing a President by "carrying Indiana." To this plan we owe some of the worst of our political scandals. The first sacrifice was the Post-office Department, which was given over to Tyner and Brady, primarily to "carry Indiana" for Grant. After they had used it for that successfully they began to use it for other purposes, and the gradual growth of the Star-route Ring was easy and natural. When Indiana had been carried for Garfield, another claim was established for the Pension Bureau, and was recognized. The October election in Indiana having been abolished, as well as the Star-route Ring, the "carrying" machinery, with Dudley at its head, was shifted to Ohio last year, and the result was a triumph even as it had been in Indiana. If the October triumph had been followed by a similar one in the nation in November, who can number the claims for service rendered which would have been filed, or tell how many other departments would have been given over to "politics" to pay them? Dudley is out of office now, and he as well as all other claimants has no hope of recognition. Before another Presidential election comes, the date of the Ohio election ought to be changed to November, and then the carrying business will be at an end forever.

"FREEDOM OF WORSHIP."

THE contention of the Catholics in the matter of the Freedom of Worship Bill now before the New York Legislature, that permission to them to give religious instruction to the inmates of the House of Refuge is of no value as long as they are not allowed to celebrate mass, is very plausible on its face. They say, and we believe truly from the theological point of view, that there is no Catholic "worship" but the sacrifice of the mass, and they maintain now that if young criminals are cut off from this, they are cut off from the one great means of religious edification.

But this argument must be taken with much allowance. It would be far more effective with Protestants but for the policy pursued for ages by the Catholic Church, of claiming everything, but in case of necessity taking what she can get. Nothing has been more clearly laid down by Catholic theologians than that it is the duty of the civil power to suppress heresy; and whenever the civil power has been won over to this view, they have insisted on its either extirpating heretics wholly, or obliging them to live without public worship, or obliging them to conduct their worship under considerable restrictions as to publicity and locality. In fact, the policy of the Church in every country has been to get from the Government all the intolerance of other creeds which she could, but to accept the inevitable diminutions in the amount of this intolerance. The equality of all creeds before the law she only accepts in countries in which there is no chance of anything else, but this toleration was denounced so late as 1864 by Pius IX. in the Syllabus as a damnable error. In Rome public Protestant worship was never permitted within the walls until the downfall of the temporal Power, and was never permitted anywhere in the Papal States without many restrictions. Within the past year Leo XIII. has complained bitterly of the freedom of worship now enjoyed within the city, as an insult to the Papacy and a hindrance to him in the discharge of his high functions. In the Mortara case Pius IX., so late as 1858, used the physical force at his command to deprive Jewish parents of the control of a child of tender years, and to bring him up in the Catholic faith against their will, simply because some zealous Catholic had baptized him on the sly, if we may use the expression.

We mention these things now, not by way of passing any judgment on them, but by way of showing that the rules of equality for all creeds before the law do not really bring the Catholic clergy face to face with what is called a "non possumus." They adapt themselves to any situation as soon as it is shown to be inevitable. In England and the United States they accept the régime of equality with absolute resignation. In France and Italy they accept it with much murmuring and indignation; in Belgium and Spain they kick against it almost with violence. This, we admit, furnishes no excuse to Protestants for withholding from them anything short of equality, but it does furnish a strong defence for examining their complaints about equality in a very critical spirit. It has been shown by abundant experience in the modern world that the Church knows how to adapt her discipline and services to the peculiarities of countries in which Protestants are in a great majority. It is not true, as a matter of fact, that she considers no religious worship or instruction of any value without the celebration of the mass. There is provision in the Church discipline for the vast body of Catholics, who are every year, all over the world, by land and sea, cut off for months together from the services of a priest. Catholic soldiers, sailors, travellers, criminals, in regions where there are no Catholic priests, or which priests visit only rarely, are enabled by processes which it is not our province to describe, to keep their religious faith and expectations undamaged by prolonged deprivation of the most solemn services of their denomination.

Public processions of Catholic clergy through the streets carrying the Host, and compelling the outward adoration of all the spectators of whatever creed, were considered necessary in our own time in many States of Italy, and are to-day in Spain. They were considered necessary in every country in Continental Europe as long as the Government would permit them. They have been given up everywhere solely under legal prohibition, and the legal prohibition has been based on the sound doctrine of modern politics, that no religious sect shall be allowed, on any common ground, or in any public place, to conduct its worship in such a way as to offend the prejudices or inflame the passions of persons belonging to other sects.

The management of criminals, and especially youthful criminals, is common ground. In a Protestant country Protestant prejudices do furnish a reasonable and fair limit to Catholic pretensions. This has been conspicuously acknowledged in our public-school system. It is not intolerance to prohibit sectarian instruction within the schools, or to forbid either the sacrifice of the mass or any other religious service within school walls. Adult criminals have chosen their faith, and it is but right to provide the means within prison walls of their public worship. Criminal children have not chosen it, and the faith of the parents of such children is rarely ascertainable. The children are in fact in the condition of heathen, deprived of their liberty, and ready, if their custodians will permit it, to be scrambled for by a large body of rival missionaries. It would be unseemly to the point of scandal for their custodians to permit such a scramble, or to expose them to the competition of rival forms of worship. But it would be worse than unseemly to prevent their being instructed in the doctrines of any recognized Christian denomination to which their parents belong, or for which they themselves profess an intelligent preference. The compromise between the claims of order and the claims of religion, between what Protestants consider expedient and fair, and Catholics consider their due, which the managers of the House of Refuge have hit upon, is the best within reach. The sole objection to it which is worth considering is the Catholic contention that the Church accepts no compromises, and can make no provision for the acceptance in civil society of anything less than her rights. But this, as we have said, has no support from experience. No church has compromised so much, or put up with such immense deprivations of authority.

THE SUDAN NEWS.

GORDON'S letters from Khartum have now been published in a Blue Book, and show that

he did not, as was reported, express confidence in his own ability to hold out indefinitely. On the 4th of November he wrote to Wolseley that he could hold out "with ease" for forty days, or till, say, the end of the year, but that after that it would be "difficult." As a matter of fact, he held out nearly twice as long, and did not after all succumb to famine. There appears every reason to believe that Farag Pasha had long been under agreement to betray him whenever the English got near the place. The tone of the letters, if we may judge from the extracts which have reached us, is querulous, and, considering that he was in the military service of the Government, highly insubordinate. He declines to consider the expedition as sent for his own rescue, but for that of the garrison, and this rescue he pronounces unhesitatingly the duty of the Government. Neglect of it he considers disgraceful, but nevertheless charges the Ministry with it.

His military counsels are not less singular than his political ones. He advises the relief expedition to follow the right bank of the Nile round the immense curve from Wady Halfa to Berber, a march of 700 or 800 miles, "in the hope of surprising Berber." Another piece of warning is still more curious: "Don't let rumors of your approach spread," as if the advance had not been watched by hundreds of eyes for weeks and weeks, and doubtless reported every day to the Mahdi. In fact, the letters only confirm the impression which has been entertained for months by every Englishman who knew Gordon, that the first and great mistake of the Ministry, and indeed the only one, was sending him out single-handed, as a knight-errant, without even a shadow of authority. They ought not to have incurred even the appearance of responsibility for him. He had, ever since he took service with the Chinese in 1862, acted solely under his own inspirations. Both in China, and afterward in the Sudan, he was practically his own master, and defined his own policy, and was, strictly speaking, accountable to nobody. He had consequently long lost the habit of obedience and subordination. He was doubtless a good man to send on any military or semi-military mission in which he had to trust to his own resources, for his resources were wonderful; but to send him anywhere with power to draw on the British treasury and army would have been an immense blunder.

This blunder, it is but justice to the Ministry to say, they did not commit. They warned Gordon emphatically that they were not to be considered responsible for him if his mission as a sort of counter-prophet did not succeed. But the English public knew nothing of this. They saw that the Government had taken charge of the Egyptian army and finances, and had put a veto on any further Egyptian efforts to reconquer the Sudan, and they therefore not unnaturally assumed that Gordon had been sent out as the forerunner of some independent British attempt in the same direction. This impression was allowed to spread and grow deeper all through the spring. Gordon was not, as he ought to have been, publicly and peremptorily ordered to quit Khartum while the way was still open. He was, on the contrary, for all the public could see, allowed to remain there as the agent of the Government, to get along without help if possible, but to receive help if it became necessary. In the meantime his heroship was growing steadily in the popular imagination until he at last came to represent English honor and prestige in the middle of the desert, against a horde of savages. The result was, that when the expedition was sent, it had all the effect of a confirmation of the popular delusion, and of a condonation of Gordon's folly and disobedience. To crown all, Gordon's heroic death has now put it out of the power of the Ministry to tell the truth about him without seeming harsh and unfeeling.

Severer punishment for what seemed a slight blunder probably no government has ever received. In the first place, there is evidently going to be some difficulty in extricating the advanced detachments under Buller and Brackenbury. Buller, who is at the Abu-Klea Wells, only a few miles on his return march to Korti, probably owes his safety thus far to that curious feature of desert warfare which makes it impossible to besiege a force that has possession of the wells, inasmuch as the besiegers, too, must drink. But the supply of water at Abu-Klea is scanty and nearly exhausted, and the camels are dying rapidly. Buller cannot move without a fresh supply of animals, and it is in moving that his danger will begin; for the Mahdi may attack him in great force on his way to Gakdul, which is the next stage. Still, the Mahdi will, of course, find it as difficult to keep a large force afoot in the desert as the British. Food can be carried by men as abstemious as the Arabs in small compass, but water cannot, and no large force of men of any race can in those regions do much more than hurry from well to well. In fact, this is what the best provided caravan or single traveller has to do.

In the present—what we must consider—half-crazed condition of the English mind, it is impossible, of course, to say how far the Sudan folly may be carried. But at this writing it really seems likely, although the Government sticks to its resolve not to try to obtain or retain possession of the Sudan, that a railroad will be built, at a cost of $15,000,000, from Suakim to Berber simply to enable the British troops to "smash the Mahdi" next fall. The cost of a complete and effective "smash," in fact, can hardly be put down at less than $200,000,000, and this at a moment when vast bodies of unemployed poor in all parts of the kingdom are either eating up the savings of former years or throwing themselves on public charity. We cannot help feeling, however, that the prolonged pause which the climate of the Upper Nile makes necessary, will do something to restore sanity to the British people, and that the view of the Radicals, to which Mr. John Morley gave utterance in the House of Commons on Monday night, that the proper course to pursue with regard to the Sudan is to evacuate it, will in the meantime gain ground. The fear that the effect of such a step would be injurious to British prestige in India is probably the most absurd of the Jingo bugbears. If the Indian Mussulmans have not learned for themselves from the events of the last hundred years in India, the potency of British arms, and the unconquerableness of British hate and courage when once fairly roused, it makes little difference, as far as they are concerned, what happens to British troops in other parts of the world.

LABORERS' INSURANCE IN GERMANY.

THE text of the German law of July 6, 1884, for the insurance of workmen against accidents lies before us; a law of so remarkable a character that one wonders at the little attention which it has received outside of Germany. Like its predecessor, the act of 1883 for the insurance of workmen against sickness, it is a result of the "Socialistic" policy which Prince Bismarck has adopted, and which has the support of the largest and most influential body of German economists. We have heard much of the principle of state interference, and of its adoption in Germany; but the details of its application have received little attention in this country. It is worth while to point them out in these insurance acts, which must strike every one who has been accustomed to the Anglo-Saxon method of handling social problems as most extraordinary pieces of legislation.

The act for insurance against accidents provides that all workmen employed in factories, mines, quarries, and the building trades, whose pay does not exceed $500 a year, are to be insured. The clauses describing the insured persons are sweeping, and the only great classes excepted from the operation of the act are ordinary day laborers and agricultural laborers, the latter being an exception which doubtless has a connection with Bismarck's reliance on the landed proprietors of the country districts for political support. Every one of the workmen reached by the act is declared to be entitled, in case of accident, to the costs of his cure and restoration to health. In case of complete disablement, he is to have a pension of two-thirds of the wages earned by him during the year preceding the accident. In case of death, his widow, and children, and dependent parents are to have a pension not to exceed 60 per cent. of his previous wages, so that the act includes a life-insurance provision. It is immaterial how great may have been the carelessness or recklessness of the insured; the only case in which he or his representatives have no claim to compensation is when he has intentionally brought about the accident.

The person who is to pay for this liberal compensation to the injured workman is not the workman himself, not the State that enacts the law, not the local Government, but the employer. All employers whose workmen come within the scope of the act are required to form unions or associations; if they do not do it for themselves, a Government Bureau comes in and organizes the unions over their heads. All establishments from the same or allied branches of trade in a given district are to be united in this way. They are to settle the amount of the premiums to be paid by each employer, in proportion to the number of persons he employs and the danger of his establishment; and they are empowered to enforce

precautions against accidents. Every employer is made *ipso facto* a member of the union for his trade and district. The associations elect their own officers. With them are joined elected delegates from the workmen for the arbitration of disputes. A Government insurance bureau is established (this hardly requires to be said in Germany) which supervises and enforces the whole arrangement.

A very similar measure, but of not quite so drastic a character, was the act of 1883 for insurance against sickness. By this, also, insurance is made compulsory; that is, irrespective of any volition or action of the insured. The sick workman is given free medicine and medical treatment, and, so long as he is too sick to work, one-half the wages of ordinary laborers. If the sickness is the result of drunkenness or immorality, or is intentionally brought on, aid may be refused. The payment comes ordinarily from the local Government bodies, the communes. There are permitted certain methods of establishing it through associations of a voluntary character; but normally the local bodies pay the insurance. They levy for this purpose a tax of not more than 2 per cent. on the wages of the insured; if the proceeds of the 2 per cent. do not suffice to yield what the act gives to the workmen, then the excess must be borne by the town out of its general revenue. The tax is collected from the employers, who are authorized to deduct two-thirds of it from the wages of the workmen; the remaining third they must pay out of their own pockets. This Sick Insurance Act and the Accident Insurance Act of 1884 are made to work together, by providing that if a workman becomes injured by an accident, he is to receive his insurance money in the first instance from the sick-insurance fund (*i. e.*, from the town), and this fund is then repaid by the accident-insurance fund (*i. e.*, by the employers' union).

This sort of legislation may suit Germany; it may be possible to carry out its provisions with German habits of Government superintendence and police, and no one would deny that its object is most praiseworthy, so far, at least, as appears on the surface of the act. But it is completely alien to our manner of approaching social problems. It is evidently not insurance at all. It is not making voluntarily a prudent provision for possible misfortune in the future. It is a vast extension of the poor-law principle—of the principle that those who are not able to take care of themselves are to be taken care of by the public at large. Moreover, it is the poor-law principle applied without those precautions against abuse and demoralization of which the necessity has been dinned into our ears during the last half-century. Apart from the proviso that intentional injury and illness resulting from drunkenness or immorality are to be excluded from the insured contingencies, there is no precaution against recklessness, ignorance, shamming, and cheating, and no stimulus to independence and self-help. When one considers the moral and intellectual state of the average manual workman, it is clear that the assurance of half-pay during any disability will make disability far from a great calamity. Being sick and idle on half-pay is not a bad piece of luck. One may venture to doubt whether even German administration and German police will be able to set aside with a stern hand the cases of pretended sickness and intentional injury. On the other hand, the most powerful incentives to prudence, and temperance, and saving habits are evidently taken away by making prudence and saving unnecessary. For those who believe, as most English-speaking people do, that the only deep-reaching method of bettering the condition of the laboring classes is the raising of the standard of prudence, of morality, of independence, and of intelligence among the laborers themselves, the German method must seem radically false. Insurance against sickness and accident is undoubtedly a most desirable thing, and the community should do all that it wisely can do for its encouragement. But the encouragement should come rather in the way of legalizing and regulating that voluntary form of relief which trades-unions in England and benefit associations in this country have applied on so large a scale, than in imposing on one class in the community the burden of looking after another.

It is characteristic of the policy by which Bismarck is trying to win the Social-Democrats to his side, that the money for insuring the laborers is raised in both these acts from their employers. In the Accident-Insurance Act they are to pay the whole fund out of their own pockets; in the Sick-Insurance Act they are to do the same, but may deduct two-thirds of the payment from the wages of their laborers. Of course, whether the law says so or not, the money will, as a general thing, come out of the wages of the laborers anyhow. The tendency will be for employers to deduct the insurance payments out of the current wages of their employees. So far as this is done, the process amounts to taking part of his earnings from the workman at one time for the purpose of providing for him at another; a process to which there can be no particular objection, when once the principle of self-help is abandoned. But a tendency of this kind, like every attempt to throw off an indirect tax from the first payer and to charge it to somebody else, is one which is not at all certain to be carried into universal effect. The force of habit, the resistance to innovation, those influences which economists sometimes call economic friction, will stand in the way. It is pretty certain that in some cases the insurance tax will really come out of the pockets of the employers themselves; in others it will be added to the price of the goods they make—that is, will be paid by the consumers. In such cases there will be the result of one set of people being provided against illness and misfortune, not by the community at large, but by another set of people—a result hardly consistent with those principles of economic "justice" which are supposed to underlie the schemes of Socialistic legislation.

THE TROUBLES OF ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 9.

SEVERAL times during the last few years one has heard people in England wishing that so many events did not happen. Generally speaking, men relish excitement in this hot and hurried world of modern Europe. It is not only the newspapers that live by and upon news, but no small part of our city populations, who find it hard to realize what existence was like two centuries ago, or is even now in quiet country nooks with one delivery of letters in the day and no telegraph office. Yet latterly those who watch public affairs seem to feel that they have too much excitement, that events come too thick, and tread too fast upon the heels of those that have gone before; they begin to appreciate the saying that happy is the nation which has no history. They wish for more time to think about things; to comprehend and see how to face the new problems which are perpetually appearing and passing swiftly from one phase to another.

England has been in perpetual unrest, throbbing and quivering with effort and passion, ever since 1876, when the revival of the Eastern question not only dragged us back into the whirlpool of general European politics, but, by the bitterness which it added to party feeling, made our domestic contests hotter and perhaps even less scrupulous than they had been before. No part of this period, not even the Irish crisis of 1880-81, has been so exciting and troubled as the last six months. The constitutional crisis between the House of Lords and the House of Commons occupied the autumn, and revealed the hatred which had been silently accumulated against the Peers; and when the deadlock had been disposed of by the compromise between the Liberal and Tory leaders, men's eyes were opened to see that a revolution had been accomplished which definitely stamps Britain as a democratic country. There was some satisfaction felt at the peaceful way and conciliatory spirit in which this revolution had been effected. But this was soon dashed by the foreign and colonial difficulties thickening round us. The Egyptian problem seemed more insoluble than ever, and the Ministry more puzzled than ever how to deal with it. The unfriendly, not to call it hostile, attitude of Germany could no longer be denied when Bismarck was seen trying to pick quarrels with us all over the world. The jealous desire of France to embarrass us in Egypt became more evident, and suspicions were roused as to her designs on Siam and Burmah. We found Russia making trouble over the question of the boundaries of Afghanistan. And in the middle of these vexations came first the dynamite explosions of January 31, and now on February 4 the news of the fall of Khartum, the death or captivity of Gordon, the peril of our little army scattered here and there over the deserts of the Upper Nile. Seldom has a modern state found itself pressed and distracted at the same moment by more anxieties. We have realized more clearly perhaps than ever before how unique is the position of England and her empire, whose nerves, so to speak, so stretch themselves over the whole globe, that they can feel pain and danger and the need for action in so many points at once that the central brain is scarcely able to meet by thought and will all the demands that crowd upon it.

My task is not to describe these anxieties, but only to attempt to tell you how our people take them, what are the first emotions and views which they evoke.

Although we had got pretty well accustomed to dynamite, the sensation caused by these latest attempts to destroy life and property was deeper than on any previous occasion. The mischief wrought was greater. It was wrought simultaneously in three spots. There was more audacity shown in striking at the Tower and the House of Commons than in the stupid and cowardly device of leaving infernal machines in the cloak-rooms of railway stations, or dropping them out of the windows of cars on the underground railway. It looked as if the conspirators were gain-

ing experience and confidence, while becoming even more reckless as to the consequences upon human life. Hence the thing has been taken more seriously than on previous occasions. Then the dominant impression was one of surprise, and though there was indignation, it was mixed with amusement. The idea of frightening England by letting off gigantic squibs seemed so ludicrous that we should have been ashamed to be frightened. Now, although there has been no panic, and even less excitement than you might fancy from the newspapers, in whose thermometer the mercury stands always some degrees higher than it does in the nation generally, there is little amusement, but rather a deep, quiet anger which might easily break out into lynchings of persons suspected, or even into demonstrations against the Irish. London is such a huge, inorganic place, where no man knows his neighbor, and the Irish are not distinguishable from the rest of the people, that such demonstrations are unlikely in it. But in Lancashire there has always been some ill-feeling between Irish and English working people, and had the explosions taken place there, the results might have been serious for the former. As it is, we hear of Irish workmen being here and there dismissed, here and there refused employment—regrettable incidents, but such as must be expected when in Irish meetings voices are raised in approval of the dynamite party. Of results on the ordinary intercourse of Englishmen and Irishmen, one sees nothing in the middle and upper classes, because the Irishmen who belong to those classes are usually Protestants, and more hostile to the Nationalist party than any Englishman. But in the humbler classes there must be a good deal of friction.

An Irish acquaintance of mine had been in the habit of talking occasionally with the police constable of his district, who was an Irish Protestant from Ulster. A few days after the explosions, as he bade the constable good morning in passing down the street, the latter asked him whether things were not made disagreeable for him as an Irishman. Somewhat surprised, my acquaintance inquired what the constable meant. "Well, sir," was the answer, "perhaps it is different in your rank of life, where persons are more polite, but they make it very annoying for me; they are always worrying at me because I am an Irishman; and then, sir, they are so ignorant. They don't know the difference between an Irish Papist and an Orangeman." In those ranks of life where persons are not polite, and where events like the dynamite attempts engross the thoughts and tongues of the people, Irishmen must have had much to put up with, and the relations of the two races will become more strained than ever. Great vigilance is now observed all over London. Not merely are the public buildings guarded, but one seems to see a far larger number of police everywhere, and these police constantly on the alert, observing everybody who loiters, and particularly those carrying handbags or paper parcels. We rub our eyes and ask ourselves whether we are in London and in the nineteenth century; yet of course opinion approves all possible vigilance, and everybody is willing to coöperate. There has never been anything that can be called alarm in the public at large—London is far too big for that; but there has certainly been a more serious view of the position than there was before, and a painful sense that what the Irish revolutionaries attempt now may hereafter be attempted by revolutionaries of other kinds, and may encourage the Anarchists of the Continent to play the same game in Germany or France.

As regards the political problem of Irish disaffection, these outrages will hardly affect its solution one way or the other. Although Mr. Parnell has been much censured for his silence on the subject, all sensible men know that he and his immediate allies are hindered and embarrassed by such conduct, and have all along found in the extreme faction one of their chief difficulties and dangers. There are persons in England who feel more inclined after each fresh proof of Irish implacability to wish that we had done with Ireland altogether. There are other persons who draw the conclusion that more repression is needed—martial law and the suppression of Parliamentary representation—and who charge the dynamite outrages on Mr. Gladstone's policy of conciliation. But the great majority feel that it would be unworthy of England to let her policy be deflected either way by the acts of a knot of conspirators, and unjust to charge their ferocity on the bulk of the Irish nation. The question of renewing the Crimes Act, and of extending either local self-government or any form of Home Rule, will apparently be dealt with just as if these explosions had not taken place.

Much satisfaction was felt, even more than was publicly expressed, at the sentiment evoked in America by the news of the explosions. Anything which legislation can do there to prevent the advocacy of these crimes or the collection of subscriptions for them will be deemed helpful, but it is believed that the acts themselves are frequently planned from Paris, which affords a nearer and easier base of operations.

The excitement caused by the dynamite affair would probably have been greater had not two other things happened at the same time to divert attention from it. The one was the series of speeches, sketching out a bold programme of social change, by which Mr. Chamberlain has startled the more moderate section of the Liberal party. The other was the march of General Stewart across the Bayuda desert with the battles of Abu-Klea and Gubat. Now upon these there has come the tidings of the fall of Khartum, which of course throws all else into the shade, because it involves the safety of the detachments of Lord Wolseley's army, and the question of further military operations which may last for many months and involve a vast expenditure of money.

The first impression of the news was of regret at the fate (for it was and is still generally supposed that he has perished) of Gordon. His striking character and the long defence of Khartum, which he has held by the mere force of his presence, have profoundly affected the people, always more attracted by persons than by causes or policies. Even those who thought him wild and odd, and who blamed the Ministry for sending him, could not refuse their admiration to his chivalrous daring and unselfishness. The next feeling was of anxiety for the army, and especially for the small bodies under Stewart and Wilson. This would have been greater but for the belief, deeply rooted in the English mind, that the most insignificant body of English troops can defend itself against any odds of uncivilized enemies. Many as have been the perils which our forces have had to encounter during this century, there have been only three instances within the memory of living men in which a detachment has been overpowered—the catastrophe of the first Afghan war in 1842, the fight at Isandlana against the Zulus, and the slaughter at Cawnpore in 1857. In the first instance there was treachery, in the two others surprise, so that the belief is sustained that where the danger is foreseen our troops can always resist it. The way in which so many tremendous perils were escaped from or surmounted during the Indian mutiny has confirmed our faith in English invincibility, and may, perhaps, some day involve us in worse troubles. We are always despising our enemies, and running risks which the judgment of Continental soldiers condemns.

Next after these two feelings came that of perplexity as to what should be done—whether we should stand still, on the defensive, or move forward on Khartum, or retire on Upper Egypt. Such perplexity is the greater because our people have never liked the expedition nor quite understood its object. To rescue Gordon was the obvious aim; but, supposing him rescued, nobody knew what else ought to be done, nor what arrangements should be made for the future of the country. There has seldom been an instance in recent times in which public opinion has been so utterly at sea as through the whole of these Egyptian and Sudan troubles, everybody admitting that he had no light to give, and vainly hoping that it would be revealed from some other quarter. In such cases, the usual course is to trust the Executive, assuming that as it has more knowledge, it is fitter to judge than the people can be. But unhappily public confidence in the Executive has upon foreign questions been seriously shaken. They sent Gordon out a year ago with no definite idea as to what he was to do, or as to what they would do if he failed to pacify the country. They fought battles at Suakim for which they have never been able to assign a sufficient motive, and which have had no useful result. They decided late in July last on an expedition to rescue Gordon, which ought, as events have shown, to have been undertaken at least two months earlier. Hence that faith which the Liberals have given so largely to their leaders, and which moderate men of all parties are disposed to give to the Ministers of the Crown, is now confined to domestic questions, and the unspoken anxiety of the more thoughtful part of the community is greater than the present state of matters warrants. It extends to the whole international position of England, and it is all the more serious because few persons, even in the Tory ranks, believe that such Tory leaders as Lord Salisbury, Sir S. Northcote, and Lord Randolph Churchill are likely to steer the ship more prudently or skilfully than their antagonists have done. I do not say that this harsh judgment is justified, but merely note the fact.

Whether the Government will survive the shock which these misfortunes have given to its authority, whether the bulk of its party will approve the resolution it is said to have taken, to continue the war and recapture Khartum, are questions which it is useless to discuss at this stage, before the opinion of the nation has had time to crystallize. The position of the Cabinet is insecure, but there are obvious objections to a change of Ministry at a moment when vigor and despatch are needed, and the Tory party may be unwilling to take office so shortly before a general election. They have a great opportunity of assuming a dignified and patriotic attitude, but they have seldom known of late years how to use their opportunities. It will not be surprising if, when the first desire to display the strength of England has passed, many voices are raised against continuing a struggle in the Sudan which the Government themselves condemned, and from which they do not expect any substantial profit. Those who know India best make light of the idea that a reverse on this side the Red Sea will shake our military hold on that country; and those who have visited the Sudan represent it as anything but a desirable acquisition. Y.

HOLLINGBURY COPSE AND ITS SHAKSPERIANA.

BRIGHTON, February.

"Come hither, come hither, come hither;
Here shall you see no enemy
But winter and rough weather!"

THESE lines from a song in "As You Like It" (Act. IV., scene 5) are written in black-letter on the cornice of the house of Halliwell-Phillipps, at

Hollingbury Copse. They stretch from end to end of its front, and so seem a more cordial greeting. Some eight years ago this famous Shaksperian, coming down to Brighton for a brief rustication, concluded to make it his country home. For this purpose, purchasing thirteen acres northwest of the city, on a hill so high and steep that it was scarcely inhabited at all, he built a shanty that would serve him for keeping a bachelor's or rather widower's hall. He soon added other rooms—some of them cased with iron and equipped with fire-proof vaults for the storage and safe-keeping of his idols, as Shaksperian curios may be fitly styled. Marrying a Brighton lady, he expanded his establishment in every direction, but built it nowhere more than one story in height. No room has a ceiling. Above every one you see the rafters running up to the ridge. The roof and wainscot are varnished but not painted. The whole pile is an excellent specimen of a building that has grown, as Paley says of the British Constitution, rather than been made to order.

The grounds are shut in by a wall of masonry ten feet high, or, where the view would be thus obstructed, by a fence of open iron work no less difficult to scale. The gates are two, an outer and an inner. At the outer there is a notice, "No dog admitted," and the porter's orders are not to unbar the inner gate till all dogs have been barred outside of the outer. The copse which gives name to the place is on the highest ground, and consists in a sort of jungle of underwood, largely evergreen, threaded with labyrinthine paths. Here and there from a bower one can command an outlook over Brighton, the Channel, as well as chalk cliffs east and west, for the altitude is 460 feet above the sea-level. On this south shore, the Italian Riviera of England, the fields, where not freshly ploughed, are green with grass and grain at the end of November. At this season, too, the tilth, or ploughed ground, is white with the stone harvests. The stones, worth $2 a load, are an unfailing crop, and, in the judgment of those who to-day gather them, *grow*, though an outsider would trace them to frost or subsoil ploughs. Next to the copse, the most conspicuous object in the grounds is a spacious and stone-curbed fish-pond.

Within the walls of the house, which Mr. Phillipps, aware of its oddity, calls sometimes a bungalow and sometimes a wigwam, there are corridors leading, or rather misleading, strangers from one quarter to another. On their walls you read their names, such as *Wolsey's Walk*, *Dogberry's Lane*, *Romeo's Ramble*, but you do not thus learn their nature or purpose. Over the dining-room fireplace hangs a picture of *Portia* disguised as a judge, and just disclosing to *Shylock* the "true inwardness" of his bond. But the supreme interest of this English interior centres in the Study, or treasury of Shaksperiana, which is separated from the rest of the mansion by doors of iron. Along one side of its antechamber stretches what Mr. Phillipps has named the "book bin." Every afternoon his habit is to look over a score of books, cut out of each the fractions he can use, and throw the rest as refuse into his mammoth waste-basket. The legend over the study door is the words of the witch when Macbeth sought entrance to her cave (Act IV., scene 1), "Open, locks, whoever knocks!" Classical quotation, said Dr. Johnson, is the parole of scholars the world over. Shaksperian quotation is now becoming preëminently that sort of parole, and nowhere more than at Hollingbury Copse. American Shaksperians are there sure of a double welcome, partly as pilgrims from a far country, but chiefly because, in the opinion of Mr. Phillipps, his labors were appreciated in the United States sooner than in his own country.

His Shaksperian working library is mainly at his house in the London suburb of Brompton, while the rarities, or, as a German would say, the *Sehenswürdigkeiten*, glorify Hollingbury Copse. But things "worth seeing" just because they are to be seen rather than heard of, are hardest, or rather impossible, to describe. Mr. Phillipps has printed, but not published, a hand-list of ten hundred and ninety-three drawings and engravings illustrative of the life of Shakspere, which he has accumulated. In obtaining a portion of them he was himself busy, aided by an accomplished draughtsman, for six years. On showing these delectables to the writer he unwearyingly turned over portfolios all a long morning, and guided him to the salient points of interest in the representations of every morsel that could be found in England contemporary with Shakspere, on the routes where he travelled and in the places where he lived—notably, the arches of triumph in London under which there is "authentic record evidence that Shakspere passed in the procession of March 15, 1604"; the earliest engraved view known to exist of the church where Shakspere is interred; the earliest plan of Windsor Park in which Herne's oak is noticed; a view of Stratford College as it appeared when Shakspere was a scholar there; and the Avon Bridge as his childish eyes first looked upon its arches.

But the gem of the collection, in the eyes of its owner, and, I think, in the mind of every visitor, is the portrait of Shakspere by Droeshout, dating from 1623, in its original proof, before it was altered into the vitiated form in which it has been so long familiar to the public. "Here," said he, "we have the most reliable likeness in existence of the dramatist, the only one that has not been tampered with, while the evidences of its genuineness and its antiquity are incontestable. It is of such extreme rarity that it is the only copy which has as yet been discovered." Mr. Phillipps demonstrated the superiority of this likeness, holding up beside it one of the best of more modern copies. In the shading of the collar, the arch under one eye, the hair, moustache, and muscles of the mouth, the difference, when once pointed out, was palpable.

Among printed rarities, the first folio of 1623, in excellent preservation, was about the largest to my eye. But a special pet with Mr. Phillipps is "Love's Labor Lost," the thin quarto pamphlet of 1598—so far as known, the *editio princeps*, not only of that play, but of any Shaksperian play. He was so fortunate as to secure this relic for £60, but would not part with it for ten times as much. It is, in truth, a long time since Mr. Phillipps has lost his grip on anything Shaksperian that has fallen in his way. "It is his plan to lose no part of that immortal man." Of two things in his career Mr. Phillipps said that he repented every day. One was, that while poor he had sold certain Shaksperian jewels. The other was, that he had not travelled while he was young. About 1854 he had visited Lucerne and reached the crest of the St. Gothard pass; but during the last generation he has scarcely been out of England. As his age is now only sixty-five, he would not seem at present too old to view abroad the wonders of the world. But to his mind travel is travail and exile. His reluctance to leave home may be intensified unawares by his zeal in Shaksperian research, which never flags. His discoveries in 1883 were great, in 1884 far less, yet sufficient to encourage labors for more. His investigations just now are in that long-explored, but still exhaustless, mine, the New Record Office in Fetter Lane.

Possessing an ample fortune, thanks to marriage with the daughter of Sir Thomas Phillipps, whose name he adds to his own patronymic Halliwell, he is able to pay a fabulous price for any trifle which will supply a missing link in his chain of Shaksperian mirabilia. He complains, however, that he hears sometimes of such a nonesuch and bids high for it by telegram, only to find that his order has arrived too late. His copy of Lilly's Latin grammar, in an edition which Shakspere must have studied, led me to remark that one might, perhaps, espy in that work where the dramatist "of small Latin" got some of his quotations; and that such a search would be easy with the help of the list of "Sentences taken from foreign languages" at the end of Schmidt's 'Lexicon.' Mr. Phillipps was pleased with the suggestion, but said he did not know of the list, and was even utterly unacquainted with the work of Schmidt, which in America, at least, has become the vade-mecum of every student. He said he would buy the 'Lexicon' at once—for the quotation-list; evidently sharing Mr. Grant White's notion that no foreigner can light up for us the vocabulary of our dramatic bard.

Mr. Phillipps takes frequent walks to Brighton and back—three miles each way. He begins study at half-past five even in winter mornings, but never studies after his lunch, which he takes before two o'clock. Although he has written more about Shakspere than any living man, he declares himself unable to repeat from memory ten consecutive lines of any play. When asked how he would dispose of the illustrative matter on Shakspere which he had been gleaning and hiving through so many studious and active years, he answered that he had long thought on that subject, and that the longer he thought the more he felt at a loss what to do. Some patriotic impulse prompted me to urge him that he bequeath his jewels to America—that utmost corner of the West where the majority of those who speak the tongue of Shakspere are already resident, where that majority daily grows, and where all helps to the appreciation of that prince of dramatists will accordingly do the most good. The proposition struck him as equally new and startling, but he promised he would take it into consideration. As Smithson's half million could nowhere in the Old World have been such a power for good as it has proved in the New, so, I believe, would be the good fortune of the Shaksperian treasure-trove of Phillipps. We'd set it in a shower of gold and rain rich pearls upon it.

J. D. B.

Correspondence.

A MUSEUM OF CASTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the very able articles published in the *Studio* of January 3, I have been particularly struck by one relating to the contemplated formation of a museum of casts and photographs. Allow me to suggest to you my view of the question.

The idea of endowing a city like New York with a collection of original sculptures and paintings by old masters is to be completely put aside. Such a collection, even if millions were spent for it, would never rank equal to the museum of a provincial town in Germany or in France. The masterpieces of the past all now belong, with very few exceptions, to museums, or to very rich families, which will never give them up at any price. There exists in Rome, it is true, a private collection of 400 *so-called* ancient statues, which the possessor, Torlonia, has the childish hope of selling some day for *thirty millions* to Russia or to America; but that collection, which you certainly know, is filled with outrageous forgeries. Lady Burdett-Coutts and the Duc d'Aumale are the only persons possessing *original* pictures by Raphael, and they certainly will never sell them. America is a young country; it was never gov-

erned by kings ready to lavish the people's money for the sake of getting up splendid collections; not having known the drawbacks of monarchism, it must be content not to know its advantages either. But assuredly a great nation has the right and the duty to secure collections capable of educating the people, and giving to those who cannot travel in Europe an adequate idea of the marvels of ancient art.

It is obvious that a collection of casts is the best *succédané* of a gallery of ancient sculptors. We possess in Paris two collections of that kind. The first and oldest one is in the École des Beaux-Arts. It numbers about 3,000 casts, large and small, reproducing all the masterpieces of Greek and Roman art, including the sculptures of Olympia and Pergamos. The second one, recently founded, is in the Palace of the Trocadéro, built in 1878. There you find not only casts of ancient, mediæval, and modern sculptures, but of architectural fragments, such as the Gothic doorways of Chartres, Étampes, and other cathedrals, of mediæval tombs, bass-reliefs, altars, etc. The collection is set up in historical order, and, when completed, will afford a splendid illustration for the study of art from the days of Assos to those of Canova.

But casts can only reproduce the works of sculpture, architecture, and what the Germans call *Kleinkünste*. What of the paintings? Here, I will enter into some detail, because the article in the *Studio* proves to me that the exact state of things in France is not known in America. You know that since Louis XIV. we have had in Rome an Art Institute, the Villa Medici. Every year, a painter, having gained the *Prix de Rome*, which exempts him from military duty, is sent to Rome, where he remains three years. He is obliged, by the rule of the School, to send every year a painting to the French Government; the first year he must send a copy after some masterpiece of Italian art. By means of this clause, the French Government possesses a vast number of excellent copies after all the best paintings of old Italian masters.

Thiers, as you know, was a great art-fancier. During fifty years, he had copies painted, in water-color and on a reduced scale, after the best pictures in Rome, Florence, Dresden, etc. He thus contrived to collect about eighty copies, some of which (for instance, those of Raphael's Stanze) are real masterpieces. This collection has just been given by his sister-in-law, Mademoiselle Dosne, to the Louvre, where it forms a most welcome supplement to the collections of original paintings.

When Thiers, in 1871, became President of the Republic, he intrusted Charles Blanc with the direction of the Beaux-Arts, and ordered a *Musée de Copies* to be established in the Palais de l'Industrie. This collection immediately numbered about 200 paintings, belonging to the State and sent in former times by the young painters in Rome. Thiers, in his impatience to see the collection completed, sent a number of young painters to Holland, Italy, and Germany, in order to get copies of the principal pictures owned in those countries. Unfortunately, the painters, being over-hurried and not sufficiently controlled, did their work in a very indifferent manner; and when their pictures came to Paris, there was a general uproar against them. Other painters, who had begged to be sent to Italy or Holland, and who had not been chosen, naturally joined with the enemies of the new museum; and when Thiers was upset on May 24, 1873, a decree followed suppressing the Musée de Copies, and assigning its contents partly to the École des Beaux-Arts (which still possesses the best copies of Italian and Spanish paintings), partly to the provincial museums. Every one now regrets it bitterly, but it would be impossible to resume Thiers's plan, the paintings given to the provincial museums being now their definitive property. The gift of Thiers's personal collection of copies to the Louvre, in 1884, is a slight compensation for the loss of our Musée de Copies.

Now, observe that a good copy of an ancient painting is a comparatively common thing, since we have the means of insuring, by means of photography, the perfect accuracy of the outline. For a good copy for the provincial museums, after a large picture like Raphael's "Holy Family" (about two metres high and one broad), the Government pays 1,500 francs; and with 300,000 francs you could easily get 200 very good copies of the best pictures in the Louvre gallery. But all the museums in Europe together do not possess more than 300 masterpieces of great size, and a museum of copies containing 300 large pictures and 1,500 small ones would be the equivalent of the most splendid gallery in the world. The total cost would certainly not exceed 1,200,000 francs; that is, the price paid by the Museum of Berlin for a single picture of Albert Dürer's, purchased last year from Dürer's family in Nuremberg. Surely America is rich enough to spend 1,200,000 francs for a gallery of paintings, and 200,000 for a large collection of casts.

Such a scheme would certainly be supported by all the real amateurs and by all the young American painters, who would be glad to be sent to Europe in order to procure copies from the most celebrated paintings. The danger would be that they might work too quick and send bad copies; but this could be avoided by appointing in the different towns committees intrusted with the care of examining the copies before they should be sent off. Moreover, there are in Paris and in Italy hundreds of poor painters, especially ladies, who do nothing else but paint copies for the State and for churches; the Louvre is crowded with them. It would be very easy to get excellent copies from them, and they would give particular attention to their work, knowing that one good copy might induce America to order many others from them. This is my idea of the matter; photographs from pictures are a very dull thing, and nothing can give an adequate idea of a Murillo or of a Rubens except a good copy in natural size, or—as in the case of Thiers's collection—a copy in water-color reduced to a smaller scale.

Yours truly,

SALOMON REINACH.

PARIS, January 17, 1885.

[Mr. Reinach, in common with cultivated Europeans generally, is puzzled by the status of the fine arts in this country. We hear continually expressions of wonder why "the United States" does not undertake or purchase this, that, or the other thing, it being a rich and lavish country. It seems like kicking at an open door to say that "a great nation has the right and duty to secure collections capable of educating the people," etc., but the truth is that the United States, though in the ordinary sense of the term a great nation, is merely an immense corporation, whose business is managed by delegates who have no *right* or *duty* other than to administer certain of the affairs of the country as the people direct, and, if it were possible, honestly and economically; and the education of the people is a matter with which the national Government has nothing to do, all questions of that nature devolving on the State governments. And of the State governments, that of Massachusetts has been the only one sufficiently appreciative of the value of art education to make a State matter of it, though its attempt at education resulted in establishing the worst system of art instruction ever known (that of South Kensington) as a State system. This was far from encouraging; but, in fact, with our system of complete decentralization, we have even no central State authority capable of regulating and intelligently directing a primary art education. The most we could hope from the Federal Government would be to put the expenditures for the District of Columbia under intelligent control, while exactly the contrary takes place, and when Congress dabbles in the fine arts it is a veritable bull in a china-shop. It cannot even secure us a coinage which is, from the artistic side, respectable, so that the product of our mint is the worst in that respect in the civilized world. Even the Spanish-American States do better. As for the higher branches, a public body capable of encouraging art like that of Clark Mills, Vinnie Ream, etc., should be interdicted by constitutional provision from spending money for works of art.

The State governments are in one respect still more impotent. They have no common locality like Washington under their absolute control, or even charge, to which they can appropriate funds for educational or decorative purposes. They might unquestionably endow State art schools, which must be located somewhere; but the civic jealousies put this practically out of the question, and we are finally thrown back on the city governments. But to any city the expense of a great art institution, in addition to what the city finances already bear (between stealing and legitimate expenditure), is formidable, and in practice where anything has been done it has been by private contributions slightly aided by the municipal authorities. In this way the Boston Art Museum, a most admirable and useful institution, and by far the most complete in the United States, and the Metropolitan Museum of New York, have been organized. But the latter is not, properly speaking, an art but an archæological museum—its finances have been absorbed in the purchase of collections which have no art-educational value whatever. It has spent $276,000 for its collection of Dutch pictures and its Cypriote collections, which, whatever their archæological value, are utterly valueless as art. These acquisitions have strained the present benefaction of that part of the New York public which adheres to the present management, and have absorbed a sum about equal to that which Mr. Reinach mentions as the cost of the entire museum he recommends.

To secure for New York such a museum would be, no doubt, a most desirable thing, and in fact a plan to form one has been under discussion for some time by wealthy citizens, who are willing to contribute to its acquisition if it can be organized in entire independence of the present management of the Metropolitan Museum. We see by a résumé of the report of its Board of Trustees in the *Tribune*, that they contemplate providing their own building and making themselves independent of municipal restrictions. If this should be the case, the carrying out of the new plan becomes easily practicable, if, as would probably be the case, the corporation were willing to transfer the

present buildings to the Museum of Copies.—Ed. Nation.]

THE TRUE CAUSE OF THE HARD TIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is generally assumed that there is no limit to the extent to which income-producing wealth may be accumulated. This is indeed practically true so far as the accumulation of such wealth by an individual is concerned: but when the possible amount of accumulation of income-producing wealth by the whole world is considered, we find that the problem involves a new element, and that a limit to that amount really exists. The chief kind of income-producing wealth known to modern civilization consists of the machinery or instruments of production and transportation. In other words, the principal way in which men at the present day can so use capital that it will bring them annual returns is by employing it in the creation of such machinery and instruments—by building factories, railroads, steamboats, etc.

These things, however, are not valuable in themselves, but only as they produce or transport articles which are of value because there is a demand for them. If mankind should cease to care for the products of our factories, or for the goods transported by our railroads and steamboats, we could not expect to derive profits from these factories, railroads, or steamboats. If the whole world were like those parts of it where a tropical climate renders shelter and clothing almost superfluous, where food can be obtained without effort, and where the people, having the few necessaries of life almost given into their hands, feel little or no desire for anything more, what would be the possibility of income-producing wealth; what the opportunity for the profitable investment of money? If the people of such a world were desirous of acquiring income-producing wealth, of making profitable investments, they would certainly find it to be substantially impossible to do so. If, however, we imagine such a world to advance in civilization, if we imagine the wants of its inhabitants to increase and extend, we can see that opportunities for the profitable investment of capital would continually arise, and would be enlarged in proportion as the people increased their demand for and consumption of the products of labor. But it can never, in any condition of the world, be profitable to produce or to transport more than the people are at the time both able and willing to consume; and if it should ever happen that the rich people in the world, being mainly desirous of growing richer, were not *willing* to consume largely, and that the poor people, having but small wages, were not *able* to consume largely, there might arise a condition of affairs in which the aggregate investment of capital in the machinery and instruments of production and transportation would, temporarily at least, have grown out of and beyond its due proportion to the production and transportation that were at the time required or called for.

If, then, it is theoretically possible that there should be a condition of affairs in which the investment of capital with a view to the return of annual income to its owners should be overdone, the question arises whether such a condition has ever been actually experienced. To answer this question properly, it will be well to consider what would be the phenomena by which such a condition of affairs would naturally be accompanied, and then to inquire whether those phenomena have ever been observed as actually existing. We believe that, as the result of this inquiry, we shall learn that the phenomena which we should theoretically expect to find, correspond exactly to those which we have in fact observed in recent years.

In the first place, this period of over-investment might be expected to arise after a time of great prosperity, during which people had made large gains which they had not spent in meeting their daily wants, but had been able and willing to invest. As a matter of fact, we have had in recent years a world overflowing with products, in the enjoyment of which the poor could not largely join by reason of the smallness of their wages, while most of those who had any surplus of income beyond the amount needed to supply them with the mere necessaries of life, have been desirous of adding some portion, and many of them a large portion, of that income to their income-producing wealth. Consequently immense sums have in recent years been seeking for new fields of investment. The richer classes, in their desire to gain still greater wealth, have saved many millions out of their income to add to their investments, while, among the poorer classes, the well-to-do mechanics, shopkeepers, and others, in their desire to "lay up something against a rainy day," have diverted other millions from their every-day expenses to the field of investment. We may, therefore, safely conclude that the present time is one when, if ever, we might expect to find that the world had overdone the attempt to make profitable investments, and had created more of the instruments of production and distribution than there was any demand for.

Assuming, then, that recent years have been favorable to an over-investment of capital with a view to annual returns, let us next consider how such an over-investment, if actually existing, would manifest itself. It would seem that we might expect it to appear gradually that some of the favorite fields of investment had been overcrowded, that too many railroads had been built, that so many factories had been set in motion that more products were created than there was any demand for. Then, as the products accumulated in the warehouses, we might next expect to see the factories, in their competition to sell their products, reducing their selling prices till at last they would be ready to sell at or below the cost of production. Then there would naturally come a reduction of the wages of the workpeople, as the result of an attempt to reduce the cost of the products below the price at which they could be sold, or the factories might stop work altogether till their accumulated products could be disposed of. Then, as the wages of the workpeople were cut down or ceased altogether, there would arise distress among the laboring classes, and as the natural consequence of such distress, strikes and labor riots. At the same time that the poor were losing their wages, the rich would necessarily be losing their dividends from their factories, railroads, and other investments, and these causes would force all classes to economize, and thereby the consumption of the products of the factories and the work of the railroads, in the transportation of both passengers and freight, would be largely diminished, the business of the trader and mechanic would fall away, hotels, theatres, and places of amusement would languish. There would be an appearance of plenty in the markets, which would be filled with an abundance of the products of the field and of the factory; everybody would have something, either goods or labor, that he wished to sell, but comparatively few persons would be both able and willing to purchase. There would be a world full of factories lying idle, of railroads not paying their running expenses, of stores and warehouses standing empty, of banks overflowing with funds for which no investment could be found, and finally, and worst of all, there would be a world full of men and women, able and anxious to engage in useful labor, but forced to sit idle and starving in the midst of the abundance by which they were surrounded. Is not all this exactly what we have seen in recent years and are seeing to-day?

In conclusion, do not the observed facts all agree with the theory that the hard times have been caused by an excessive desire to acquire income-producing wealth, by overdoing the creation of the machinery and instruments of production and transportation? And does not this theory afford, what other theories have failed to do, a full and simple explanation of the causes of the distress from which the whole business world is suffering to-day? U. H. C.

Boston, February 16, 1885.

THE PHILADELPHIA PANACEA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I enclose the following cutting from the Philadelphia *Press:*

SURE CURE FOR DULL TIMES.

To the Editor of The Press:

Sir: I often see articles in your paper with regard to the improvement in trade which will occur when trade starts up. Now, it seems to me that the only thing to start trade is increased demand; the only way to increase demand is by increased consumption; the only way to increase consumption is by increasing the wages, and the only way to increase the wages is by increasing the tariff. Add 20 per cent. to the present tariff, and before six months idle men will be hard to find. In our past history the depressions of 1837, 1847, and 1857 were all cured by increasing the tariff. If it cured then, why won't it now?

Yours truly, A Workman.

Norristown, Pa., February 16.

The *Press* is a tariff organ that rejoices in the attempts of Mr. R. P. Porter to instruct its readers in protective fallacies.

The above note would be pitiable and not to be regarded, did it not very fairly express the dominant idea of that great class whose vote exercises so powerful a control in our economic system.

I am yours truly, C. B. Newbold.

Philadelphia, February 19.

DEFECTIVE TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is with dismay that many a student now sees the character and trustworthiness of faithful friends assaulted. The charges thus far made, however, can hardly be repelled, nor do I attempt the defence of the "Bohn translations"; but is not the phrase a little too general? The "Bohn translations" were made by between fifty and a hundred different men, and the presence in the list of such names as William Hazlitt, George Long, and Charles Rann Kennedy, not to mention other well-known scholars, ought at least to save the series from wholesale condemnation, whatever faults may be found in many of the versions. The defects of the "Bohn translations" are not so much defects of that series as weaknesses common to that kind of literary work. Allow me to present a few examples which far surpass in ludicrousness any that have been culled from "Bohn."

Some time ago a French writer, in treating upon the religious condition of this country, made some observations upon "Bob" Ingersoll. Among other things it was remarked that he was *spirituel.* The Springfield *Republican* quoted the criticism, and gravely and ingenuously informed its readers that Bob Ingersoll was spiritual.

The translator of Amicis's work on Holland went to work with great boldness, which, unhappily, was not seconded by any acquaintance with Holland or by adequate knowledge of Italian. Amicis naturally has many references to the *cataratti* (sluicegates) that are so common. Now it would be a curious speculation to

imagine the impressions of the various readers of the English as they meet with constant remarks about the "cataracts" in Holland, until the climax is reached with the vast "cataracts" at the mouths of the Rhine.

In Daudet's 'Les Rois en Exil,' at the close of a meeting of the French Academy, many of the audience who have been led into day-dreaming by the speech of the "Noble Fitz-Roy" find, instead of imaginary carriages with footmen awaiting them, merely the rain pouring down amid "le fracas des omnibus et le carnavalesque bouquin des tramways." In the translation of this novel, published in Boston, the last phrase is rendered, "the carnival din of steam-cars." The general term "din" completely misses the realistic touch in "bouquin." "Steam-cars" is obviously an oversight, and not a misconception. In the same book "orgues de Barbarie" is translated "organs from Barbary." In 'Numa Roumestan,' at a resort of Southern Frenchmen, one of the southerners asks in his broad accent for some "lemonade," saying, "Garçon, dé gazeuse"; this the same translator ingeniously renders, "Waiter, a thimbleful of *gazeuse*." Earlier in 'Numa' occurs this passage: "Rochemaure, . . . élevé chez les Pères de l'Assomption, . . . et gardant de son éducation, des candeurs, des timidités de lévite en contraste avec sa royale Louis XIII., l'air à la fois d'un raffiné et d'un jocrisse." In this passage the Boston translator speaks of "a royal Louis XIII. air," while the translator of the Seaside Library edition paraphrases the lines thus: "Possesses a natural candor and timid levity which contrasted strangely with his Louis XIII. air."

But the following from the Boston translator is by far the most astonishing of my examples: Daudet refers to the Prince of Axel in 'Les Rois en Exil' as "cet esprit engourdi et lourd que les vins de France . . . n'étaient pas plus parvenues à mettre en branle que la fermentation de la vendange ne gonfle et n'enlève en aérostat un foudre pesant cerclé de fer." This is done into English as follows: "That heavy, torpid mind which the wines of France . . . succeeded in stirring no better than the fermentation of the vintage can swell and raise a heavy thunderbolt into a balloon!" The mistake here is at once so simple and so tremendous that it seems almost inexplicable. But I should mislead if I left the impression that these Boston translations of Daudet are poor; on the contrary, the work is done with vivacity, taste, and general accuracy, so far as I can judge. The general character of the work is so good that these slips are exceedingly surprising.

So much translation is done to earn a scanty living, and so much as a labor of love for no return, that we should be thankful for what we get, though we have to keep our eyes open; and we should not be too severe in our criticism, remembering that the most masterly translation in the language contains a number of curious errors, which have been pointed out by men probably far inferior to the translators in capacity.

E. G. Bourne.

New Haven, February 20.

PRIMITIVE COLOR PREFERENCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Garner, in his attempt to account for color preferences, or rather to controvert Mr. Sproull's theory, allows himself to be drawn into misstatement of one of the most important in the whole range of facts connected with this subject. Children and savages, whose æsthetic sensations are crude and uncultivated, like best brilliant colors, especially red, as do people whose tastes never go beyond the childish or barbaric state; but it is missing the point and pith of all cultivation to suppose that the preference for quieter and more harmonious colors depends in the least on "the dictates of fashion," and equally far from true that "whatever we most clearly and distinctly perceive will impress us most, and the pleasure or pain attendant upon our sensations will be proportionate to their distinctness of perception." If Mr. Garner knew anything of the higher forms of art, he would not have arrived at such a conclusion, for the work of every great colorist disproves it. Artists are, as a general thing, of all men least governed by fashion, and the higher the art of a painter, the more offensive to him are "loud" colors. Uncultivated, and therefore insensitive, taste enjoys the impression of decided and positive colors; but cultivation, while it weakens the hold of "fashion" and brings individuality of taste, makes the mind more susceptible to the impression of subdued and broken colors in harmony. If this were not so, all art would be impossible so far as color is concerned, and the analogy will hold good in all the elements of art. It is not fashion, but cultivation (*i. e.*, development of the powers of perception), which rejects the crude, and, going further, finds more beauty in the subtler and more refined qualities of color. In this respect fashion is antagonistic to taste, firstly, because the people who have the most taste are the least subject to the "dictates of fashion," and secondly, because true taste is conservative and does not like extreme changes, while fashion is dependent on them. Taste is individual, fashion gregarious, so that while people of taste form their own fashions, fashion forms people of no taste.

A leading French author—I think About—tried a most interesting experiment with one of his workmen, wishing to ascertain how far taste was a matter of habit. He had engaged to give him his dinner, and after some days, during which he had supplied him with the customary bottle of ordinary wine, he pretended to have run out of it and gave him a fine Bordeaux. At first the workman protested—he preferred the rough taste of the ordinary article; but when, after a few days of the Bordeaux, About went back to the original drink, the workman put it aside as undrinkable. Whether this be the case as a law in the preference of the palate, it is certainly true in the cultivation of the artistic perceptions and sensations.

No investigation of one branch of æsthetic impressions can be safely investigated separately—there must be one law for all; and the statement of this law must be the basis of more specialized investigations.—Yours truly,

W. J. Stillman.

New York, February 18.

Notes.

An edition of Bryant's poem, 'The Unknown Way,' illustrated; 'The Celestial Country'; and a little book of selections, called 'Friend to Friend,' are among the Easter announcements of E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Edward Roth, Philadelphia, has issued the sixth part of his 'Complete Index to Littell's *Living Age*,' reaching the name of Henry Noad in the biographical division.

The second edition of 'Methods of Teaching and Studying History,' edited by Prof. G. Stanley Hall (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.), is in large measure a new work. Dr. Diesterweg's "Instruction in History" has been omitted, as having meantime been published separately; and the list of contributors now contains no foreign name except that of Professor Seeley. Among the fresh writers are Prof. Ephraim Emerton, on "The Practical Method in Higher Historical Instruction"; Dr. Richard T. Ely, on "Methods of Teaching Political Economy"; Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, on "The Use of a Public Library in the Study of History"; and Mr. Joseph Thacher Clarke, with his "Plea for Archæological Instruction." As a book of reference, the value of this work still lies largely in the second portion, which contains not only Prof. W.F. Allen's bibliographical guide, but a bibliography of Church History, by the Rev. John Alonzo Fisher. We judge from the preface that the editor's expectation of making this the first volume of a "Pedagogical Library" is not likely to be realized. Attention should be called to an error in the last line on page viii, where "1844" stands for 1884.

A third volume has been added to Mr. Edward T. Mason's 'Personal Traits of British Authors' (Scribners). It includes Scott, Hogg, Campbell, Chalmers, Wilson, De Quincy, and Jeffrey. We have already sufficiently characterized this series.

The proposed changes in the requirements for admission to Harvard give a certain timeliness to Circular No. 7 of the Bureau of Education upon the teaching of physics in primary and secondary schools. Professor Charles K. Wead, of the University of Michigan, has here collated the replies of seventy-three instructors in answer to a circular letter of inquiry sent out by the Bureau, and has added a chapter upon the position which physics holds in primary and secondary education in France, Germany, and England. There is evidently a demand for uniformity in the college requirements in this matter.

The paper read some time since by Dr. Chas. W. Dabney, jr., before the Watauga Club of Raleigh, N. C., upon the necessity of establishing industrial schools in order to lead to the utilization of the State's remarkable timber resources, has attracted much attention, and greatly strengthened the memorial of this club, addressed to the State Legislature now in session, for the establishment of such a school. Dr. Dabney claims for North Carolina 120 of the 338 kinds of timber found in the United States, and declares that these include the best and finest of ornamental woods. Notwithstanding this, North Carolina is entirely wanting in any manufactories of wood of more than local importance.

The notable article in *Outing* for March is that descriptive of the new house of the Massachusetts Bicycle Club in Boston. A gymnasium is one of the features of this well-appointed establishment.

In a note on Dr. Rây's 'Cholera and its Treatment' (*Nation*, No. 1001) we remarked: "Chlorinated lime is distinctly not fit to disinfect choleraic discharges, as recommended. Such disinfection requires an acid, not an alkaline agent." We had in mind that such discharges retain their virulence longest in alkaline media. It is proper now to say that very recent experiments by Dr. Sternberg appear to demonstrate that, by virtue of the hypochlorite of lime contained in good commercial "chloride of lime," the latter becomes an effective germicide when applied in solution. If the cause of cholera is a bacillus, this old agent thus applied may destroy it. It remains true, however, that lime, although useful as an oxidizer, is presumably a not powerful disinfectant *per se*, that the chlorine emitted has no influence upon the cholera-cause, and that to scatter chloride of lime with the view of "purifying the air" is futile. Corrosive sublimate in solution is probably the cheapest and best disinfectant available.

The bringing over of emigrants in sailing vessels is so much a thing of the past that it is ten years since the last instance was recorded by the Deutsche Gesellschaft of this city. So we read in the 101st annual report of this useful society. It is also remarked that while the arrivals at the port of New York fell off about 20 per cent. in

1884, the proportion of Bohemians, Hungarians, and Russians increased some 40 per cent., forming about one-ninth of the total. A larger number than usual betook themselves to California, Dakota, Indiana, Kansas, and Texas. The new comers were so far from being paupers that they exchanged at Castle Garden alone $1,253,057 (a smaller sum than the year before); and the railroads annually sell at the same place from $3,000,000 to $4,000,000 worth of tickets.

A paper of a class which cannot be very numerous—the *Record*, organ (shall we say?) of the First Presbyterian Church, Morristown, N. J.—begins in its current monthly issue Part II. of a history of that Church, in instalments. The feature of this is a register of communicants, their wives, husbands, and children from 1742 to 1885—a considerable genealogical undertaking.

"School and Fireside" is the title of a little series of selections of modern French plays and novelettes just begun to be edited by M. Jules Lévy, whose monthly periodical *Le Français* we have so often had occasion to praise. Henry Meilhac's one-act comedy, "La Duchesse Martin," is chosen to lead off. M. Lévy's notes are calculated for almost any class of students. The publisher is Carl Schoenhof, Boston.

Two plays of Alfred de Musset's, "On ne badine pas avec l'amour" and "Fantasio," have been bound together in the Clarendon Press Series (Oxford). Mr. Walter Herries Pollock furnishes a sketch of Musset's life (which is defective in giving no account of the poet's father), introductions to both plays, and notes to the second. Mr. George Saintsbury contributes an essay on the progress of French comedy, which is much the best of the English matter.

One of the last labors of the late Paul Lacroix was to set in order the scattered articles and parts of articles by the late Édouard Fournier, relating to Molière, his life, works, and theatrical interpreters. This doubly posthumous collection, 'Études sur la vie et les œuvres de Molière,' has just been published, with a brief preface by M. Auguste Vitu, the dramatic critic of the *Figaro*. M. Vitu is as fervent a Molièrist as were MM. Fournier and Lacroix, but he is saner and more strict in his application of scientific methods. It is pleasant to see that he agrees with Mr. Andrew Lang in rejecting the noisome theory that Molière's wife was the daughter of Madeleine Béjart.

The *Revue Historique* for January prints, for the first time, the full text of the "Petition of the Protestants of France to Louis XIV." This famous document, hitherto only known from the analysis given in Benoît's 'History of the Edict of Nantes,' was from the pen of Claude, the leading Huguenot pastor. Written at a time when the persecution of the Reformed Church had become well-nigh intolerable and there were great fears that the revocation of the edict was imminent, it is, nevertheless, a calm, dignified, and respectful appeal to the King, setting forth the condition of his Protestant subjects in a simple but pathetic statement of facts. No reference is made to the principle of the irrevocability of the edict, though many of the leading Protestants were strenuous that this should be done. Claude maintained, however, that it was unwise to remind Louis that there were limits to his sovereign power. The petition was presented in January, 1685, and, it is hardly necessary to add, received no attention, even if it actually reached the King. As a faithful picture of the condition of the Huguenots at that time, the document has great value. It is printed from a copy preserved in the Archives Nationales, and is edited with numerous notes by M. F. Puaux.

H. Gaidoz, noticing, in *Polybiblion*, Mohr's bibliography of typographical centenaries ('Die Jubelfeste der Buchdruckerkunst und ihre Literatur,' Vienna, Jasper, 117 pp. 8vo), points out that among the twenty celebrations not one was held in France. Germany, Holland, Belgium, England, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Sweden, Russia, have all had their festivals; France has done nothing. In fact, in the matter of early printing she has not very much to boast of. She has early-printed books—that is, as early as 1470—but the art was introduced by foreigners, and, what is peculiarly distasteful just now, the first Parisian printers, Gering, Franz, and Friburger, were Germans, and so were most of their early successors.

The *Athenæum* for February 7 prints an invitation to an international competition in automatic engraving, by a committee headed by Mr. W. Blades. Subjects in pen-and-ink, line-engraving, drawing in wash, and photography (of sculpture, landscape, and portrait), have been selected for treatment by all the "processes" alike, and can be obtained on application to J. S. Hodson, Hon. Secretary, at Gray's Inn Chambers, 20 High Holborn, W. C. The time seems rather limited, as the jury will award its prizes upon a private view in April next, when the inevitable public exhibition at South Kensington will follow.

Mr. John M. Cook, well known to most travellers in Egypt, has been employed by the Government in organizing the transportation service of the Nile expedition. In an address before the Royal Geographical Society, immediately after his return to England, he stated that on completing his special work he ascended the river as far as Dongola, and that "although he had been travelling on the Nile for sixteen years, he had not the most remote idea of the enormous difficulties to be encountered, or he should have hesitated running some of the risks he had to run if he had been able to foresee them." The Government survey, in anticipation of the expedition, though by competent naval officers, was made at high water, and consequently when the troops passed up there were four or five dangerous cataracts, between the second and third cataracts, which were not laid down on the maps. His boat, the only one besides the whalers which succeeded in getting from the lower Nile to Dongola, was but 24 feet long, 6 feet 6 inches beam, and drawing 20 inches of water, and yet "at five different points [in 74 miles] it required 170 men in addition to his own crew to pull it through the cataracts, and at one point 75 Dongolese had to be employed in addition." This was the principal reason of the delay in the concentration of the troops at Dongola.

The latest additions to the Tauchnitz collection are Mark Twain's 'Adventures of Huckleberry Finn' and Mr. F. Marion Crawford's 'An American Politician.'

Among the most recent numbers of the collection of foreign novelists published in Paris by Hachette & Cie., is 'La Passagère de l'Aroostook,' translated by Mme. Marie Dronsart from the English of Mr. W. D. Howells.

"Hugh Conway's" 'Dark Days' has now reached a circulation in England of nearly two hundred thousand copies—surpassing that of 'Called Back.' Mr. Lang's clever parody, 'Much Darker Days,' is nearing its twenty-fifth thousand.

Mr. Christern sends us the prospectus of an Atlas of China, with orographical and geologic maps on a scale of 1 : 750,000, to accompany Baron Richthofen's classic work (1877-1882) on that country (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer). The first part will deal with Northern China, the subject of Richthofen's second volume. The price will be twenty-four marks for twelve maps, constituting the first half of Part I. Fourteen will follow. The Atlas will finally include a general map of China on a scale of 1 : 3,000,000.

The news of Mrs. James Russell Lowell's death will be received with deep sympathy by all Mr. Lowell's friends in both hemispheres. The state of her health has, in fact, clouded nearly the whole period of his residence abroad. She had a desperate illness, lasting many months, while he was in Spain, and her recovery was never sufficiently complete to enable her to share the brilliant social activity which has marked his life in London. She was only able to be presented to the Queen at a private reception specially arranged for her. She was a woman of many gifts and much cultivation, and was probably the critic whom during the last twenty-five years he has in his literary work most heeded.

The late John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D., editor of the *Pacific Coast Law Reporter*, and the head of the Faculty of the Hastings Law School of San Francisco, in 1865 published 'An Introduction to Municipal Law,' and in 1868 followed this with another, 'An Introduction to Constitutional Law.' Both these books passed through several editions, and were adopted as text-books in a number of leading universities. In 1876 he published a treatise on 'Remedies and Remedial Rights,' under the reformed practice, which is regarded as of high authority. His greatest work, however, is 'Equity Jurisprudence,' in three large octavo volumes, published in San Francisco in 1881. Dr. Pomeroy contributed numerous articles to 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia,' and was for many years a valued contributor to the *Nation*.

Mr. John Fiske begins at Chickering Hall on March 3 a series of thirteen lectures on "The Story of the American Revolution." Few American lecturers are so well equipped as Mr. Fiske; fewer still, perhaps, have a greater natural gift for interesting an audience.

—We are able to recall no month whose magazines were so exclusively American in their themes as are those for March. From the article of Mr. John Fiske, in *Harper's*, which shows that it is only a question of time—and a short time, too—when the English race shall have crowded out of individual existence all other peoples of the earth, with the possible exception of the Russians and the Chinese, to the description, in the same magazine, of an obscure Virginian town, this national, or at least racial, pæan is almost uninterrupted. Besides the articles we have mentioned, *Harper's* has an interesting account of Jefferson's habits, founded on his financial diary, a slight but agreeable description of some new Washington houses, which are termed throughout the text, as well as in the title, "homes"—as though "home" connoted no other idea than that of the roof which shelters us—and, in "The Cape Ann Quarries," an example of the deadly-lively, hop-and-skip kind of article which, we supposed, was long since extinct, or else appeared only in "Lady's Books." Mr. John Bigelow, who wrote the *Harper* article on Jefferson, appears in the *Century* with recollections of Charles O'Conor, while the national glory is further propitiated by reminiscences of Webster. Those who are willing occasionally to exercise their thinking faculties in magazine-reading may find the best American article of the month to be that in the *Atlantic* on the historical position of the Supreme Court, to which the author has given the misleading title of "The Consolidation of the Colonies." Our industrial progress, especially that of the Southern States, is agreeably set forth in *Lippincott's*, in connection with the New Orleans Exhibition, by Mr. E. C. Bruce, whose successful papers on the Philadelphia Exhibition our readers may remember. The *Atlantic* has two biographical articles, each good in its way, the one a continuation of the series on Madame Mohl, the other a résumé, by Mrs. C. B. Martin, of a Russian account of the mo-

ther of Turgeneff, written by her adopted daughter. It is singularly interesting and pathetic, reading not unlike one of Turgeneff's stories, and exhibiting, incidentally or accidentally, the state of human wretchedness from which was derived his sad disposition as well as the pathos of his tales. To the three horses, in the shape of serial novels, which the *Atlantic* has been driving abreast, is added, in this number, a fourth; for a novel, and not, as one would infer from the title, a series of Autocrat papers, the "New Portfolio" turns out to be. Dr. Holmes drops a hint that it is to have a distinctly psychological or physiological motive.

— The fight of the *Monitor* and *Merrimac* was so notable an event in the general history of naval warfare as well as in our own civil war that romantic associations gather easily about it. The story is admirably told on both sides in the *Century* by men who had prominent places in the engagement, and with a directness and modesty beyond praise. Lieutenant Wood gives us, from the Confederate standpoint, the easy triumph over the "wooden walls" —the *Congress* and the *Cumberland*—on the first day, and the awakening on the next to the fact that they had a "very hard nut to crack" in the *Monitor*. He thinks the sheering off by the national vessel after Captain Worden was injured, was evidence of a willingness to quit, and relieves the retiring of the *Merrimac* to Norfolk from the charge of retreating. He throws quite new light on the subsequent destruction of the vessel, by a detailed statement of the reasons which led first to lightening her till her unprotected sides below the armor plating were exposed, and then to abandoning her, when the pilots, at whose instance she had been put out of condition to fight, now refused to take her up the James River within the Confederate lines. Commander Green, of the *Monitor*, tells first of the perilous voyage from New York to Fortress Monroe, in which officers and crew were nearly exhausted in the effort to preserve a vessel made only as a harbor battery, and wholly unsuited to weather a heavy sea. He then gives the dramatic scene of her arrival in Hampton Roads in the midst of the dismay caused by the terrible *Merrimac* on the first day, and the all-night labor of the ship's company in preparing her for action. Thus reduced almost to the point of exhaustion, they fought their ship through the whole morning, having decidedly the advantage till the pilot-house was shattered and the wounding and blinding of Worden made a short interval before Mr. Green could fully assume command, during which the ship moved out of action. Heading for her enemy again, the *Merrimac* was seen to be retiring, and a few parting shots were sent after her. A novel and interesting point is Mr. Green's description of the turret during the fight, and the confusing effect of the revolving of the turret upon its occupants, whose means of outlook were so small that it was very difficult to tell at what point to stop the revolution and fire the guns. General Colston's article, describing the scene from the shore and from a small boat, helps to make up a very complete interior and exterior picture of the fight. The illustrations, without an exception, afford real helps to the reader in understanding the narratives, and a wholesome stimulus to his imagination. The "Recollections of a Private" also strike us as fully up to the standard of former numbers.

—The illustrations of *Harper's* include a number of portraits of the Royal House of Orange which illustrate what seems to be the growing tendency of our school of wood-engraving in work of this class—to sacrifice all the qualities of form to an imitation of texture. This might be appropriate to the reproduction of paintings, but would even there only represent superficial qualities. The vital facts of form and structure are more and more lost sight of in the pursuit of the secondary qualities which do not belong to nature, but to the technique of art. The style of cutting which represents well enough the values and textures of an oil portrait, is even employed in reproducing a photograph, where it has not the least excuse. The leading portraits of the *Century* fall under this same censure. The rotten texture which may well enough be supposed to represent the impasto of a vigorous brush, has no relation to the subtle gradations of a photograph, and translates nothing. This kind of work for portraits is all wrong, and grows worse year by year. The illustrations of General Colston's article on the Sudan will, however, restore the equanimity of the believers in our school of wood-cutting. In the "Open-letter" department Mrs. Van Rensselaer takes to task Dr. Coan for his ideas of Courbet as an artist, in a reply which only shows that she has no better idea of the artist than she conceived Dr. Coan to have had. Courbet was a "prime mover" in no revolution in art—he was an innovator only as every man of intense individuality is an innovator; but the idea of classing him and Millet together as the "first champions of what we call—rather vaguely and incorrectly—'realism' in art," shows total ignorance not only of the history of French art, but of the true character of the art of both Millet and Courbet. These men had almost nothing in common—in the motive of their art absolutely nothing—nor can they be placed in the same category of painters.

—The *Art Journal* for March is not, so far as its illustrations go, an advance on past numbers, which it must be to be good. An elaborate article entitled "In Arden" is based on the assumption that the forest of Arden, the scene of "As You Like It," is an English forest of that name, for which there is absolutely no warrant. The play is French in its story, and nothing points to an English locality, and even the only allusion to England—"and there they live like the old Robin Hood of England"—is foreign in its drift. The most interesting contribution, from the literary point of view, is one on Fuseli, by Wilfrid Meynell, in which excellent use is made of a copy of that painter's literary works owned by Dante Rossetti, and inscribed by him with marginal comments on the ideas of Fuseli. An article on Defregger, by Beavington Atkinson, is one of the commonplace attempts at apotheosis of the commonplace in painting; and another, by Frederick Wedmore, on Chardin, shows that the highest claims to technical distinction of that long-neglected painter (who, by the way, was a favorite of J. F. Millet), have entirely escaped his commentator, who makes simply a piece of padding of material apparently sifted from French authorities, and uninformed by any personal knowledge of the painter's work. The *Magazine of Art* has an account of the Ansidei Raphael—which will, to the general world, be known as the highest-priced picture in the world; and padding articles on the studio of Mr. Holl, and on Nicolas Poussin. More interesting is "Early Sculptured Stones in England," though the exactness of observation of the writer is not made evident by his description of a "Saxon dandy taking a sitting shot with a cross-bow," when there is no suspicion of a cross-bow in the illustration, but a good Saxon bow and arrow. How Signora Villari comes to say, in her "Temple and Tomb," "we all know how Dion the historian, writing in 729 B. C., tells us that Agrippa perfected the Pantheon in that year," is not easy to see; but it is clear that the magazine wants editing. The *Studio* picks up Mr. Gosse's kind approbation of our architecture in the *Critic* with a surprising mildness of comment. We should have expected something more pungent than this: "Mr. Gosse's remarks do not show much of the critical faculty." The *Portfolio* opens with a notable etching of a Street in Rouen, with a glimpse of the cathedral, by Lalanne; and the third etching, of Landseer's "King Charles Spaniels," well known by the engraving, is accompanied by an interesting study on Landseer by F. G. Stephens.

—The celebration, last August, of the 250th anniversary of the incorporation of the town of Ipswich, Mass., has produced one of the best of the numerous records of such occasions, now multiplying yearly. The publishers (Little, Brown & Co.) and the press (John Wilson & Son) guarantee the beautiful appearance of the pamphlet before us, which is, moreover, illustrated in the best manner with interesting and even charming photographic views of the town, of its founder (John Winthrop, jr.), of the older houses, etc. Ipswich was settled under the best auspices and with peculiar selectness, and besides its associations with the Winthrop family it points to Mrs. Anne Bradstreet, the first New England poetess: the Rev. John Norton, author of the first Latin book published in America; the Rev. Nathaniel Ward, author of the Puritan classic 'The Simple Cobbler of Agawam'; Richard Saltonstall, author of what a descendant is inclined to think the first anti-slavery petition on record; Nathan Dane, the father of the Northwest Ordinance; and Rufus Choate. Mr. Blaine was also "claimed" as a townsman by one of the poets of the anniversary, on the strength of his having married a descendant of two of the families among the original colonists. "Mother Ipswich" loquitur:

> "And thou, O Desire of the Nation, loved from the sea to the sea,
> High above stain as a star, still upward thy pathway be!
> By thy blood of the stately Midland, by thy strength of the Northern Pine,
> By the sacred fire bright on thy hearthstone, I name thee, and claim thee mine."

By a curious coincidence, Mr. Blaine's letter to the committee is followed by one from Commissioner Dudley of the Pension Bureau, whose maternal grandfather was an inhabitant of Ipswich in the last century.

—Great men are no longer bred in Ipswich any more than in most other New England towns, but the civic virtues have remained, and public spirit has grown at a faster rate than the slowly ascending population. Here, as elsewhere, one sees a native of the place making his fortune at a distance and sending part of it back in the shape of an educational endowment. Thus the old Latin School, founded in 1651, becomes the prosperous Manning School of to-day. Ipswich has escaped the great transformation which manufactures and the consequent influx of a foreign element have caused in other Massachusetts towns. It is still rural and picturesque, and easily cherishes its abundant old-time legends. The historical address of the day, by the Rev. John C. Kimball, sets all this forth very pleasantly, and in a style, both thoughtful and literary, above the level of similar performances. Mr. Leverett Saltonstall was also among the speakers, and recalled the fact that at the 250th celebration of Governor Endicott's landing in Salem (in 1628), there were present descendants of the four settlers whom Endicott found on the spot, who still lived in Salem and bore the name of their ancestors; as well as descendants of Governor Winthrop and Sir Richard Saltonstall, whom Endicott received in Salem in 1630. This is a good example of the endurance of the Puritan stock. As for Puritan longevity, Mr. Saltonstall could tell of having heard the late Thomas H. Perkins say, thirty or forty years ago, that "in his youth he had seen an old man who had conversed with Peregrine White, the first child born in the Plymouth Colony."

—M. Clermont-Ganneau, who, when the sharper Shapira was trying to delude the British Museum

into buying his wonderfully early codex of Deuteronomy, routed the wily Jew horse and foot, while the learned expert employed by the Museum was still occupied in getting his batteries into position, has published a book of more than three hundred pages on 'Les Fraudes archéologiques en Palestine,' in which he gives an account of those which he has unmasked. It is very entertaining reading, for M. Clermont-Ganneau has a bright style, and there is plenty of material to deal with. For there are even more false than true inscriptions in the Holy Land—only seven authentic inscriptions earlier than the taking of Jerusalem by Titus (six of them discovered by M. Ganneau himself); but M. Ganneau enumerates and describes the false stele of the Temple, the false inscription of Selovân, the seal of King David, the sarcophagus of Samson, the lamp of Barcochebas, to say nothing of the Moabite potteries at Berlin, the manuscript of Deuteronomy that came near being at London, and various Phœnician monuments to be found in the museums at Vienna, London, and Paris. The pecuniary reward of forgery is so great when successful, that it would be too much to hope that we have seen the end of it; but M. Ganneau's book will put the public a little more on its guard, show them some of the methods of detection, hinder somewhat the falsification of history, and prevent Syrian epigraphy from being entirely discredited.

—The undated globe-map containing the name "America" recently discovered by Baron Nordenskiöld has been issued in facsimile by the American Geographical Society (Bulletin No. 4, 1884), together with a translation of the article upon it which the discoverer contributed to the Journal of the Swedish Society of Anthropology and Geography. The map consists of twelve gores adapted for pasting upon a four-inch globe, and was probably compiled at Ingolstadt. The Old World is the same as in the Sylvanus-Ptolemy map of 1511. The New World is conceived as it appears upon the globes of Schoner of 1515 and 1520. It lies close against Japan, with the bulky island of South America separated from the strip that does duty for North America, by that famous strait which would have abrogated the Clayton-Bulwer treaty by anticipation, had the early map-makers had their way. Inscriptions are few. The discovery of South America is assigned to 1497, but no discoverer is named. *Terra Cubæ* is placed north of Florida, while Cuba is blank. The Stobnicza map (1512) first made this mistake, placing *Isabella* on the mainland. Schoner muddled matters still more in 1520 by restoring *Isabella* to Cuba, but placing *Cuba* on the mainland. Münster in 1532 agrees in error with the new map. Against San Domingo we read: *Spagnolla ins—in qua reperit—lignū guaiac—*.

—The first dated representations of the New World bearing the name "America" were the globe of Schoner and the map of Apianus in 1520. Prior to those, out of some forty maps and globes, "America" is found upon the following only, which are undated: The two Hauslab globes (1509?, 1513?); the Tross globe-map (1514?); the "Da Vinci" sketch (1513-14?, 1515-16?); the two Schoner globes (1515). Does the new map belong in this list? Baron Nordenskiöld thinks that it is "one of the very oldest maps where the name 'America' is to be found." Dr. Wieser, noting that the *Spagnolla* inscription is found on Apianus's map of 1520 and not elsewhere, assigns the new map to that geographer, and places it later than 1527. Against the latter view militates the fact that the delineation is quite different from that of Apianus. On the other hand, the medicinal properties of guaiacum wood (the lignum-vitæ of commerce) were first enlarged upon in Germany about 1517-1519. As this map-maker probably had a Spanish correspondent, the fame of the new drug may, however, have reached him by that channel. The termination of South America in a point about 45° S. lat. has no chronological significance. The most that can be said is, that the Nordenskiöld map was made up from the Sylvanus-Ptolemy map of 1511, and the 1515 globe of Schoner, or a like work, with some changes, good and bad (*e. g.*, Yucatan is a peninsula; Cuba has an inch-worm shape, quite *sui generis*). It may be safely assigned to the period 1515-1518; it may, with equal safety, be remanded to the second quarter of the century, as it is not a whit cruder than the map perpetrated by Münster in 1532. The names are printed with registered type. The first specimen of this practice is in the Sylvanus-Ptolemy map of 1511.

—We have been informed that Mr. Woodrow Wilson, whose 'Congressional Government' we lately reviewed, has accepted the Chair of History in the Bryn Mawr College for Women. Mr. Wilson, our readers may be pleased to hear, is a product of the new South, a nephew of the Rev. Dr. Woodrow of whom we have recently made frequent mention, a graduate of Princeton (class of '79), and an alumnus (not a graduate) of the Law School of the University of Virginia. While yet an undergraduate he contributed to the *International Review* in 1879 an article of considerable thoughtfulness on "Cabinet Government in the United States," which was followed by the article in the *Overland Monthly* for January, 1884, to which reference was made in our review. These were the precursors of the recently published book, but, in addition to these, Mr. Wilson has made occasional contributions to the newspapers and to college magazines. While attending the Law School of the University of Virginia he was elected editor of the Magazine, and wrote for it two articles, one on John Bright and the other on Gladstone, which established at once for him a high reputation at that institution, and came very near securing its most coveted prize—the Magazine medal. Subsequently, while engaged in the practice of his profession in Atlanta, Georgia, he furnished to the *Evening Post* several very valuable letters on Southern topics. He has now been for two sessions at Johns Hopkins, pursuing a course of History and Political Science. We understand that in Washington his book is being eagerly read by Congressmen, and that its study is generally urged by instructors upon their pupils.

—One of the prettiest stories in the 'Arabian Nights' is that in which the Fairy Maimouna and the Afrite Danhash dispute about the comparative beauty of their two protégés, Prince Camaralzaman and the Princess Badoura. The doubt is settled by bringing them together asleep, and alternately waking each to see which will be most inflamed with love at the sight of the other. Madame Y must have thought that she had been subjected to some such test when, on arriving home from a long, solitary railway journey, during which she had slept all night, her husband inquired with indignation how it was that one of her boots was a man's. She could give no explanation, and the end of a lively quarrel was an action for divorce on the part of the suspicious husband. At the very same time Monsieur X was vainly trying to get his wife to believe the story by which he attempted to excuse the presence on his right foot of a lady's boot, on his return from a night trip on the same railway. He asseverated in vain that on boarding the train from a way station he had been shown into a coupé occupied by a solitary lady asleep; that as his boots were painfully tight he had drawn them off and had gone to sleep himself; that on waking he found himself near his journey's end, hurriedly hunted up his boots, and put them on as best he could, but that he found it almost impossible to pull on the right one; that, although he succeeded and jumped out of the carriage, leaving the lady asleep, he found it impossible to make a single step with his right foot and had to ride home. His wife pooh-poohed the story, and another suit for divorce was the consequence. Luckily both plaintiffs applied to the same lawyer, who was honest enough to set the whole matter in its right light. The two couples were reconciled, and are going to live happily ever after.

—Dr. Hans Meyer, a son of the publisher of Meyer's 'Conversations-Lexikon,' has just published through his father's firm (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Westermann) an attractive book, 'Eine Weltreise: Plaudereien aus einer zweijährigen Weltumsegelung 1881-1883.' The book seems to come up to Lady Montagu's standard for a book of travels, recently quoted in the *Nation*, giving "true intelligence from distant countries," as the author is one of "those who have passed [time in] them without a design of publishing their remarks." It is mainly a reprint of the author's letters to his family and friends, is privately printed but not published, and has all the charm of such communications, coming from an enthusiastic young man well equipped for observation and scientific research, and of a literary turn of mind. Starting by way of Vienna, down the Danube, our author stopped at Constantinople and Athens, passed through Syria and Egypt, touched Bombay, Ceylon, Java, Manila, and travelled extensively in the Philippine Islands to many places not hitherto trodden by the foot of Europeans. From the seaports of China and Japan he went to San Francisco, Mexico, Cuba; and, after visiting the East and West of the United States, sailed from New York to Bremen. The book is well written and handsomely illustrated by cuts from photographs taken by the author, and is altogether well worth reading. The obligatory remarks on things American are not, of course, wanting, nor is the characterization of the American lady, which is far from flattering; echoing, probably, the commonplace notions of some German friend. An amusing mistake (p. 476) may be noticed. Doctor Meyer describes how he loved to sit on one of the benches on Union Square opposite the Lincoln monument, musing over the famous inscription around its base: "With malice [toward none, with charity] for all." It so happened that the portion in brackets alone struck his eye, and, being short-sighted, he misread "toward" for "forward." Intent on giving the sentence "Forward none with charity" a meaning whether or no, and thereby making the excuse of a typographical error impossible, he translates it into German: "Help nobody along for charity's sake"—which, if a meaning it must have, is not so bad after all for "Old Abe."

—In the death of Peter Christian Asbjörnsen, which occurred on the 6th of January, at his home in Christiania, Norwegian literature has suffered a severe loss. He was born in that city on January 15, 1812, the son of a glazier, in narrow circumstances, who, however, appreciated his bright and gifted lad, and encouraged him to struggle to secure an education. Asbjörnsen succeeded in reaching the University of Norway in 1833, but was forced to leave, before taking a degree, to go up into the country as a private tutor, in order to replenish his slender purse. In 1837, however, he resumed his attendance, and, studying medicine, passed the so-called philological-philosophical examination. But it was more to his liking to study natural history, especially zoölogy, which science he taught to medical stu-

dents and also to classes in various schools. While thus engaged he published a 'Natural History for the Young,' so attractively written that it is supposed to have been influential in inciting to this study many of the most promising members of the present corps of Norwegian naturalists. He had delighted, even in his earliest manhood, and in his student days, in long foot-rambles through the forest regions, or up the mountain sides of his native country; and it was upon these journeys that he made the first accumulations of those "Norwegian Folk and Fairy Tales" which have made his name a familiar one in every civilized country, and which, as H. Gaidoz points out in the last number of *Mélusine*, have been translated into almost every cultivated language of Europe except the French. In 1842-43 he published his first series of stories; his friend the late Bishop Moe contributing to the volume the collection of similar stories made by him. It was the second edition of this work which Sir George Webbe Dasent printed under the title of 'Popular Tales from the Norse,' putting his own name upon the title-page, and nowhere in the book naming or referring to the real authors. From 1846 to 1853 Asbjörnsen's active labors were in the cause of science. It was during these years that he made various excursions to different parts of the coast of Norway, at the instance of the University, which paid him a stipend from its treasury; and his work was not without important results and valuable discoveries, especially in deep-sea life, in which field he was a pioneer explorer. But even while thus engaged he did not neglect any opportunity to gather from the lips of the country folk their beautiful stories; and many an excursion was undertaken solely for the purpose of adding to his collection. His delightful manner made him peculiarly successful in extracting from the shy peasants and boatmen their memorized tales, and he was aided greatly by his own power to tell a good story. His frequent journeys in different parts of Norway had given Asbjörnsen unusual opportunities to become impressed with the importance to his country of its great forest areas, and he was quick to see the need for systematized methods to prevent needless destruction and waste, and to encourage the cultivation of forest growths. His intelligent efforts to awaken interest in this direction were quickly recognized by the Norwegian Government, which twice sent him abroad, first to study the practical methods of forest culture in use in Germany and Austria, and second, to observe the methods employed in the preparation of turf for fuel in Denmark, Holland, and Hanover; and from 1856 to 1876 he was the active and responsible servant of the State in conducting the investigations and carrying out the measures instituted for the development and better utilization of forest products. In the latter year delicate health obliged him to tender his resignation, upon accepting which the Government allowed him a yearly pension of 800 crowns.

—The value of Asbjörnsen's work to Norwegian literature can hardly be overestimated. He uncovered the rich mine which has supplied the material so well used by the modern school of Norwegian writers, best known by its two great representatives Ibsen and Björnson. The latter has indeed said, when, as spokesman of the students' association, he addressed Asbjörnsen upon the occasion of his fifty-eighth birthday celebration: "Little should I have become, in truth, had you not existed." The effect of the publication of the several series of folk tales upon the literary language of Norway has still to be fully acknowledged, but it was great. It is as yet, perhaps, better appreciated by the philologist than by the mere man of letters. Professor Storm, in an elaborate article upon the present language movement in Norway, has said: "The real reformer who has brought the genuine, full-toned Norwegian style into the language of our literature, is the great story-teller Asbjörnsen. His whole tone is so truly that of the Norse people, and yet so pithy and natural, that every soundly constructed Norseman feels himself conquered and won by it. Ostensibly the form is Danish, but yet the whole, the *ensemble*, is genuine Norse." But the object nearest to Asbjörnsen's heart was the betterment of the condition of the common people of his native land, and the activity of his interest is evinced by the long list of distinct works and periodical contributions which he wrote, and in which he attempted to instruct his countrymen in the affairs of their daily life. How to care for their forests; how to plant their fruit trees; how best to cure their hay; how to prepare their turf for fuel; how to utilize their spare time in profitable wood-carving; how to cook their food sensibly—nothing was unimportant to the great-hearted philanthropist. Throughout the length and breadth of Norway his genial presence will be missed and his loss lamented.

—If we are not mistaken, there are now in the world an unusual number of still active and conspicuous scholars who have passed their eightieth year. The historians Bancroft and Ranke will occur to every reader. Hardly less known, at least to students of classical antiquity, is the Danish philologian and statesman, J. N. Madvig, who was born in 1804 and began to teach at the University of Copenhagen almost sixty years ago, in 1826. For several years now he has been almost entirely blind, and yet his labors continue. Three years ago (No. 868) we noticed the first volume of his new work on the Roman Constitution. That work is now complete, and an English translation of it has been, we understand, for some time in preparation. A sort of sequel to it has recently appeared in the shape of a third volume of the author's 'Adversaria Critica,' giving those corrections of Latin texts which occurred to him during the final revision of his constitutional studies. And within the past year have appeared almost simultaneously in French and in German new editions of his 'Greek Syntax.' This work, at the time of its first appearance—the preface of the first German edition is dated August, 1846—probably marked a greater advance at a single step than any other book of this century upon the same subject. The new edition shows changes mainly in detail: it was hardly to be expected of the author of such a system that he should deal roughly with it. German critics carp somewhat at small peculiarities in Madvig's use of German, but, none the less, his statements in German are marvellously clear. He must be a remarkable Hellenist who can learn nothing from the book. The new preface for the German edition gives expression, on the whole not very ungraciously, to the feeling that his work has been more used than praised in Germany, and perhaps even less used than it should have been. We are somewhat sceptical about the jealousy with which German scholars are often supposed to regard their brethren from the smaller neighboring states; but Madvig is not alone in his suspicion. Those who remember the old preface to the 'Greek Syntax' will regret not to find it reprinted in the new edition.

TAINE'S 'GOUVERNEMENT RÉVOLUTIONNAIRE.'

Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. Par H. Taine de l'Académie Française. La Révolution. Tome III.: Le Gouvernement Révolutionnaire. Paris: Hachette. New York: F. W. Christern. 1885.

TAINE'S 'Origines de la France Contemporaine' is sure to interest, and is equally certain not to satisfy, judicious readers. The importance of his work and the incompleteness of his theories need to be pressed with equal emphasis on the reading public. The importance of this elaborate treatise on the Revolution hardly admits of exaggeration. Taine's book, taken as a whole, is as thoroughgoing a piece of literary workmanship as human industry has ever produced. It is a repertory of facts which, by the mere force of cumulative evidence, not only smashes to pieces the wild exaggerations of the Revolutionary legend, but also irreparably damages the more sober but highly imaginative theory of the Revolution which was invented by the genius of Carlyle, and was spread far and wide throughout the English-speaking world by one of the most popular of the novels of Dickens. In the truth of the great dramatic work which the Scotch moralist put forward as at once a picture and a theory of the Revolution, no man who has read Taine with care can any longer seriously believe. Still less can any student of 'Le Gouvernement Révolutionnaire' look upon the 'Tale of Two Cities,' which is nothing more than a popular rendering of Carlyle's work, as a tale founded upon fact. The plain truth is, that Taine, who is neither an original thinker nor a powerful writer, has, by the mere strength of evidence, irreparably discredited the views of men who in intellect, and still more in imagination, are immeasurably his superiors.

We do not for a moment hold that Taine has spoken the last word, or anything like the last word, about the extraordinary epoch which he criticises. But we are absolutely convinced that he has spoken a word in season which must command the attention of every man of sense and honesty. Those of us who draw their ideas of the Revolutionary era directly or indirectly from Carlyle, will not find it necessary to accept all Taine's conclusions. Such men may even maintain (and with considerable plausibility) that Taine's pages give new proof of Carlyle's poetical insight into individual character. The chapter on Marat, Danton, and Robespierre, for example, contains very little but anecdotes which confirm the truth of the picture drawn by Carlyle of these Revolutionary leaders. But the moment you have mastered Taine, you feel that the Carlylean view of the Revolution, and still more the popular impressions derived from that view, must be revised. To see that this is so, one has little to do but to take the ideas which prevail among Englishmen as to the nature of the Revolution—notions not, perhaps, distinctly held by Carlyle himself, but nevertheless fostered by his teachings—and observe how ill they bear the tests of fact to which they and the like theories are submitted by Taine.

The assumption which lies at the foundation of the Revolutionary romance, whatever be the form or modifications of the legend, is that great crimes can only be committed by great criminals; that the Terrorists, though they must excite horror, yet must also command the respect or admiration due to men of colossal mould who, even in their errors, sin greatly. Now the first point proved by Taine, or rather by the evidence which he adduces, is, that meanness, cupidity, incompetence were the distinguishing marks of the Jacobin crew. Of their three leading men, Danton was the only one who possessed a claim to intellectual power. Their ideas were the worst notions of the *ancien régime*, pushed to an exaggeration to which they had never been carried by any King or minister. Oddly enough, the cruelty of the Revolutionists has saved their character for statesmanship. The horrors of the Reign of Terror—though, if Taine is not grossly mistaken in his figures, even these horrors are in modern days much underrated—have diverted attention from the meanness and incompetence

of the Terrorists. Of their moral meanness, Taine gives conclusive proofs, resting on a mass of details which, unfortunately, space prevents us from laying before our readers. The members of the dreaded Convention, the leaders of the Mountain itself, the men who sat in the committees of public safety, were themselves subject to the abject fear which they inspired in others. The surest evidence of this is the ease with which one section of Revolutionists after another forsook their leaders. The men who believed in Danton, in Hébert, and in Robespierre no sooner found that their hero was in peril than they betrayed and turned upon him. Cowardice does not necessarily imply corruption, but the Revolutionists of France appear in Taine's picture as corrupt as they were brutal and cowardly. We have read again and again the third chapter of Taine's third book, and, admitting as a candid critic must do, that Taine's attitude is rather that of an advocate than a judge, we are unable to deny that he in the main proves his charge that the Revolutionary administrators were influenced at least as much by greed as by ferocity. We would ask any reader who doubts this to read pp. 280-320, and especially the astounding account given at pp. 317-319 of the way in which one Parisian Revolutionary committee contrived to make (for the private gain, it would seem, of its members) somewhere about $30,000 a year out of a body of well-to-do prisoners, who were kept alive that they might be plundered. It is absolutely impossible to give the real force of Taine's evidence when one cannot produce the hundreds of details by which he carries conviction to all who will carefully study his pages. And we must ask our readers to take to a certain extent on trust the assertion that Taine does fully establish his accusation of corruption—not, of course, against every Revolutionist, but against an immense body of Jacobin officials and administrators.

True, men may be both cruel and corrupt, and yet not precisely mean. Nevertheless, the fact which the whole annals of the Revolution make abundantly clear is, that inhuman cruelty was, in the case of the Jacobins, constantly combined with even more astonishing abjectness. Macaulay pointed out years ago the incredible meanness of Barère; and persons who have not reflected on the demoralizing effect of revolutions, might well feel it almost past belief that one who had played a leading part in history, who had shared the Dictatorship of France, could sink into the meanest of detectives. Yet, though Barère was perhaps the most abject of a servile horde, a little knowledge of the history of the Terrorists shows that he was not so unlike his associates. Man after man among the Jacobins became the instrument of Napoleonic tyranny, and Taine gives instances of persons who had held the highest posts showing themselves willing, after a fall from power, to discharge the lowest of administrative functions. But "the great Terrorists," it will be said, "were men of a different stamp." Who can guarantee the truth of this assertion? Everything we know looks the other way. It was a mere chance who were to be the victors and who the victims in the life-and-death struggle between Robespierre and his opponents. There is not the least reason to suppose that the Jacobins who survived were essentially different from their companions who perished. Barère, David, and Fouché were, when Jacobinism was in vogue, thought stern patriots, yet they and hundreds more showed no repugnance to accept imperial honors, bribes, or charity. Victor Hugo's celebrated picture of the aged member of the Convention on his death-bed may possibly have been drawn from life. It were too grave a charge against human nature to believe that the Convention nurtured in its body nothing heroic. But one can confidently assert that it was a school not of Spartan virtue but of Greek suppleness. The aged representative of Republican virtue must, from the very fact of his having survived, have been forced to say with Sieyès, "J'ai vécu"; and no public man survived the rule of Robespierre who had not lived as a slave.

A second assumption of the Revolutionary legend, and one to which Carlyle has given the full weight of his authority, is that the reign of the Jacobins was at any rate the reign of men who, under the inspiration of passion, knew how to rule. The Terrorists might be devil-sent leaders, but yet, somehow or other, they were, it is supposed, true leaders of France. Now the slightest reflection shows that to the claim of violence to pass for strength there are patent objections. If the Reign of Terror saved France at all, it saved France at the cost of engendering a hatred of Republicanism fatal to the policy of fanatics who wished to found a Republic. The name not only of Danton but of every Republican leader was branded with infamy, and France was not made free. The broad fact, that the French somehow or other came out victorious in the contest with allied Europe—a fact to which, it must frankly be admitted, Taine does not give half the weight which it deserves—has so impressed popular imagination, that the world finds it difficult to believe that audacity and ill-doing were not in some way equivalent to statesmanlike sagacity. But Taine gives the gravest reason for doubting whether France did not triumph rather in spite of than through the violence of the Jacobins. That the men who composed the Jacobin faction were grossly ignorant, is past a doubt; and if we judge of the statesmanship of the party by the ordinary tests of political foresight, we shall be greatly tempted to believe that the criminality of a government gives no security against its incapacity.

To one point in Taine's criticism the attention of all intelligent students should be carefully directed. He examines with infinite care the economics of Jacobinism. The whole sect might have adopted as their motto a dictum of an English workingman, which some twenty years ago used to be cited as a proof of popular ignorance. "If political economy," said this intelligent artisan, "was against the workingmen, the workingmen would set themselves against political economy." Now, this is precisely the course pursued by the political zealots who decreed the *maximum*, and who attempted to keep Paris alive by robbing the country districts of food. If Taine is to be believed, the principles of political economy showed themselves as little complaisant toward the Jacobins as toward any other fanatics. The sum of his detailed investigation is, that the rural districts were plundered and that Paris was starved. Nor was this, according to our author, the effect of war or of bad seasons. Nature was kinder to France than its rulers; the harvest was plentiful, but the spirit even of the laborers was so broken that, for perhaps the only time in French history, French peasants refused to cultivate their land. Four strokes of good fortune—namely, the softness of the winter, the arrival of a corn fleet from America, the victories of the armies in Europe, and lastly the fall of Robespierre—saved France from destruction in 1794.

Another feature which marks all the current representations of the Revolution is the practical obliteration from the picture of the Directorial period. The opening scenes of the great Revolutionary drama, the tragedies of the Reign of Terror, the heroism of the volunteers, the triumphs of Napoleon, are all remembered; but the six years of the Directory have all but passed out of recollection. Their dreariness and their meanness have secured to them oblivion; yet no one can understand the Revolution who does not study the years which elapsed between the death of Robespierre and the commencement of the Consulate. It is one of the greatest of Taine's merits to have brought this forgotten era of bloodshed, fraud, and incapacity into view. The Terror did not end with Robespierre, it never came to a close till Napoleon's *coup d'état* put an end to the last vestiges of the Convention. Taine's pages make two features of this period so clearly visible that they can hardly ever again be overlooked. The first is, that the Convention retained by fraud and violence an authority which, if the voice of France could have been heard, would have been summarily abolished. The second is, that the voice of the French nation never, if Taine is right, was heard till a burst of applause hailed a military Dictatorship which at any rate restored a civilized form of government. Once and again the nation made an effort to enforce its will; one stroke of violence after another taught the whole people that, if Robespierre was dead, a clique as unscrupulous as, and rather meaner than, Robespierre and his followers were determined to keep power, whether by or against the will of France. The Directory was a continuation of Jacobin rule, and, according to Taine's view, the country took each year less and less part in public affairs, while the Government kept itself alive by a series of *coups d'état*, and by playing off the Jacobin mob against the Moderates. Whether this view of the time of the Directory is entirely correct, may admit of doubt. But the importance of the fact that contemporaries saw nothing of that break between the rule of Robespierre and the rule of the Directors which exists in the minds of modern readers, is, we take it, certain and of primary importance. It is worth noting that Burke's 'Regicide Peace' was written three or four years after the fall of Robespierre.

Taine's view of the Directory falls in with and strikingly confirms his general theory, which is, that the rule of the Jacobins was the rule of all that was basest and worst in the French nation. The Revolutionary storm came upon a country where despotism had deprived men of all experience and of all capacity in the art of government. The weakness of the King, the universal unpopularity of the existing régime, the prevalence of theories which were at bottom revolutionary, and other causes, destroyed the royal power. At last a few fanatics gathered round themselves all that was violent and vile in the nation. The very dregs of society were stirred and rose to the surface. This, as we understand it, is Taine's view of the Revolution. That it contains an element of neglected truth is certain; but a writer may tell you what is true and yet not perceive, and therefore not tell, the whole truth of the matter which he has in hand. In a future article we shall give our reasons for refusing to feel that Taine's work contains the final solution of the problem presented by the Revolution.

CHRISTIANITY IN INDIA.

Life and Work in Benares and Kumaon: 1839-1877. By James Kennedy, M.A. Cassel & Co. 1884.

CHRISTIAN bishops, even army chaplains, had, as is well known, a hard battle to fight before they could establish a lodgment in the Indian possessions of the Honorable East India Company. The Court of Directors, and not less the officials who governed in their name in India, were profoundly convinced that their Hindu and Moslem subjects would endure all things except the appearance among them of a duly ordained Christian minister. An invasion of the clerical order was an invasion which even those who had known what it was to be invaded by Tamerlane, Mahmud of Ghuzni, Nadir Shah, Portuguese,

Frenchmen, and, last but not least, the Honorable East India Company itself, could not be expected to endure without resistance. That, so it was said, would be the last feather on the camel's back—the spark that would cause an explosion of fanaticism more than sufficient to sweep the English out of the Peninsula. But the Government was not content with the simple exclusion from India of the clergy of all denominations. So careful were the officials of those early days not to offend the supposed susceptibilities of the native population, that they abstained from the public profession of any creed. English officials assisted at the celebration of Hindu and Moslem religious ceremonies; they carefully administered the endowments of temple and mosque; they even kept the account of the amount of oil consumed on the shrines of Hindu divinities; but they abstained with exemplary prudence from engaging in any religious rite on their own account. When an English army took the field it was unaccompanied by ministers of religion; and the ordinary substitute for religious worship on Sundays was to read the Articles of War to each regiment assembled for that purpose. It was a common belief among the natives, in those early days of British ascendency, that the English were an abnormal race of people, having no religion or spiritual beliefs of any kind. At last, by the direct action of Parliament, the Court of Directors was constrained to make public confession of its Christianity, and provide an ecclesiastical establishment for the English soldiers employed in its service. That being accomplished, it became impossible to exclude the missionaries.

But the English officials were very far from reconciling themselves to what they could not prevent, and for thirty years the missionaries had to strive against opposition and difficulties which more than account for the scanty progress they made. A native who had the courage to become a Christian was treated by the (Christian) Government of India as if he had committed a crime of the first magnitude. The Hindu or the Moslem law, according to the creed which he had previously professed, was allowed to be set in operation in order to strip him of whatever property or social position he was born to. At the same time to the English officials, the givers of all good things in India, a native could bring with him no such damnatory fact as the profession of Christianity. Although it was known to all English officials that it was not possible, under the laws as they stood, for any native to become a Christian except at the cost of very heavy sacrifices, it was customary to assert that conversions were caused by the promptings of a sordid self-interest. A native Christian was, in fact, a word of reproach; and native Christians were systematically slighted and spoken ill of by English Christians. The insurrection of 1857—so fruitful of change in a thousand other ways—put an end also to this harsh opinion of native Christians, which never had been anything but an ignorant and irrational prejudice. The English residents saw with surprise that wherever there was a community of native Christians, there also was a community loyal to the English rule. The native Christians not merely aided the English to the utmost of their ability, but there were not a few among them who endured martyrdom rather than apostatize from the faith for which they had already endured so much. Facts such as these could but bring about a change in the feeling with which missionary enterprise was regarded, and, at the present time, there are few thoughtful Englishmen in India who would care to deny that a good missionary is a very powerful friend and ally of the British Government. His value is not to be measured by his success in the work of conversion, but by the fact that he and his fellow-workers are the only Europeans who go to India, and who stay there, to *give* something to the people, and not merely to make a living out of them. The natives may not value the gift which the missionaries offer, but they see that, at any rate, they ask nothing from them. They are neither officials, tea-planters, indigo-planters, merchants, lawyers, nor judges. Their labors, so far as the natives are concerned, are altogether disinterested; and as one consequence of this unique position, a missionary who has mastered the native languages is, perhaps, the one Englishman in India who knows something of the people as they really are. In the presence of all other Englishmen they wear a mask.

The book under notice is an account by Mr. James Kennedy of his labors as a missionary, extending over a period of thirty-six years—at first in Benares, the religious capital of Hinduism, and latterly in the hill district of Kumaon. It is written in a lively, unaffected style, which carries the reader easily along; and the accounts of the religious life of the Hindus, the temples and bathing ghâts of Benares, and the great religious fairs at Allahabad, put the people and their surroundings very clearly before us. The author is too thoroughly a "Britisher"—too absolutely confident, that is, that everything British must be immeasurably superior to all things that are not British—to possess the insight of sympathy for the character of those among whom his life was passed; but this deficiency is not without instruction as indicating, perhaps, the most formidable hindrance to the Christianizing of British India.

The fact commonly pleaded to account for the little progress made by the various Christian missions in India is the immobility of the Asiatic character. But as regards the religious history of India this does not happen to be a fact. That continent has been the theatre of a succession of religious revolutions of the widest and most drastic character. Buddhism established itself on the ruins of Brahminism; then Brahminism recovered its ascendency, while Islamism continues even at this date to gather in an abundant harvest from among the lower castes of Southern India, and also in Eastern Bengal. Immobility as regards its religious convictions is the very last attribute that can be ascribed to the people of India; and if Christianity makes slower progress among them than did Islamism, the cause must be looked for in the character of the English rather than that of the native population. When this is done, the marvel, in our opinion, will be, not that Christian missions have effected so little, but that they have accomplished so much. The splendor and magnificence of the Mohammedan conquerors of India are still to be seen, all over the country, in their beautiful and stately mosques, palaces, shrines, tombs, tanks, aqueducts, and other public works; but that which most concerns us at present is the profound religious faith which, so to speak, is embodied in these grand edifices. They were all erected to the glory of Allah and his Prophet. The Faith, it is perfectly clear, was always the first thought in the Mohammedan mind; and an imaginative people like the Hindus could not fail to be deeply impressed by such a fact as this. Secondly, the Moslems were not, like the English, mere birds of passage. They made India their country in as absolute a sense as did the Hindus whom they found established there; and all their works were, in consequence, done with a view to the future ages, not, as with the English, in order to secure a clear balance-sheet for the next year's budget. Thirdly, a Hindu, on becoming a Moslem, acquired at once and as a matter of course all the privileges of the conquering race. He entered into a higher state, instead of having to endure the heavy sacrifices which the ingenuity of the Court of Directors had contrived for those misguided natives who were so lacking in worldly-wisdom as to become Christians. Lastly, there was no limit to the hopes which a Hindu becoming a Moslem might entertain. He might become the leader of an army, the Governor of a province, the chief minister of the whole mighty empire; but a Christian native can look forward to no such high possibilities. The ceremony of baptism cannot whiten his skin, and is, therefore, from the material point of view, quite valueless.

The English during the past quarter of a century may be said to have surpassed their Moslem predecessors in the matter of public works. They have built canals and constructed railways, but they do not pretend to have done these things for the sake of religion, but for pecuniary profit merely. Religiously, it cannot be denied that the English in India cut a very sorry figure when contrasted with their predecessors. The majority of the high officials are the merest Sadducees, who cannot be said to profess any religion at all. There are churches in India, but it is impossible to conceive of a more pitiful contrast than that between these mean and unsightly edifices and the magnificent structures in which Hindu Buddhist and Moslem gave expression to the faith that was in them. Judged by the Oriental standard in such matters, Englishmen in India may be said to treat their religion with insult and contumely; or their religion is rather to tolerate all religions than to believe in any one in particular. And the efforts of the missionaries are neutralized by the placid indifference of nearly every Englishman who does not happen to be a missionary.

The chief obstacle, however, which besets the missionary is that occasioned by the peculiar relation which exists between Englishmen and natives. The English are not merely the rulers of the country, but rulers in whose inner life, as individuals, the people are of no account—that is to say, the English in India form no attachments; no friendships, with the people of the country. A few among them may associate with the natives from a sense of duty; but for their mental and moral needs, their own countrymen are sufficient, and not one Englishman in a thousand, when the hour comes for leaving India for good, is sensible of a wrench, of a void being created in his life by the separation from any native whom he has known. No greater obstacle in the way of mission work can be conceived than a state of mind such as this. It denotes the want of that touch of nature which makes the whole world kin, and yet it is a defect from which the English missionary is, of necessity, as little exempt as the English official. It is painfully apparent in Mr. Kennedy's record of his thirty-six years' experiences. From the beginning to the end we are not introduced to a single native who stood to Mr. Kennedy in the relation of a friend. That title is reserved for application to men of his own race and language exclusively. Indeed, it is extremely seldom that an inhabitant of the country, Christian or otherwise, receives from Mr. Kennedy any more particular description than "a native." Contrast this attitude of aloofness with the feelings of the Apostle Paul toward individual members of the churches which he had founded, and we shall find little difficulty in understanding why Christianity in India does not spread and develop as in the days of Imperial Rome.

Stops: or, How to Punctuate. By Paul Allardyce. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.; Philadelphia: George H. Buchanan & Co.

We have not had the patience to read beyond

the comma in this little book. The treatment is neither lucid, logical, nor consistent; it is sometimes fatuous, as witness the rules for inserting points *before* "and" and "or." For lack of a few general principles, rules and exceptions are multiplied and long discussions entailed, which can only bewilder and mystify the student. Here is what comes of not having laid down the law of parenthesis and of the interchangeability of points:

"X. Words thrown in so as to interrupt slightly the flow of a sentence are marked off by commas."

After the examples, we read in a smaller type:

"Where the words thrown in make a very distinct break in the sentence, they should be pointed off by means of the dash or of brackets.

"The following are some of the words and phrases that come under this rule: *therefore, too, indeed, however, . . . all things considered.*"

The chances are that "this rule" will be taken to refer to the preceding clause about the employment of dashes and brackets, whereas not one of the words or phrases cited is at all liable to be pointed in this way.

We have space but for one other instance of the want of clearness in the author's own mind. Rule VIII reads as follows:

"When the subject consists of several parts, *e. g.*, of several nouns, a comma is placed after the last part."

The two examples cited under this involve a plural verb, as, "time, money, and friends, were needed to carry on the work." The author then disposes of "an apparent exception to it," viz., "Freedom, honor, religion was at stake." It will scarcely be believed that he accounts for the omission of the comma after "religion" on the ground that this noun sums up all the others, or marks the highest point of a climax. "When so great a thing as religion is said to be at stake, everything else is dropped out of sight or is held to be included. But write the three names as if they were of equal importance; the comma should then be inserted: Freedom, honor, and religion, were at stake." The simple truth is, of course, that there is a climax in both examples; and that the only reason for inserting a comma after "religion" in the second is in order to remove the appearance of a singular noun being the subject of a plural verb. This is a concession (by no means a necessary one) to the eye. A concession to the ear would be the insertion of a comma in the first example, to mark the rhetorical pause induced by the omission of the conjunction.

Recollections of Fly-fishing for Salmon, Trout, and Grayling, with Notes on their Haunts, Habits, and History. By Edward Hamilton. M.D., F.L.S., etc. Orange Judd Company. 1885.

Sampson Low, Marston & Co. have recently issued a large-paper edition of this book (of 100 copies), of which, except in size and Mr. Haden's name at the bottom of the beautiful mezzotint in the frontispiece, this is a reproduction. The paper is very slightly inferior, the print quite as good; and if the book was really produced by the American publishers, it is a most creditable typographical feat for this country. The literary part of the volume is equally deserving of commendation. Salmon fishing is first treated of, and much useful information is distributed through the eighty-five pages devoted to it, along with delightful narrations of personal experiences in angling. These, by the way, are met with throughout the book, except in the chapters devoted to the "Natural History" of the various fish, which are learned as well as interesting. Doctor Hamilton gives a good many valuable hints, which no doubt would prove as successful here as in the streams of Scotland and England, where he has practised them. For instance, on p. 40, under salmon fishing, he says: "When the water is very bright and clear in the pools many a fish may be hooked and landed by allowing the fly to sink as deep as you can and then slowly sink and draw, never bringing the fly near the surface. You see a movement in the water, a swirl and a twist, and your line tightens. You might fish all day in such times with the fly near the surface and never move a fish." The same plan often works well with trout.

We cannot, however, agree with Doctor Hamilton when he says, p. 16: "Many a fish [salmon] cast over never sees the fly," etc. We have too much faith in the unwinking vigilance of the fish, and have too often seen him shoot like a great streak of light at a fly passing half a dozen yards or more from his lair, to believe he cannot see anything he wants to that comes within ten yards or more of him in the clear streams he loves. Doctor Hamilton agrees with the more intelligent of modern icthyologists in holding that salmon do feed in fresh water, and take the fly because they want to eat it, and not through sport or emotional insanity. The book is both entertaining and valuable for its matter and its appearance. The preface states that Mr. Haden, as is the case with many distinguished Englishmen, "is a most observant and successful fly-fisher."

The Historical Reference Book, Comprising a Chronological Table of Universal History, a Chronological Dictionary of Universal History, a Biographical Dictionary, with Geographical Notes. For the Use of Students, Teachers, and Readers. By Louis Heilprin. D. Appleton & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 569.

Mr. Heilprin's 'Historical Reference Book' aims to give in a very condensed form those items of information which the student or general reader will be most likely to need. The three parts are of course to a certain extent complementary to each other: Part 2 may almost be called an index to Part 1, inasmuch as it contains largely the same events alphabetically arranged (but for the most part merely by titles), which are found chronologically arranged in Part 1. The chronological table, coming first in the book, may probably be considered its most important feature. Its peculiar value consists in its giving at a glance a synchronistic view of the events of any one year; each nation or group of nations having its annals in a separate paragraph, while non-political events come at the end of the year's chronicle. Thus for 1884 there are seven divisions—the United States, the French War in China, the Egyptian War, the Conference of the Emperors, the Crisis in Spain, the Russians in Asia, and an obituary line containing Mignet, Reade, Lepsius, Makart; the whole occupying a little over half a page. There is room in a book of this class for a wide diversity of opinion as to the events to be given; but we miss hardly anything that we should consider desirable, and we have not been able to detect a single mistake or misprint. We must, however, consider it a serious error of judgment to follow Rawlinson in early Roman history; for, whatever his rank in Oriental history, he has absolutely no authority in Roman, and his dates differ materially from those commonly accepted. Of course no dates for this period are to be taken as absolutely fixed; but when all authorities in Roman history like Mommsen give, for example, 494 for the First Secession, and 367 for the Licinian Law, it is an unnecessary source of perplexity to give the dates of these events as 492 and 364. It is true the accepted date is added in a parenthesis, but the reader cannot fail to get the impression that this is the date of the least authority. With the exception of this single feature, this book must be pronounced a remarkably accurate and convenient book of reference, and may be recommended as probably the best of its class.

Medallic Portraits of Washington. With Historical and Critical Notes and a Descriptive Catalogue of the Coins, Medals, Tokens, and Cards. By W. S. Baker. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay.

This carefully prepared and handsome volume is a new indication of the progress which numismatics has made in the United States. It contains 651 numbers, arranged in classes according to the occasion of the striking of the medal whose history is given, and is believed to include all the medals struck with the head of Washington. In the preface the author attacks with justice the absurd prejudice which prevented the coinage of the United States from bearing the portraits of the successive Presidents. The introduction of the ex-Presidents with a certain delay would at least be one expedient to relieve our currency of the monotony of device which is one of its characteristics. It would, too, give at least a chance for now and then a fine coin, furnish a motive for the production of fine medallion heads, and a little encouragement to our artists in that genre.

Centennial History of American Methodism. By John Atkinson, D.D. Phillips & Hunt.

Dr. Atkinson's title-page is of the old-fashioned sort. It describes his book so copiously that if we quoted it in full our occupation would be gone. But it does not describe his book so accurately that the reader will not be seriously disappointed to find that he has not written a history of a century of Methodism, but only a history of "its ecclesiastical organization in 1784, and its subsequent development under the superintendency of Francis Asbury, with sketches o the character and history of all the preachers known to have been members of the Christmas Conference" of 1784. What Dr. Atkinson, however, has given us is much more interesting than a history of Methodism from 1784 till now could possibly have been within the limits of five hundred pages. The necessary condensation would have been fatal. What we have, in reality, is a very brief introduction, which treats of the origin of Methodism in the United States, then an hiatus of some fifteen years, next quite a full account of the years from 1784 to 1790, and finally several brief chapters on the ensuing six and twenty years—*i.e.*, to Asbury's death in 1816. Dr. Atkinson makes no definitive settlement of the much-mooted question whether American Methodism originated in Maryland in 1763, or in New York in 1766. The date of the New York beginning is easily verified; that of the Maryland beginning is veiled in doubt. It is certain that the New York beginning was much more important, and soon attracted the attention of Wesley. In 1769 he sent over two missionaries, and in 1771 Francis Asbury and Richard Wright. Others followed, but it was Asbury who gave the enterprise assurance of success. If Wesley himself had come, it would not have been so well, for Wesley's sympathies were with the mother country during the Revolution, as Asbury's were not. Most of the preachers that Wesley sent over sympathized with him, generally to the ruin of their usefulness. Nevertheless, in 1784, the new sect had eighty ministers and some 15,000 members.

"The Christmas Conference," which met in Baltimore in 1784, was the means of organizing the American Methodists as an Independent

Church. Wesley had not intended this, and his chagrin at the result was unmistakable. He had appointed Asbury and Coke joint superintendents, expecting them to be subject to him and to the Church of England, from which he had never severed himself. Asbury declined the appointment from Wesley, but agreed to accept it from the American preachers. The Conference of 1784 was summoned to act upon this matter, one of the heralds riding twelve hundred miles in six weeks to summon the preachers. Dr. Atkinson's second chapter gives an excellent account of the make-up of the Conference, with brief sketches of the more prominent members. His third chapter deals with the relation of Wesley to the new church. He makes it plain enough that Wesley's intentions were frustrated by the Conference, not less effectually because unwittingly. Asbury wrote after his death: "I can truly say for one, that the greatest affliction and sorrow of my life was that our dear father from the time of the Revolution to his death grew more and more jealous of myself and the whole American Connection; and it appeared we had lost his confidence entirely." But the subjection of the American Methodists to Wesley was not denied by the Conference of 1784; only their subjection to the Church of England. In 1787 Wesley's name was dropped from the minutes as a superintendent with Asbury and Coke, and this action, Coke insisted, hastened his death.

Dr. Atkinson's fifth and sixth chapters, reciting the early conquests of the newly-organized Church, tell a story of missionary zeal and heroism and endurance to equal which we must go to Parkman's 'Jesuits in North America.' No wonder the increase of membership in six years was from 15,000 to 57,000, and of preachers from 80 to 227! All that Asbury expected from his preachers and itinerants he embodied in himself. It is impossible to overestimate the debt that American Methodism owes to him. In 1799 he wrote that his labors obliged him to ride about 6,000 miles annually, to preach from 300 to 500 sermons a year, to write 1,000 letters, to station some 300 preachers, and to spend many hours each day in reading and important conversation. Dr. Atkinson gives an entire chapter to him, but his whole book is virtually his monument.

The subjects of other chapters are: "The Old Itinerancy," "The Sunday-school in Methodism," "The New Church and Education," "Thomas Coke," who had no such aptitude as Asbury for the work in hand, "The Preachers of the Christmas Conference," "The Old Camp-Meetings," etc., etc. In 1806, when Asbury had still ten years to live, the Church had 130,000 members and 450 preachers. In speaking of this growth and of the means by which it was accomplished Dr. Atkinson's tone is warm, but not without excuse. The Methodists whose triumphs he records deserved them well. In an Appendix there are tables tending to refute the charge that Methodism has had less success in large cities than elsewhere. There are other tables giving the names of 102 educational institutions now existing under Methodist control. They have in them nearly 30,000 students, and their buildings and endowments are valued at nearly $15,000,000. But these magnificent statistics do not begin to be so elevating and inspiring as the earlier portions of the book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Addie's Husband. A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Bancroft, G. History of the United States, from the Discovery of the Continent. The Author's Last Revision. Vol. VI. and last. D. Appleton & Co.
Barr, Amelia E. The Hallam Succession. A Tale of Methodist Life in Two Countries. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Blaisdell, Dr. A. F. Our Bodies, or How We Live. An Elementary Text-Book of Physiology and Hygiene. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 60 cents.
Brennan, M. S. A Popular Exposition of Electricity, with Sketches of Some of its Discoverers. D. Appleton & Co.
Buchanan, R. M. A Tale of the Caravan. D. Appleton & Co., 25 cents.
Chandler, Mrs. W. Anthè. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Cherbuliez, V. Olivier Maugant. F. W. Christern.
Dickens, C. A Dictionary of the University of Oxford. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Ebers, G. Serapis. A Romance. W. S. Gottsberger.
Farjeon, B. L. Great Porter Square: A Mystery. Harper's Franklin Square Library.
Farrand, Elizabeth M. History of the University of Michigan. Ann Arbor: Register Publishing House.
Fish, D. T. Cassell's Popular Gardening. Illustrated. Vol. I. Cassell & Co. $2.
Hoffmann, E. T. W., Weird Tales. With a Biographical Memoir, by J. T. Bealby. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Holland, F. M. The Rise of Intellectual Liberty, from Thales to Copernicus. Henry Holt & Co. $3.50.
Kalisch, Rev. I. Ha-Tapuach: The Apple. A Treatise on the Immortality of the Soul, by Aristotle. *American Hebrew.*
Kenyon, J. B. Songs in All Seasons. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.
Knortz, K. Representative Poems, Ballad and Lyrical. Original Texts with English Versions by Various Translators. Henry Holt & Co. $3.50.
Knox, A. Differential Calculus for Beginners. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Lilly, W. S. Characteristics, Political, Philosophical, and Religious, from the Writings of Henry Edward, Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster. Catholic Publication Society.
Low-Pulling. The Dictionary of English History. Cassell & Co. $6.
Mason, E. T. Personal Traits of British Authors. Scott—Hogg—Campbell—Chalmers—Wilson—De Quincey—Jeffrey. With portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Twain, Mark. Adventures of Huckleberry Finn. Illustrated. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Underhill, N. Leah. The Missing Link in Modern Spiritualism. Thomas R. Knox & Co.
Ward, Mrs. Humphrey. Miss Bretherton. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Wild Rock. A Tale of Two Seasons. C. T. Dillingham $1.
Wilstach, J. W. Montalembert. A Biographical Sketch. Catholic Publication Society.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 5, 1885.

The Week.

GOVERNOR CLEVELAND'S letter to Congressman Warner on the silver question brings prominently forward a fact of the utmost gravity, known to all bankers, but not known or not appreciated by the public generally. In the event of the depreciation of silver by even a fraction of 1 per cent., "gold would be withdrawn to its hoarding places, and an unprecedented contraction of the currency would take place." This statement corresponds with facts already known to the custodians of money in Wall Street. When the business community were alarmed a few weeks ago by the premium on New York (gold) funds in Boston, many large depositors in this city took steps to draw their money in gold and lock it up in safe places. They were persuaded not to do so by assurances from leading bank officials that the crisis was not yet at hand, that they should receive ample warning of the existence of danger, and that they would then have the coöperation of the banks to protect them against loss by depreciation in the value of their deposits. Governor Cleveland "hit the nail on the head" when he drew attention to this dangerous condition of the money market. His letter to Mr. Warner is the first authoritative exposition of his views on financial affairs. It proves not merely that the new Administration is for honest money, but that it has a perfectly clear view of the reasons why honesty in finance is the best policy.

President Arthur seemed to be bent on satisfying the country in these last days that it was not a high sense of duty which made his Administration as decent as it has been, but simply a disinclination to face public indignation. Any abuses of trust which seem not likely to attract much public attention he commits with great abandon. The paymasterships in the army are well-paid life positions, to which old officers look forward as resting-places in the latter years of their service, and of which it would seem as if any one ought to be particularly hardened and unscrupulous to deprive them. President Arthur, however, had no hesitation in giving one of them to a young man from civil life, son of his old political "pal," the notorious John F. Smyth, the Albany politician. One of young Smyth's earliest official acts was to disappear with $5,000 of the Government money. He turned up, however, after a week or so, and restored the money, having gone off with it on a drunken spree. What was done with him we are not quite sure, but we believe he was, instead of being brought to justice, allowed to resign quietly. Emboldened probably by the immunity from criticism which this little effort enjoyed, the President picked out from civil life the young man Wright, a dropped West Point cadet, whose case we have already commented on, and, "to oblige a friend," disregarded the regulations, and gave him a commission which enabled him to outrank two classes of graduates. One would think these were enough for one three months, but he afterwards appointed another paymaster from civil life, one Henry J. Haynsworth, his own brother-in-law, who has been a clerk in the Insurance Department at Albany since 1874. As he is fifty years old, he will soon be placed on the retired list, so that he is really receiving a comfortable retreat for his old age. One of the most painful features about these jobs is the readiness with which the Senate connived at them.

The last sign made by Mr. Arthur's Administration was the announcement that Spain had been persuaded to extend the time for ratifying the Cuban commercial treaty until May, 1886. The next to the last was an argument from Secretary Frelinghuysen against the binding force of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty and in favor of our own special canal through Nicaragua. The next or ante-penultimate stroke was a letter from Mr. Frelinghuysen showing how erroneous was Senator Morrill's conception of the true principles of reciprocity. The Administration disappears, like the obstinate dame in the story, exclaiming "Scissors" with its latest breath. Its parting gift to Mr. Cleveland—the extension of the Cuban treaty—is probably the one thing in its power to bestow which could be most easily dispensed with, and for which the smallest modicum of thanks will be returned.

Secretary Frelinghuysen contends, in his letter in defence of his Nicaraguan treaty, that Great Britain's rights under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty "have lapsed by neglect," inasmuch as no canal has been constructed under it. This, the New York *Times* points out, does not dispose of the provision of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty which declares that the two Powers, in entering into the treaty, "not only desired . . . to accomplish a particular object, but also to establish a general principle." A "general principle" once established does not suffer from "neglect." It cannot be got rid of except by formal disestablishment. Moreover, the Secretary's plea that Great Britain had directly violated the treaty by erecting a colony in British Honduras, even if ever true, which we deny, was disposed of by President Buchanan's declaration in 1860 that all disputes over the treaty "had resulted in a final settlement entirely satisfactory to the Government." So that of anything which occurred prior to 1860 we are estopped from complaining, and since then Great Britain at worst has only been guilty of "neglect," which, as we have said, cannot damage a principle. In fact, Secretary Frelinghuysen's letter leaves the matter just where he found it. What is the object of his discussion it is difficult to see. Nobody pretends that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is eternal in its obligation, or that it cannot be abrogated by either party. All that Mr. Frelinghuysen's opponents ask is, that if it is to be abrogated, it should be abrogated formally, after notice and discussion, according to the custom of honorable civilized Powers. Getting rid of it by secret agreement with a third party, in direct violation of it, and then offering to fight anybody who complains of the transaction, savors a little of the way in which conventions are brought to an end by rival mining adventurers in New Mexico.

The Treasury Department seemed in haste to do something to purify the Government service in this city before the fourth of March, but the task was a heavy one, and had been too long delayed to be accomplished so quickly. As a first step two of the special agents, whose sole duty it was to assist the Government in detecting and punishing frauds on the revenue, and two special examiners, were summarily dismissed on a preliminary report, presumably for conduct so grossly improper that their cases needed but little consideration. This is a bad indication of what the actual condition of the service is. Even the preliminary report shows such a disgraceful state of affairs that it is considered advisable not to make it public. The Assistant Inspector of Hulls, too, after being asked for his resignation and having requested and being allowed opportunity to answer the charges made against him, has been ordered dismissed. For a President who, having been Collector of the Port, must have been familiar with the workings of the Government service in this department, it is not a very creditable showing that his Secretary of the Treasury had to make such wholesale dismissals of officials in the last week of his term. The extreme anxiety to hasten this investigation to a conclusion before a change in the Administration, creates a suspicion that it was not as thorough as it should be, and may necessitate an investigation of an investigation at the hands of the incoming Secretary.

The testimony of the ex-Commissioner of Pensions, Colonel Dudley, affords an interesting glimpse of the attitude of a true "worker" toward his official duties. Colonel Dudley admits frankly that he was absent from his post fifty-seven days, during which he drew his salary, while attending entirely to partisan campaign work. He justified his conduct in this respect by saying that while on duty it was his custom to work twelve hours a day, though the clerks under him worked only six and a half hours a day. In his opinion the rules which regulated the leaves of absence among subordinates were not applicable to heads of bureaux; and when asked if he thought it exerted a "healthy influence on his bureau to have it known all over the country that its head had quitted his post and gone into the country and staid fifty-seven days looking after his party's political interests," he was able to reply that in his judgment "it should have no deleterious influence upon the office." One other question seems to have been too severe a tax on even Colonel Dudley's "judgment." When he was asked why, if he could take 57 days with pay, could he not take the whole 365, he was forced to reply: "Well, that is a question in ethics which I cannot answer." The Committee also gave it up, and so do we.

A majority of the members of the sub-committee of the House, which has been investigating the operations of Marshal Wright, in Cincinnati, at the election of last October, have made a report recommending his dismissal, and the institution by the Attorney-General of legal proceedings for the recovery of the money illegally paid out by him. One member of the sub-committee dissented. The majority state that Wright appointed as deputy marshals a much larger number of men than the necessities of the case warranted; that in most cases the deputies prostituted their office to partisan ends; that many of them were notorious criminals of known vicious and brutal habits; that, acting under Wright's orders, they aided, abetted, and encouraged fraudulent voting and intimidation of voters, and committed gross outrages upon the elective franchise and the rights of honest voters; that their employment and payment were without legal warrant; and that the Marshal's proceedings were in many ways an unwarranted abuse of official trust. There is no doubt about the entire truth of this indictment. The facts were notorious at the time of the election, for they were committed in the firm belief that Blaine would be elected, and that such service would be handsomely rewarded by him. The Marshal's tactics were so successful that there was talk of imitating them in all the larger Northern cities in the November election, and nothing but the outburst of popular wrath which came from every quarter prevented this from being done.

The positions taken by Senators Hoar and Sherman, in their remarks on the Swaim court-martial, could only be justified if they really believed that General Swaim was innocent of the charges of "wrong" and "deception" of which he was found guilty by the court. Whether the acts which he committed are called by these names, or by the original and more appropriate ones of fraud and falsehood, really makes no difference in the forum of morals, and ought to make none in the forum of the Senate. Yet we find these eminent Senators, who are perhaps as fairly representative of the tone of Republican politics as any two men in public life, discussing the verdict upon grounds of the mere technicality, ignoring the moral features of the case altogether, and casting their influence in a way which can have no other end than the demoralization of the army, and by example that of every other branch of the service and of society as well. How much of their zeal for the independence of courts-martial proceeds from a desire to shield the memory of the late President Garfield, who put General Swaim in his present position, and with whom he was on terms of close intimacy, we do not know, but we presume that this relationship must count for something in the case. None the less are their influence and example most deleterious to public security and unfavorable to their own standing as party leaders. Nobody in the wide world would hold President Garfield accountable for the acts committed three years after his death by an appointee. His reputation was in no way involved in the punishment visited upon Swaim. But even if it were so, the demands of public decorum would be no less imperative, and the reputation of eminent Senators, like Mr. Sherman and Mr. Hoar, would be none the less degraded by carping criticisms upon the President and the Attorney-General.

But it is chiefly as a sign of what ideas have crept into the highest public councils and found encouragement and endorsement among our foremost public teachers, that the attitude of these Senators calls for particular examination. In the recent campaign, both Senator Sherman and Senator Hoar thought that Mr. Blaine's railroad transactions while he was Speaker of the House did not disqualify him for the highest honors of the republic. The exigencies of politics were supposed to require them to go through thick and thin at the behest of their party. No such exigency confronts them now. They are under no party obligations to General Swaim. The solid South does not serve them as an excuse for saying in public what they would scorn to avow in private. Yet we find them as callous to the common principles of veracity and honesty as presented in the Swaim court-martial as they were on the hustings in the late campaign. It is true that they did not directly defend lying and cheating in the army, but by casting aspersions upon the President for his endeavors to maintain the standard of rectitude in the military department of the Government—endeavors which were strictly within the line of his duty—they have, to the extent of their influence, made "wrong" and "deception" compatible with the highest stations in the military service. It was once said that no liar could graduate at West Point. Is it possible that we have changed all this?

In a lecture delivered last Saturday in Washington on the "Diplomatic and Consular Service of the United States," Mr. Eugene Schuyler, our late Minister to Rumania, Servia, and Greece, pointed out some features of our consular service which just at this time it is important should be attentively studied. At every change of Administration there has always been a great number of changes in our diplomatic and consular corps. Already Washington is full of men anxious for a consulship or mission, who have "petitions" of formidable length to present to Mr. Cleveland. It is well for all—office-seekers and office-givers—to listen to Mr. Schuyler, who better than any other person probably in this country is qualified to speak of our peculiar consular machinery. In the first place, our consuls have, because of our tariff laws and regulations, an extraordinary amount of labor to perform. To enumerate their duties would be tedious, but it may suffice to say that duties of an unusual character, duties which consuls of other countries are not required to perform, are in themselves enough to consume all of the time of an able-bodied, conscientious officer. For this amount of labor they receive compensation which is not only ridiculously small, but which is apt to be changed or even altogether taken away in the most remarkable manner. Mr. Schuyler exposed one of the most glaring abuses of our system of committee government by declaring, in his lecture last Saturday, that a consul earnestly engaged in the business of the United States is some day quietly informed by the State or Treasury Department that his pay ceased some six months ago, owing to a failure on the part of Congress to make an appropriation for his post. No other servants of the Government have their compensation reduced or withdrawn by this practically retroactive legislation.

The International Conference has closed its sittings at Berlin, all the delegates signing the documents, fourteen in number. What the United States gets out of the affair commercially, under the free-trade régime which has been established, or under the political régime which they cannot support, will doubtless be explained some day. We are sorry Secretary Frelinghuysen will not remain long enough in office to do it. According to his political economy, the Africans, being very poor, are just the kind of people we could trade with profitably, but all the rest of the world is let into the market, so there is no chance for us. The Foreign Committee of the House has in the meantime adopted a resolution regretting the participation of the Administration in the Conference, inasmuch as it is recognized "as a departure from the policy which forbids the Government of the United States to participate in any political combination or movement outside of the American Continent." We do not think, however, any harm has really been done. Messrs. Kasson and Sanford have had a chance to make a good many speeches, but we shall probably hear no more of the American share in setting up the new State.

The latest scheme for raising money of the Irish dynamiters in this city is the enlistment of a "brigade" to join the Mahdi, and help him to destroy the British forces in the Sudan. They are to go 250 strong to Cairo or some place in that neighborhood, and one Mr. Joseph D. Clarke, a member of the Executive Council of the Irish National League, says to "lay torpedoes in the Nile and Red Sea" on their way. But he honestly confesses that "how an Irish force can get to Khartum, when the English can't get there, puzzles him." Capt. Denis Brewer, of Clinton Street, Brooklyn, is more confident, for he says twenty men of the new arrivals "will show the Mahdi how to break the British square quicker than he ever dreamed it could be done." This being so, the Mahdi will doubtless send for the contingent down to the Red Sea and take them up to his residence in four-horse omnibuses. The mode of getting to Khartum is, however, a mere question of detail. Captain Brewer very properly declines to say when the expedition will start. Were we in command of it, we would not stir out of Brooklyn as long as the subscriptions came in. There is a good deal of money in the scheme. But we ought to warn the contingent that the Mahdi is very particular about having his force composed of true believers. He allows no infidels among his followers if he can help it, and if 250 Irishmen appear in his camp, he will convert every mother's son of them to Mohammedanism, with all that the name implies. On this point he permits no trifling. We

advise them, therefore, to keep threatening to go, but not to go without information—more information than they are ever likely to get.

The first freight train that goes to the site of a new town on the line of a railroad in Dakota or any of the newer Western States, will probably carry stuff to start a lumber yard. Shelter of some kind is the first necessity, and the sod hut of the homesteader will not serve for a village. Then, after the first boom of speculative building is over, there are apt to come several years when few if any new buildings are called for. If later on there is growth, it is of a more solid kind, and the coarse lumber that met the first call will not give satisfaction. So the main demand for cheap, coarse stuff is when a new road is opening fresh territory. During the recent years of railroad expansion there was an almost unlimited demand for lumber to build temporary structures, and it is not wonderful that mills were multiplied, even though almost all the logs that came to them were of an inferior quality. Now that the business of building railroads in new territory has almost come to a standstill, there is an immense falling off in the demand for the poor stuff which constitutes the great bulk of the lumber turned out by the mills. In many of the older parts of the country there was last year a good deal of building which called for the very best material, and the result has been that, notwithstanding the almost entire collapse of the prices for the lower grades, the report from every leading market has been that the rates for the higher grades were very firm. At from $45 to $65 per thousand, all the really good white pine has found quick and easy sale, notwithstanding the hard times, while the stuff which the mills have been pouring out in an Amazon tide has gone begging at from $7 to $12. These figures are the best answer to those who deny that the exhaustion of white pine is near.

British trade returns for the year 1884 show a small loss in the *value* of exports, and a small gain in the quantity, as compared with the previous year, the loss and gain being about 1 per cent. in each case. The total exports were £232,928,000 in value. These exports, reckoned at the prices of the previous year, would have amounted to £242,531,000. The actual exports of 1883 were £239,799,000. The principal loss in exports is due to the shrinkage of trade with the United States. British imports fell off £32,633,000 in value, and £10,109,000 in quantity, nearly the whole shrinkage consisting in articles of food—the lessening of imports being accounted for by the superior harvest of 1884 in the United Kingdom. The quantities of wheat imported from the Atlantic ports of the United States during the year were a fraction greater than for the year 1883, but the values were £1,024,398 less. From the Pacific ports of the United States there was a decline of 3,600,000 quarters in quantity, and of £2,400,000 in value. Imports of flour from the United States fell off 900,000 barrels, and the value was less by £1,500,000. Imports of wheat from India fell off 3,200,000 quarters in amount and £2,100,000 in value. It appears from these returns that the Atlantic ports of the United States not only are able to compete with India in supplying grain to Great Britain, but have still a small but appreciable advantage in that market.

In spite of all the jangling and fighting in England over the Egyptian question, everybody seems delighted with the army. Lord Wolseley, in particular, receives the highest praise and utmost sympathy from all parties. Mr. Goschen, who is a somewhat severe critic of the Ministry—too severe, it is now said, to suit the Edinburgh constituency—uttered a eulogy on him, in one of his late speeches, such as few commanders have ever received. But our esteemed contemporary the *Sun* is still implacable about him, and insists on replacing him by General Roberts, and in fact announces that it will do so as soon as it has put Lord Salisbury in power. It declares that Roberts would have made a rush for Khartum with 5,000 men from Gubat after the fall of Khartum, and have promptly recaptured the place, because "Arabs have always been observed to fight badly behind walls." But our esteemed contemporary ought to have remembered that Wolseley's opportunities of "observing" how Arabs fight behind walls have been very limited, because the Arabs have not for ages had any walls worth mention to fight behind. If the *Sun* has been observing their behavior under these circumstances in any of the numerous wars it has carried on, it ought to have let Wolseley know, or have sent word to Roberts, who would have passed it on to Wolseley. It also says that "it finds it not easy to resist the suspicion that Wolseley's sudden abandonment of his aggressive programme . . . was due to panic." But why resist it? Why not give way to it, and be happy? There is no more innocent or cheaper pleasure for a newspaper strategist than suspecting a very cool old soldier three thousand miles away of having lost his head.

The latest news about the relations of England and Russia is rather startling, and shows what diplomatists call a very strained condition, but there is every reason to believe that, England having shown her teeth, the matter will not at present go farther. The cause of all the trouble can hardly be understood without a glance at the map. When the Russians occupied the oasis of Merv in the great Turkoman desert two years ago, it brought them within fifty miles of the Afghan frontier, and within about 200 of the historic city of Herat, which, though feebly fortified, has always in Anglo-Indian history been known as "the key to India." It stands in the only road by which an invader from the north can turn the great mountain chain of the Hindu-Kush and pour down into the Northwestern provinces over the great plain of Kandahar. All classes of English politicians, aggressive and non-aggressive, have always agreed that the one thing which Russia must never be allowed to do was to get possession of Herat. In fact, it has been a cardinal point in British policy that no Power but Afghanistan must even be permitted to hold it. In 1838, the Persians, then under Russian influence, attempted to seize it, but were beaten off after a memorable siege, in which the defence was conducted by a young officer of the Anglo-Indian army, Eldred Pottinger. The city, with the province of the same name, is a part of Afghanistan, ruled by a governor sent from Kabul.

When the Russians seized Merv and came into control of the great Turkoman desert, they were for the first time brought into contact with Afghan territory, the precise limits of which on the Turkoman side had never been defined. It then became necessary to define them, and on the proposal of England, accepted by Russia, a joint Boundary Commission was organized, to be composed of representatives of England, Russia, and Afghanistan. This Commission has been at work on the ground during the past year, but on one excuse or another the Russian Commissioner has not actively participated in the survey. The reason of this is now apparent, for Mr. Lessar, the expert geographer employed by the Russians, has made a demand as to the tracing of the line, which, it is said in England, would give Russia "a wedge of territory thrust in between the two principal rivers of northwestern Afghanistan, and effectually commanding the road from Herat to Meshed." These rivers are the Murghab and the Heri Rud, and they both take their rise in Afghanistan, and, flowing nearly parallel till lost in the sands of the Khivan desert, enclose a strip of territory about fifty miles wide, which contains all that is most delicate and difficult in the work of delimitation. The Russians wish naturally to push their line up in it as far as possible, and base their claim on ethnological grounds—that is, that they are entitled to all territory occupied by Turkomans. This, it is said, would give them the town of Panjdeh, about fifty miles up the Murghab from the frontier. The dispute has a serious look, as it seems as if the Russian demand were based on the theory that the engagements of England in the Sudan would paralyze her in Afghanistan.

Russia is hardly in a condition to force a quarrel with England in Afghanistan. She is, at Merv, 500 miles from her base even on the Caspian Sea, across a desert, and would be met on the frontier by the Afghans themselves, no mean antagonists, as English experience has shown. Owing to the wise policy pursued by Lord Ripon, too, the relations between the Amir and the Indian Government are of the friendliest sort, and the whole strength of the Indian Empire can now be thrown into Afghanistan by railroad which goes as far as Peshawur, to meet any force entering along the Murghab. Of the fidelity of the native Indian troops in any such contest there is no reasonable doubt. The rapidity with which the resources of the Russian Empire are drained by a distant war against a powerful antagonist is too recent an experience to make a struggle with England in Asia just now probable. But that Russia has her eye on Herat probably everybody believes and will believe. It must be admitted, too, that it would be a great thing for the people of Herat if she owned it, just as her presence at Merv is a great thing for Persia, whose border population she has delivered from the awful curse of Turkoman raids.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 25, to TUESDAY, March 3, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT-ELECT CLEVELAND gave out on Friday for publication his letter to the silver advocates in Congress. Among its notable utterances are the following: "I hope that you concur with me and with the great majority of our fellow-citizens, in deeming it most desirable at the present juncture to maintain and continue in use the mass of our gold coin as well as the mass of silver already coined. This is possible by a present suspension of the purchase and coinage of silver. I am not aware that by any other method it is possible. It is of momentous importance to prevent the two metals from parting company; to prevent the increasing displacement of gold by the increasing coinage of silver; to prevent the disuse of gold in the custom-houses of the United States in the daily business of the people; to prevent the ultimate expulsion of gold by silver. Such a financial crisis as these events would certainly precipitate, were it now to follow upon so long a period of commercial depression, would involve the people of every city and every State in the Union in a prolonged and disastrous trouble. The revival of business enterprise and prosperity so ardently desired and apparently so near would be hopelessly postponed. Gold would be withdrawn to its hoarding places, and an unprecedented contraction in the actual volume of our currency would speedily take place. Saddest of all, in every workshop, mill, factory, store, and on every railroad and farm, the wages of labor, already depressed, would suffer still further depression by a scaling down of the purchasing power of every so-called dollar paid into the hand of toil. From these impending calamities it is surely a most patriotic and grateful duty of the representatives of the people to deliver them."

President-elect Cleveland left Albany for Washington on Monday evening at 6:40 o'clock, arriving at his destination at 7:20 A. M. on Tuesday. He was accompanied by a number of his relatives, Daniel Manning, and Daniel S. Lamont. He spent the day in quiet at his hotel. A strong protest was presented to Mr. Cleveland from Connecticut, New Jersey, and Indiana against the appointment of Judge Endicott or any Massachusetts man to the Cabinet. The protest urges that Connecticut, New Jersey, and Indiana ought not to be neglected, and Massachusetts given such an honor. The capital was crowded with visitors on Tuesday and the prospects for a very brilliant inauguration were promising.

President Cleveland's Cabinet will probably be as follows: Secretary of State, Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware; Secretary of the Treasury, Daniel Manning, of New York; Secretary of War, Judge W. C. Endicott, of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Navy, W. C. Whitney, of New York; Secretary of the Interior, L. Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi; Attorney-General, A. H. Garland, of Arkansas; Postmaster-General, W. F. Vilas, of Wisconsin.

The public debt was reduced $3,204,975 during February.

The Senate on Thursday passed the Legislative Appropriation Bill. Mr. Sherman, in a speech on the Anti-Silver Bill, said he preferred boldly to proclaim the purpose of the United States to maintain bi-metallic money, even if we stood alone among the nations.

On Friday the Senate passed the Naval Appropriation Bill substantially as reported by the Senate Committee, with an amendment appropriating $112,000 for the purchase of Ericsson's *Destroyer*. It also confirmed the nomination of President Arthur's brother-in-law, Mr. Haynsworth, to be Assistant Quartermaster.

In the House on Thursday the Fortifications Bill was reported. It appropriates $955,000. Of this sum $300,000 is recommended for the expenses of a board, to be appointed by the President, which shall examine and report at what ports fortifications or other defences are most urgently required, and the kind and character of defences best adapted for each. An appropriation of $450,000 is recommended for the purchase and competitive test of specimens of the various kinds of machine guns now in use, and of any others which may be presented and deemed worthy of consideration; for the armament of sea-coast fortifications, including the manufacture of heavy guns and carriages, and for the purchase or manufacture of multicharge guns, and testing the same. The House on that day defeated a motion to suspend the rules and pass the Sundry Civil Bill, containing the provision for suspending silver coinage. The vote was: yeas 118, nays 149. Fifty-four Democrats and 64 Republicans voted yea, and 116 Democrats and 33 Republicans voted nay. Mr. Randall subsequently withdrew the silver clause.

The House on Friday passed the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill, and, as a substitute for the River and Harbor Bill, passed a bill appropriating $5,000,000 to be expended under the direction and with the approval of the Secretary of War, for the continuation and completion of works designated in the last River and Harbor Law.

Mr. Eaton has been instructed by the House Committee on Foreign Affairs to report that, in view of the continued proscription of American pork and additional burdens on wheat and rye from this country, imported by Prussia, and the measures now threatened hostile to American petroleum, the President be instructed to take the necessary steps to secure to the United States the same benefits with other nations as to products of the United States, under the most-favored-nation clause of the treaty of 1828 with Prussia, now in force between the United States and the German Empire.

At a meeting of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Saturday a resolution prepared by Representative W. W. Phelps relative to the Congo Conference was adopted by a vote of 6 to 4. It asserts that "no prospect of commercial advantage warrants a departure from the traditional policy of this Government, which forbids all entangling alliance with the nations of the old world; and that the participation of the delegates of the United States in the so-called Congo Conference, while carefully guarded, as your Committee is informed, in the purpose to confine their powers to the consideration of commercial interests exclusively, is unfortunate in so far as it is a departure from the policy which forbids the Government of the United States to participate in any political combination or movement outside of the American Continent."

The majority of the House Committee that investigated United States Marshal Wright, of Cincinnati, report "that the President be respectfully requested to immediately remove Wright from office, and cause the Attorney-General to institute such proceedings in the courts as may be deemed necessary in order to recover the sums illegally paid out by him, and to institute such criminal proceedings against him as the facts in the case may require."

Statistician Sawyer, of the Pension Bureau, before the Warner Committee of the House, on Friday, submitted a report of the work done and the expenditures for three years of Commissioner Dudley's term and three years prior thereto. He showed that under Dudley the expenditures were increased 196 per cent., while the results of work accomplished showed an increase of but 8 per cent.

The Swaim court-martial verdict attracted a great deal of attention and comment in Washington. Some persons think it is likely to cause a new departure in the administration of military justice, since Congress will be called upon to modify materially the existing law. The comments are directed to Swaim, to the court-martial, and to the President. To begin with, the opponents of Swaim think he is fortunate in escaping dismissal. His friends insist that he is the victim of an outrageous persecution. The President, in his reflections upon the court, has succeeded in making every member of it very angry. The court is composed of some of the highest officers of the army. Mr. Ingalls (Rep., Kan.), in discussing in the Senate, on Wednesday afternoon, a clause of the Army Appropriation Bill as it came from the Conference Committee, took occasion to arraign severely the President, not by name, however, for his course in returning and commenting upon the findings of the Swaim court. Mr. Ingalls regarded the proceedings as a disgrace to civilization.

The report of the Treasury Commission investigating the New York special agents' office is now known to have recommended the removal of only four persons for complicity in the charges which were investigated. But it also set forth that the force of the office is extravagantly large, and that of the nine fraud-roll employees—six special customs inspectors and three detailed men—one-half can be dismissed.

The last hours of Congress were spent in a hurry to reach agreement upon the appropriation bills so that an extra session would not be necessary. The situation at midnight on Tuesday was as follows. The Legislative Bill was all agreed to except the provision for clerks to Senators; the Sundry Civil Bill was agreed to, except provisions for public buildings; the Post-office Bill was reported back to the House with non-concurrence on the Pacific Mail subsidy clause, and the House sustained the report, but afterward accepted the amendment; the Indian Bill only lacked concurrence on the Oklahoma provisions; the Naval, Fortifications, and Deficiency Bills were ready for or in conference. An extra session did not seem probable.

It became known on Saturday that General Grant was really suffering from cancer of the tongue, and that, though his life may be prolonged for several months, his ultimate recovery is hopeless. Previous reports to this effect had been denied.

The Illinois Senatorship contest was complicated on Thursday by the sudden death of Representative Robert Logan (Rep.), in the capitol at Springfield.

At a meeting of the New York Yacht Club on Thursday evening, the English challenge to a contest for the American Cup was accepted. The challenge is for a race with Sir Richard Sutton's *Genesta*, and, if that vessel is beaten, with Lieutenant Henn's *Galatea*. It is further proposed that the matches with the *Genesta* shall be sailed between August 20 and September 1, and those with the *Galatea* before September 17. It was agreed that the boat to compete with the English yachts should be built under the direction of Commodore Bennett and W. P. Douglas.

The National Theatre at Washington was burned early on Friday morning, entailing a loss of more than $150,000.

Admiral George Henry Preble, retired, nephew of the famous Commodore Preble who distinguished himself in the war with Tripoli, died suddenly on Sunday in Brookline, Mass., at the age of sixty-nine. He was appointed to the navy in 1835, distinguished himself during the Rebellion, was commissioned Rear-Admiral in 1876, and made his last cruise in 1878. He was the author of a 'History of the American Flag,' published in 1872.

FOREIGN.

Lord Salisbury, in debating the motion of censure in the House of Lords on Thursday, said that the Conservatives would insist that the influence of England should be kept prominent in Egypt. They were determined that a consistent policy was absolutely necessary. Without it there was no safety; but it could not be expected from a Ministry so hopelessly halting as the present one. If it were continued in power, Eng-

land must expect to lose her prestige in the eyes of the world, and be drawn to irreparable disaster and disgrace which could never be effaced. This declaration was practically in favor of a protectorate over Egypt, and an indefinite occupation of the Sudan. In the House of Commons the debate was continued, Sir William Vernon Harcourt defending the Government.

The debate in the House of Commons was brought to a close on Friday evening. Mr. Forster (Liberal) opposed the Government. Lord Hartington made the closing speech for the Government. The voting then began. Mr. John Morley's amendment in favor of the evacuation of the Sudan was rejected, 455 to 112. Lord George Hamilton's amendment to Mr. Morley's motion, to the effect that the Government had failed to indicate a policy justifying the confidence of Parliament or of the country, was rejected by a vote of 299 to 277. Sir Stafford Northcote's motion of censure was rejected by a vote of 302 to 288. The Conservative vote is normally estimated at 245. The increase consisted of Irish members, Mr. Goschen, and other Whigs. In the House of Lords the Marquis of Salisbury's motion of censure was adopted by a vote of 189 to 68. The Peace Radicals supported the Government in the House. The majority of 14 is the lowest which the Government has received on any important question.

On Saturday many rumors were current as to the probable course of the Ministry. The London *Times* said the Government escaped, technically, but morally it was defeated, discredited, and condemned. The Cabinet met at 2 o'clock and continued in session for more than four hours. It is believed that the Ministry decided not to resign until the Redistribution Bill had been passed. It is possible that they will appeal to the country in November.

A British Blue Book was issued on Wednesday, which contained diplomatic correspondence concerning New Guinea and Samoa. This contains a report from Sir Edward Malet, the British Minister at Berlin, which gives an account of an interview between him and Prince Bismarck. It shows how Bismarck endeavored to get England's alliance in his policy of colonial extension, and how he failed of satisfactory assurances. When England finally expressed her intention of coming to an understanding, Bismarck informed her representative that he had already come to a complete agreement with France, and thus precluded further alliance.

Another interesting document in the Blue Book is a despatch from Earl Granville to Sir Edward Malet, dated February 7, 1885. In this the British Foreign Secretary takes occasion to combat the assertions of Prince Bismarck that England was influenced by jealousy of Germany's colonizing policy. Far from this being the case, Earl Granville asserts that both his statements and those of Mr. Gladstone have always been favorable to the development of a colonial policy on the part of Germany. The last despatch in the Blue Book on the Samoan question is one from Earl Derby to the Governor of New Zealand. This is dated February 18, and directs the Governor to instruct the British Consul in Samoa not to countenance any movement looking toward the annexation of the islands by Great Britain.

Another Blue Book was issued on Thursday filled with the correspondence relating to the Cameroons country in West Africa. From this it appears that at various times during the years from 1879 to 1883 the native chiefs in that quarter petitioned for British protection. England at that time decided to grant their request, but no steps were taken to put this decision into effect. In a despatch dated August 23, 1884, Earl Granville, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, informs the German Government that England has given instructions to Mr. Hewett, the British Consul at Cameroons, to annex that territory to the British possessions. Six days after the date of this despatch Earl Granville received news that Dr. Nachtigal had already annexed the district in the name of the German Empire. The Cameroons chiefs informed the British agent that they had long been waiting for an answer from England to their requests for protection, but none had come. As they wanted rum and tobacco, they had, therefore, given their country to the Germans. They were very well satisfied with their bargain. Prince Bismarck in December complained of England's conduct in annexing territory in close neighborhood to the Cameroons. Earl Granville replied that England had not made such annexations, and, moreover, the policy of England was to recognize the German position at Cameroons.

In reply to further complaints by Bismarck, Earl Granville on February 21, 1885, sent a despatch justifying the British Consul (Mr. Hewett) in annexing the territory between Ambas Bay and Lagos, saying that this was done in accordance with orders sent from London long ago. Earl Granville distinctly reserves the right to claim damages from Germany for the losses incurred by British subjects through the action of the German forces.

A London despatch on Monday said: "It is not doubted in some circles that war with Russia hangs by a thread. The negotiations between Russia and England respecting the Russo-Afghan frontier are said to have reached a very delicate stage. M. Lessar, the Russian Commissioner, has urged such sweeping demands that England cannot accept anything approaching them, and a complete collapse of the delimitation project and an early advance of the Russian troops toward Herat are expected."

There was great alarm in London on Monday and Tuesday over the Afghan frontier difficulty It was rumored that Earl Granville had sent an ultimatum to Russia, but this was denied. In the House of Lords on Tuesday, Earl Granville admitted that the Russian troops had been advancing in the disputed territory of Afghanistan, and, when requested by England to withdraw from their advanced posts, they refused to retire. Sir Peter Lumsden had advised the Afghans not to retire before the Russian troops, but to dispute every inch of ground, and said that the British Government would uphold them. He also said that the Russian outposts now occupied Tulfikar Pass about twenty miles south of Pulikhatum. A post of Turkomans was also stationed a few miles distant from Panjdeh. Lord Granville said that Russia had been earnestly pressed to give stringent orders to her military commander against any forward movement which would be likely to bring about a collision between the Russian and Afghan outposts. Negotiations for a settlement of the trouble are in progress.

The *Journal de St. Pétersbourg*, in the course of an important and evidently inspired article, published on Friday, had the following concerning the Afghan difficulty: "It is to be hoped that the Earl of Dufferin, who is instructed to confer with the Ameer of Afghanistan, will give the latter wise counsel. If England and Russia are to regard Afghanistan as a buffer to prevent friction, the Ameer must not make of it a brand of discord, nor interfere with the delimitation of the frontier. The fact that the Ameer is to have an interview with the Earl of Dufferin shows that the Ameer is dependent on British policy. Therefore British policy is the more responsible for the acts of the Ameer. It is to be hoped that the moderation and prudence of the English Cabinet will prevail in the settlement of the frontier dispute, despite the clamor raised by the English politicians."

England has protested against the French action in declaring rice a contraband of war. Orders have been sent to the French Admiral Courbet not to interfere with rice cargoes bound to Hong Kong and Canton.

The latest news received from Agig and Tamai confirms the report received several weeks ago of a great victory by friendly Arabs over the Hadendowah tribe. About 3,600 of the latter were killed, among them Sheikh Moosa. The Kassala garrison is reported short of food, and must soon surrender unless relieved. The difficulty of the garrison at Kassala has been increased by the appearance of the Italians at Massowah. This interferes with the authority of Major Chermside, who was preparing an immense convoy of provisions, munitions, and money for Kassala. These measures of relief for the beleaguered city are now at a standstill. Kassala is the second city in the Sudan. It contains 20,000 inhabitants and has a garrison of 3,000 men. It is the keystone in the line of frontier strongholds.

Despatches from Assab Bay, received on Monday, stated that the garrison of Kassala, who have been defending the place for a year, recently made a sortie, but were repulsed by the rebels with a loss of 28 officers and 630 privates killed. The situation of the remnant of the Kassala garrison is very critical.

The British War Office has sanctioned a plan for conveying water along the Suakim-Berber route by means of a pipe-line, similar to those used in America for transferring oil.

The activity of the rebels on Wednesday and Thursday nights about Suakim was great and effective. They succeeded in wrecking three advance redoubts, and they managed to do this without exploding the mines which the naval brigade and engineers had prepared in each one of them. The rebels removed 3,000 sandbags, and caused much other damage.

General Brackenbury has destroyed the village of Habed. Suleiman, with 500 men, women, and children, passed through that village on February 17th, flying northward from the left bank of the Nile.

A despatch from Korti on Thursday stated that Gen. Sir Redvers Buller with his whole command had reached within a day's march of Gakdul Wells. The retreat from Abu-Klea, where he had been intrenched, was effected without the loss of a single man. The sick and wounded of his column were doing well. Gen. Buller reached Korti on Sunday. Part of his force, which remained at Gakdul, will gradually withdraw and destroy the wells.

A letter received at Korti from a nun who was captured at Khartum confirms the first accounts of the horrible massacre of 2,000 soldiers and peaceful citizens.

Zebehr Pasha has declined the request of Sir Henry Gordon to parley with El Mahdi for the return of General Gordon's papers to the General's relatives.

A terrible explosion occurred on Thursday afternoon at the Royal School of Gunnery at Shoeburyness, England, while a number of artillery officers and scientists were testing a new patent fuse. Three men were killed outright, and a number of others were fatally wounded, five of whom have since died.

The Congo Conference was brought to a close at Berlin on Thursday. Prince Bismarck paid a tribute to the conciliatory spirit which the delegates had displayed. He announced that the African International Association had signified its adherence to the decisions of the Conference. The delegates then signed the fourteen documents, and the Conference was closed.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday, by a vote of 316 to 175, agreed to fix the duty on corn at 3f. The Chamber also adopted a proposal to impose a duty of 6f. 60c. on corn not grown in Europe imported into France from European entrepots.

Victor Hugo's eighty-third birthday was celebrated with great enthusiasm in Paris, on Thursday.

The Federal Assembly has resolved to expel from Switzerland a large number of Anarchists who have taken refuge in the country for the purpose of making it a hatching-place for plots to be executed abroad. Twenty-three arrests were made on Friday, owing to the discovery of a plot to blow up the Federal Palace at Berne.

THE VOTE ON SILVER.

THE vote taken in the House on Thursday, on the silver-coinage question, although adverse to the cause of honest money, is encouraging and full of promise. Its chief significance lies in the fact that the campaign has opened, the first gun has been fired, an issue has been made, the ground has been cleared. This is what the opponents of the eighty-five-cent dollar have long desired. They have asked that a vote be taken so that the friends and enemies of the silver tax may be ranged and counted. This, thanks to Governor Cleveland, has been done. The vote shows a majority of 32 in the present House in favor of the eighty-five-cent dollar. The majority was composed of 118 Democrats and 32 Republicans, the minority of 54 Democrats and 64 Republicans. In the present House the Democrats have a majority of 75 members. In the next House they will have a majority of 38. They will be weaker by 37 members than they are now, and the Republicans will be stronger by that number. A change of 16 votes will reverse the majority, and there is very little doubt that this change has already been effected in the composition of the new House. The vote shows that of the Republican members present exactly two to one were in favor of suspending the coinage. If this proportion holds good as to the new members, there will be a net gain of twenty-four members to the anti-silver party, and a net loss of twenty-four to the other side, leaving the vote 142 to 126 in favor of honest money. The Republicans, it should be observed to their credit, remained, for the most part, true to their monetary convictions, and did not avail themselves of the opportunity to embarrass the new Administration.

We conceive it to be of the highest importance as an earnest of victory in the next Congress that Governor Cleveland has put himself on the record as the unflinching friend of an honest dollar. The Reagan-Bland faction have raised an outcry against what they call the interference of the President-elect in the affairs of legislation. Although it becomes his duty to recommend measures which he deems needful for the public welfare at any time after the 4th of March, they hold it to be presumptuous in him to express any opinion before that time, even in response to their own petition. In other words, they hold that he alone, of all private citizens, should observe a neutrality upon a question vitally affecting the administration of the public finances. It is sufficient to say upon this point that every new President exercises the right to indicate in general terms the policy he intends to pursue before his inauguration. President Lincoln did so in reference to secession, President Grant did so in regard to reconstruction, and President Hayes did so in regard to the pacification of the South.

Governor Cleveland's letter in reply to Congressman Warner's silver petition has won "golden opinions" from all sorts of people. While the argument which it offers in favor of discontinuing the coinage of silver is convincing and unanswerable, still the chief merit lies in the act of volition which led to the writing of any letter at all. The Warner petition did not call for an answer. It is not customary for Presidents to answer petitions in writing, still less is it customary for Presidents-elect to do so. It was quite optional with Governor Cleveland to reply or not to reply. The fact that he has replied is the significant thing. It shows that he is prepared to "take the bull by the horns." Regarded as a political move merely, nothing could have been more fortunate or timely. The people instinctively attach themselves to a man who has the courage of his opinions; and when the opinions themselves are right, when they bear the stamp of honesty as well as of courage, the political effect is apt to be very deep-seated and far-reaching. The respect with which the Republican press has been inspired for the author of the letter is perhaps the strongest testimony to its value. Their "cue" has been generally to represent Governor Cleveland as a small man, of feeble and muddy intellect, elevated by chance to a position in which he is sure to make himself and his supporters ridiculous. This theory, which has been honestly entertained by the great majority of Governor Cleveland's political opponents, was greatly shaken by his letter on civil-service reform, and has now been suddenly ruined by his letter on the silver question. The clear conception which the letter gives of the financial dangers involved in a change in the standard of value, and the intrepidity which prompted its publication directly in the face of an adverse vote from his party friends, have made an impression on thinking men in the Republican party which has found its unmistakable echo in the Republican press.

If the silver faction in the Democratic party think that they can afford to make trouble for the new Administration by fighting for the eighty-five-cent dollar, or for fiat money in any form, the way is undoubtedly open to them; but for every vote which they take away on this issue there will be a corresponding gain from the body of intelligent public opinion, and the change thus effected will be vastly to the advantage of the Administration, as it is always an advantage to gain an educated and well-grounded supporter in place of an ignorant and slippery one. But the danger of losing any considerable support by reason of taking a stand against the silver delusion is very trifling. The Southern people, who have constituted the major part of the silver faction, will be called upon to choose between a cordial support of the Administration and the alternative of a Republican victory in the next Congressional elections; for if the Democrats become responsible for a financial crisis, or if a crisis for any reason comes while they hold the reins of government, they will go out of power with a rush. This would be a calamity, from their point of view, far transcending any supposed advantages to be gained from an eighty-five-cent dollar. These advantages are wholly mythical and delusive, since the gain, if any, from the coinage of false dollars accrues to the Treasury and not to individuals. The Government allows nobody to take a silver dollar for less than one hundred cents. The law requires that the fifteen cents of real or supposed gain shall be deposited in the Treasury of the United States, and there is not the smallest chance that this feature of the law will ever be changed. Nobody who sells his labor or his property for silver dollars can get these dishonest tokens for less than one hundred cents each for a long time to come, if ever. When the Southern people find themselves compelled to choose between such a will-o'-the-wisp on the one hand, and a manly support of the Administration which they called into existence on the other, their better instincts will compel them to abandon the former and adhere manfully to the latter. They will never find in the seductions of bad money any compensation for the political calamities which would flow from financial disaster occurring during a period of Democratic rule. Governor Cleveland has put himself on "bed-rock" and cannot be disturbed. His position on silver is no longer open to dispute.

AN EXPENSIVE BLUNDER.

THE question of what we are to find for the convicts in our State prisons to do, now that we have decided to abolish the contract-labor system, is a very perplexing one. Several solutions of it are proposed at Albany, but the legislative mind is evidently in an almost hopeless muddle on the whole subject. The only point which is clear enough for everybody to see is, that the State is certain to be taxed heavily for several years to come to pay the expenses of its prisons. The Superintendent of Prisons says that the outlay necessary for this year alone will be $730,000; that next year $1,800,000 will be required; that the year after that the sum necessary will be $2,500,000—making more than $5,000,000 within three years. This will be necessary in order to establish a new system and to pay the expense of supporting the convicts while the change is being made. There is no pretence that after the new system has been agreed upon and adopted, the State will be able to pay expenses on an investment so large as that.

The various steps by which the State has been led into this unfortunate position are striking evidence of the harm which a few demagogues can accomplish. Previous to 1877 our State prisons were a heavy burden upon the taxpayers, costing nearly a million dollars a year above their earnings. In 1877 the contract-system of labor was adopted, and under that the earnings of the prisons steadily increased while the expenses diminished, so that in 1884 the prisons were more than self-supporting, earning $10,657 above expenses. In 1883, however, the professional friends of labor started the cry that this contract convict labor was injuring the honest workingmen by reducing the price of commodities, and consequently reducing wages. It was an old cry revived in a new form. For many years bills used to be introduced at Albany restricting in various ways the kinds of work which convicts were to be allowed to do. Some of these declared that a convict should be allowed to work at no mechanical trade other than the one he had worked at before sentence; others specified that no convicts should be permitted to do any work which came in conflict with free labor except stone breaking and quarrying. They all ignored the idea that the prisons were in any sense reformatory institutions, wherein a convict might learn a trade by which he could earn an honest

livelihood after his discharge. The attack upon the contract system was made in the same spirit. It was made in the Legislature of 1883, when the fear of the labor vote was especially aggravated, and the result was that a bill was passed providing for submitting to the people the question of abolishing the system. The proposition was not a constitutional amendment, as the *Tribune Almanac* erroneously calls it, but simply a ballot on the question. The total vote of the State in that election was 903,641. The total vote on the contract-labor question was only 673,254, of which 405,882 was for abolition and 266,296 against. Less than a majority of all persons voting favored the change, and it is entirely probable that many thousands of those favoring it had no intelligent idea of what they were doing. The vote was, however, taken by the Legislature as a popular instruction which was not to be disregarded, and at the session of 1884 a law was passed abolishing the system at the expiration of existing contracts.

In every way the abolition was a step backward. Not only had the contract system made the prisons self-supporting, but it had also proved of great and unmistakable advantage in reforming the lives of the convicts. All authorities upon prisons agree that the recommitment of men who have acquired trades during their sentences is very rare. In the four New York State prisons, which now have 3,334 inmates, only 13 per cent. are recommittals. Out of 1,758 convicts discharged from Auburn prison during the past five years only 47 were returned. Out of 788 discharged from Sing Sing in 1881 only 38 were returned, and out of 1,415 discharged from three prisons in 1880 only 53 were returned. The contract system, instead of confining the prisoners to work in stone quarries and at other irksome employment, has taught thousands of men who became lawbreakers simply because they had no honest means of earning a livelihood, a trade by which they could support themselves honestly and respectably after discharge. The agitators who have overthrown this system are now urging the adoption of one which will distribute the convicts throughout the counties of the State to work in gangs on the highways and in stone quarries, thus making it inevitable that at the end of their imprisonment they will be thrown upon society as incapable of earning an honest living as they were when sentenced. No surer way of keeping a man who was once a criminal always a criminal and always a burden upon the State could be devised. The excuse given for it is of course the old one that free labor is injured by the competition of unpaid convict labor.

Statistics fail to show that this excuse has any foundation in fact. There are, in the penal institutions of the whole country in which productive labor is performed, including men, women, and children, only about 53,000 persons. Of this number fully one-half are employed in work about the prisons, which in no way competes with free labor. The other half, say 26,000, do work in about thirty different varieties of trades. A very interesting table, showing the percentage of the competition between convict and free labor in each of these trades, was presented recently to the Assembly Committee on Prisons, at Albany, by Mr. John S. Perry, a stove manufacturer and prison contractor. By this it was shown that in these thirty trades there were more than 1,000,000 free laborers employed against 26,000 convicts; that the average ratio of convict to free labor was but about 2½ per cent. when account was taken only of the free labor employed in establishments which annually produce over $500 of goods; that when the thousands of citizens employed in small shops were included together with the thousands of skilled mechanics arriving yearly as immigrants, the ratio of convict to free labor was so small as to be inappreciable; that the annual output of the million or more free laborers in these trades was $1,576,526,682, against the output of 26,000 convicts producing less than 12,000 free laborers—the average output of a prisoner being only about one-half that of a free man. The idea that competition of this sort can have any influence upon the rate of wages or upon the price of commodities, taken as a whole, is absurd. It is possible that in certain localities the wages of a few workmen may be reduced by prison competition, but suppose they are? Shall the whole State be taxed to support the prisons because if convicts are made to support themselves a few laborers outside the prisons may possibly receive lower wages? Shall we tax a thousand farmers in order to keep up the wages of one mechanic? and shall we at the same time make the tax perpetual by refraining from teaching the convicts to labor intelligently and honestly? The proposition is as selfish as it is absurd. We have said that the competition of prison labor may "possibly" affect the wages of free labor, but we do not believe it does affect it otherwise than in a merely local and limited way. The amount of any article furnished by prison labor is so small when compared with the total product of the country as to be of little account.

What the Legislature will do to lighten the burden which the people have been misled into taking upon themselves is uncertain. There are several bills pending, but only two solutions of the problem are proposed which are worth consideration. One of these is called the State account system, in which the prisons become State manufactories, the prisoners working for the State and the State selling their products. In order to limit the competition with free labor, the number of convicts employed in any one trade is limited to 5 per cent. of the whole number. This plan makes it necessary for the State to lay out large sums for the purchase of machinery, which, under the old system, was furnished by the contractors. The second plan is known as the "piece price" system, by which the State would furnish the labor and machinery, or labor alone, and manufacture from materials furnished by outsiders, receiving a fixed sum per piece for the product. It is difficult to see how these two plans differ in principle from the old. They are just as likely to interfere with free labor as the old was, and the difficulty of regulating them so as to avoid such interference will be too great to be surmounted. They will cost the State thousands of dollars where the old plan was self-supporting, and that is likely to be the chief result of the change.

THE MUSSULMAN BUGBEAR.

THE straits to which some of the most conscientious and peace-loving politicians in England are reduced in order to find an excuse for approving of the prosecution of the war in the Sudan even after Gordon's death, are curiously illustrated in the case of the *Spectator*. This journal, which makes a point of applying not only morals but even religion to politics, said in its issue of February 7th that the arguments, both moral and political, were about equal in favor either of continuing the war or abandoning it. A week's reflection, however, and the subtle influence, doubtless, of the rising tide of popular wrath, made it say on the 15th of February:

> "But before it is achieved [the capture of Khartum], thousands of English homes will be desolate and every English house will be poorer; and when it is achieved, but one thing will have been gained that was worth gaining. We shall have acquired no new empire, and no prestige that is worth having—think how the world forgot the fall of Theodore—and no satisfaction to our consciences; but we shall have checked, perhaps stopped, that extraordinary revival of aggressive and martial Mohammedanism, Mohammedanism with its old offer of conversion, submission, or the sword, which once more threatens the progress of civilization, and may, if it is not stopped, throw Western Asia, India, and Northern Africa centuries back upon their path. That is the sole reason for attacking the Mahdi."

The truth is, that everybody in England who is restrained by moral or religious sentiment from declaring in favor of a war of simple vengeance—which is what most of the Jingoes demand—and yet advocates a continuance of the attempt to "smash the Mahdi," is compelled to shelter himself behind this bugbear of a Mussulman revival. There is no sign anywhere of a revival of Mohammedanism as a conquering faith. Anybody who believes in it is really the victim of a hallucination, and this, we imagine, is the case of the *Spectator*, which has long had Mahomet on the brain, if we may use the expression. After the massacre of Hicks Pasha's force it fairly revelled in terror over the prospect of a new Crescentade. "Either," it said, "we misread the Arabs altogether, or in a month the French will be fighting for their lives from Gabes to Morocco." The Mahdi was to send the news to the Tunisians and Algerian Mussulmans by "swift dromedaries," and there was to be a general rising against the infidels all through North Africa. We ridiculed this at the time, saying that "the notion that there was enough Mussulman fanaticism left anywhere in the East to produce a formidable movement is a chimera. Whenever this fanaticism during the last forty years has been tested for warlike purposes, it has been found all but dead." This view has been fully confirmed by events. There was no rising or sign of rising in any of the French possessions, or in any part of the Mussulman world, in consequence of anything which occurred in the Sudan. The Mahdi has shown no disposition to leave the region in which he has the support both of an oppressed population and of ruined slave-traders. If he were now left alone in his dominions, we should probably hear little of him during his lifetime, except from enterprising travellers.

In order to convince the British public that they have a good excuse for "smashing the Mahdi," the seat of aggressive Mussulman fanaticism has been transferred, by those who believe in it, from Africa to India. It is now

the India Mussulmans who, on hearing that the Mahdi has taken Khartum, are to rise in a terrible revolt. Nobody who knows India well, and has a cool head, has, however, come forward to sustain this idea. The Indian Mussulmans are numerous, but they are the most cowed and dejected portion of the Indian population. They not only have been deprived of their old power, but have been left behind by the other creeds in the race for distinction under British rule. The mutiny in 1857 was essentially a Hindu mutiny. The great military races who now make the bone and sinew of the British native army—the Rajputs, and Sikhs, and Ghoorkas, are not Mussulmans at all. Moreover, the Indian Mussulmans did not show the slightest disinclination to serve against their brother Mussulmans, either in Afghanistan in 1879, or in Egypt in 1883, and are now volunteering readily for service in the Sudan. The greatest living alarmist about the future of British India is Vámbéry, the Hungarian traveller and savant, but it is the Russian terror, from the North, which he preaches.

The truth is, that the only place in which Mohammedanism to-day shows signs of revival is in Central Africa, where it is making many converts among the negroes and other non-Arab races. The reason of this seems obvious enough. The Arabs are the superior and warlike race, from whose slave raids all the other tribes within their reach have suffered for ages. To become a Mussulman is to rise to something like an equality with them in the social scale, if not to secure protection against slaughter or slavery. Southward, therefore, among the savages, Mohammedanism retains something of its old impetus. Everywhere else it is, from the mundane point of view, a dying creed. All the great Mohammedan states of the world which fanaticism once built up are dead or declining. The Mogul Empire has perished within the last century. Tunis and Algiers have been wiped out of existence under the eyes of this generation. Tripoli exists till Italy likes to seize it. Egypt is held by four or five English regiments. The Ottoman Empire, the most powerful embodiment of Mussulman zeal and capacity the Western world has seen, is slowly disappearing. It is almost extinct in Europe. Any Christian Power could to-day kill it by a blow. The Grand Signor of the Venetians reigns in Constantinople by sufferance. What is more striking still is, that the far-off and mysterious land from which Tamerlane and Genghis Khan issued forth at the head of immense hosts, conquering and to conquer in the Prophet's name, and which no infidel could until our own day penetrate without danger to his life, is almost within reach of Cook's tourists. Russia owns Khiva, has Bokhara and Samarcand under her control, and will probably, in a few years, have the Mussulmans of Central Asia as mild, and peaceable, and submissive as the once terrible Tartars of the Crimea. Persia, too, barely keeps alive; whether it can survive closer contact with Russia is one of the problems to-day of Oriental politics. The Afghans are fanatical, but their fanaticism is not aggressive, and asks only to be let alone in their mountains.

In fact, the most impressive political change of the last two centuries is the deliverance of Christendom from the Mussulman terror, through the rapid decline of Mussulman energy. The true believers for nearly a thousand years excelled the Christians in the art of war. They have, since the siege of Vienna, been rapidly falling behind them, and repeated defeats and retreating frontiers have killed their old faith in the sword; so that any use of a Mohammedan revival to-day to justify a war in Central Africa is almost grotesque in its absurdity. It is somewhat like the French use of the Krumirs as an excuse for seizing Tunis, which was sadly exposed by the inability of the invading force to find a well authenticated specimen of these dreaded and fanatical marauders.

RICE AS CONTRABAND.

THE despatches with regard to the declaration of the French Government of its intention to treat rice as contraband of war have been rather confusing. It is not easy to see how a Government which has not formally proclaimed war, and will not admit that it exists, can issue a proclamation asserting rights which can only be derived from a state of war. Nor is it, on the face of the matter, any easier to perceive how even a country at war can forbid a neutral to export provisions from a belligerent country.

The law of contraband is very simple in principle. It is not right or just that a country like England, or Germany, or the United States, professing to be entirely neutral, should furnish either France or China with the means of carrying on war against the other. Such an act is clearly a violation of neutral good faith. To prevent such breaches of faith two remedies are provided by international law, one the rule (of which we availed ourselves in the *Alabama* dispute) that the neutral government must prevent any use of its territory as a basis for hostile expeditions against either belligerent, must stop the enlistment of men, arrest the departure of war vessels, and in short prohibit any direct participation by its citizens in the war; the other the rule that the citizens of the neutral must not carry into the belligerent ports articles which directly conduce to the promotion of the war—*e. g.*, cannon, guns, and arms of any kind, powder and shot, warlike instruments or materials from their own nature fit to be used in war. All such things are called contraband of war, and are liable to seizure and confiscation by the belligerent. This remedy is one which is in the hands of the belligerent. If the goods are contraband, they are liable to seizure by his war-vessels, and to condemnation in the prize-courts of the captor. The decision of such courts is a finality, and hence, in the absence of treaties governing the subject, we must generally look to the decisions of such courts to ascertain what is and what is not contraband of war.

Articles may become contraband under certain circumstances which would not be contraband under others. As Lord Granville very clearly put the matter at the commencement of our civil war, in the course of a debate in the House of Lords, "What is contraband of war must vary from time to time according to the character of the war which is carried on. There are certain articles which are clearly contraband of war, but there are certain other articles the character of which can be determined only by the circumstances of the case, as, for instance, the ports for which they are destined, and various other incidents which can be properly judged of only in a prize-court. The decision of such a court, *unless there has been a flagrant violation of international law*, all those who have recognized the rights of the belligerents must accept." In other words, the merchant of a neutral nation who undertakes to carry on trade with a belligerent does so at his peril. If he is caught by the belligerent carrying in what the latter thinks is contraband, he finds out whether the belligerent is right by the decision of the belligerent to confiscate his cargo or to let it go. As a rule, he is in exactly the position of the Irishman on trial, who said that he could not tell whether he was guilty or not until he heard the verdict. It will be noticed that Lord Granville excepts the case where there has been "a flagrant violation of international law." When there has been such a flagrant violation—as, for instance, if the belligerent were to seize and condemn all cargoes indiscriminately, or to declare contraband some article trading in which could clearly have no effect on the war—then this would be an offence against the citizens of a neutral nation, which their Government itself would take up and demand indemnity for.

All these principles are undisputed, and the case which we have just suggested actually arose between this Government and England during the troubles with France in the last century. England, then a belligerent, did not dare actually to confiscate all American cargoes of American provisions destined for France, but, by an order in council, issued in April, 1795, instructed its cruisers to stop all vessels laden with corn, flour, meal and other articles of provisions, and bound to any port in France, and to send them to such ports as might be convenient, in order that the cargoes might be purchased on behalf of the Government. At the close of the war the question of the legality of this order came before a mixed commission, and the whole subject of the right to confiscate provisions when there was a prospect of reducing the enemy to terms by famine, and when consequently provisions would conduce to the prosecution of the war, was fully considered, and the Commissioners decided that the owners of the American vessels and cargoes must be fully indemnified.

From all this it will be seen that it is a most unusual thing for a neutral government to interfere in advance to prevent a belligerent from seizing and confiscating contraband. It would only be done in a very flagrant and obvious case. The fact, therefore, that an active correspondence is going on on the subject of the proclamation against rice between the English and French Governments shows that such a case, in the opinion of the former, has arisen, and why this is so it is not very difficult to see. Not only has there been no regular declaration of war, and not only does the decree take the question out of the hands of the courts and decide in advance that a certain article is contraband, and that article a species of provisions, but the article is not

something which neutrals are generally engaged in importing into China, but is a Chinese *export*. The latest despatch on the subject gives the following explanation of the exact nature of the decree: "Lord Lyons, the British Ambassador, replying to a communication from Premier Ferry, saying that the French prohibition of the carrying of rice to or from Chinese ports applied only to ports north of Canton, refused to admit the right of France to treat rice as contraband of war on any part of the coast of China, and gave notice that France would be held responsible for indemnities claimed by English shippers."

If this gives an accurate account of the correspondence, it would seem as if the decree were in some way connected with the alleged blockade of the Island of Formosa which France insists upon. Under the declaration of Paris, made in 1856, and the universal practice of modern civilized nations, a blockade (which keeps out not only merely contraband, but all commerce), to be recognized by a neutral, must be effective—that is, if France is at war and is blockading Formosa, the blockade has nothing to do with contraband, and no decree in France about rice or any other article of commerce can make it more or less effective. A blockade is enforced not by decrees, but by ships of war. On the other hand, if the question is one simply of contraband, there are all the objections to making rice contraband that we have mentioned above, and one more, that it is made contraband in one part of China and not in another, and is applied to exports from as well as imports into China. Taking all these facts into account, it looks as if the case of a "flagrant violation of international law," suggested twenty-five years ago, had arisen, and it is most fortunate for the interests of all neutral nations that Earl Granville should have taken an early and positive stand about it. The high-handed course pursued by France in China is something in which all civilized commercial nations have a direct interest.

ENGLAND AND ITALY.

PARIS, February 12, 1885.

THE Germans, who are very scientific, have lately introduced an astronomical expression into political language: they give the name of constellation to a group of Powers united, if not by formal treaties, at least by a certain community of interests; and as these interests may be changing, or opposed by other and stronger interests, the constellations may change at times in the political sky. We have now before us in Europe a constellation which may be called of the first magnitude—it is the constellation of Germany, of Austria, and of Russia; a recent interview has again shown it to the world, "et nunc erudimini gentes." We know that in this aggregation of imperial Powers Prussia is the centre of gravity; Austria at first was somewhat reluctantly drawn into it, but since the journey of Prince Bismarck to Vienna, the alliance, founded on the sentiment, if not of German unity, at least of German solidarity, has become the most important factor in European politics. It is felt that in certain emergencies Germany would bring together such a host as has never been seen since Napoleon invaded Russia with the "grande armée"; from the Baltic to the Adriatic there would be an overwhelming obstacle opposed to all effort coming from the west or from the east. This alliance is so formidable that, by the mere force of gravity, as it were, Russia has been drawn into the German constellation. The Slavophiles have struggled in vain—in vain have appeals been made to the national sentiment by enthusiastic generals, by writers, by journalists; these spasmodic efforts have been futile. The leading minds in Russia have, so to speak, disarmed; they understand that Russia, irresistible and perhaps invincible at home, has no great offensive powers. She has an inexhaustible supply of men, but, in one sense, she is still in the inorganic state. "On the frontier of Germany," a Russian once said to me, "we can open a door and let out any number of horsemen; we can make a sort of inundation of men, but where? In enormous and thinly-inhabited provinces. It will be like a river spreading over an immense plain. We cannot get possession of any vital points, and should soon have to retire as the water recedes after an inundation and disappears by evaporation." In Russia there is a sort of electric light at St. Petersburg, a very powerful light, which throws its rays to a great distance: it is the court, the central Government, the guard, the great powers of the state; but outside of the circle of this electric light all is obscurity, silence, and death. Immense regions remain in a sort of social and political darkness. Germany is now, as it has always been, the civilizing element. The Russians like to quarrel with their civilizers, as a boy likes to quarrel with his master; but, after a while, the court influences, the ruling powers, always incline again toward Germany. The late interview of the three Emperors did not place Russia exactly on the same footing as Austria in the great Continental constellation: Russia remains a little in the background. Her hands have been tied; she has made sacrifices, and in return she has obtained distinct promises.

What the arrangements of Skierniewice may have been remains a mystery; it is, however, safe to say that they have tended toward the consolidation of peace in Europe, and toward a settlement of the Eastern question. Many rumors are abroad, but they are mere rumors. It is said that Russia has been allowed to extend herself to her heart's content in Central Asia and in Asia Minor; that Austria is free to extend her influence in the direction of Salonica, and of the Ægean Sea; that in case Salonica should fall into her hands, the character of Trieste might be changed, and this great port might become more German than Austrian, perhaps by a new boundary of Bavaria. This question of Trieste brings us naturally to consider the rôle of Italy. There was a time when Italy expected to be drawn into the German constellation. There had been approaches made by her and to her. The old feud with Austria seemed to be forgotten, guarantees had been given against "Italia irredenta," the names of Trentino and of Trieste were no longer to be pronounced. This was the time when, to the great disgust of Italy, France set foot in the province of Tunis. It seemed as if Rome had been despoiled of Carthage, as if Italy had been robbed of one of her legitimate possessions. The ill will against France took the form of friendship for the Germans. These Germanic demonstrations, however, had not much effect; Italy wasted her time, and she felt angry and disgusted on finding out that her alliance was not more valued by the great Continental Powers. She was not deemed, perhaps, a very safe friend; the Germans did not think enough of her navy or her army; it was perhaps thought necessary in Berlin to spare the feelings of Vienna, and a close alliance with Rome would certainly have offended Vienna. Whatever the reasons may have been, the German enthusiasm of the Italians was allowed to cool down. But as Italy is quite determined to have her influence felt, and as she can change her position very rapidly, she soon remembered that England could be no more satisfied than she was herself with the existence in the midst of Europe of a nucleus of political forces, almost overwhelming in their united strength. England seemed to be ignored, like herself, by the new arbiters of the Continent. It seemed as if she was put out of Europe. Italy remembered that though England had given to her neither men nor money in her great struggle for independence and unity, she had always lent her moral support. Gladstone, Lord Palmerston, Lord John Russell, had been her warmest friends. They had found fault with Napoleon III. when he made the peace of Villafranca. England had encouraged all the annexations—of Parma, of Modena, of Tuscany, of the Papal States, of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Garibaldi had been received in England with enthusiasm. In short, England and Italy were natural allies. They had the same cause, they were both liberal kingdoms, they were both hostile to the preponderance in Europe of old-fashioned despotic military kingdoms and empires. The Italian newspapers are full of sympathy for the English; a specialist paper, the *Esercito Italiano*, writes, for instance:

"The battle of Abu-Klea, which resulted in such severe loss to General Stewart's column, has shown that the English soldier has in no way degenerated, and that he does not stop to count the number of the enemy when the hour for battle has struck. . . . We see that even a small army under commanders well trained in the art of war, and who are determined to conquer or to die, may, when called upon, rout an adversary much superior in numbers, as the English army has shown in all the wars fought by it during this century in Europe, in Asia, and at the two extremities of the African continent."

The question now arises, Is there a distinct understanding between England and Italy, or does Italy seize the opportunity of England's troubles in Egypt to offer her help and to take a part of the spoils? This question has been asked in the Italian Parliament and has not been distinctly answered. One thing is certain: Italy has taken possession of a point on the coast of the Red Sea, she is making great preparations at home, she is arming her heaviest ships. It seems as if she was undertaking a great task, still undefined and obscure. The tone of the English press with regard to this action on the part of Italy is not precisely amiable. The first impression was: "England *farà da se*." I met an Englishman a few days ago, and on remarking to him (it was just after the news of the fall of Khartum), "So, the Italians are going to help you." "Yes," replied he, "if we let them."

Those who know the Italians well, however, maintain that Italy has been watching her opportunity; that ever since the conquest of Tunis by France she has been looking round, "quærens quem devoret." They remark that in the long and irksome negotiations about the Egyptian finances, Italy has alone stood on the side of England. They say that she is far too prudent to enter the Red Sea without some secret, distinct, and written agreement with the English Government. Time will show if this view is correct; I confess that, for my part, I am very much inclined to share it. At any rate, if the constellation of England and Italy is still in the nebulous state, everything tends to show that it will soon take a visible form. Italy will not wound the pride of England, and she will say that England is quite competent to take care of her own affairs single-handed. This will not prevent her from making pretensions of her own and eventually the interests of the two countries will be more and more entangled.

Under ordinary circumstances it would be natural that France—a Republic, a Government apparently founded on liberal principles—should

fall into the constellation of England and of Italy. But who can say what will happen in France? The question of Tunis has made a wide breach between her and Italy. The energies of France are spent in a distant enterprise in Tonquin, which has not been looked upon with much favor by England. If we regarded only appearances, nothing would be more unlikely than a triple alliance of England, Italy, and France; at the same time, it would be clearly the advantage of France to emerge from her present isolation. The Continental alliance of the Emperors is directed especially against her, it is like a dagger perpetually aimed at her head. The frivolous encouragements of Germany, her caresses, her demonstrations on all colonial questions, cannot blind a serious mind to the brutal fact that sooner or later there must be a new trial of strength between France and Germany. It would be therefore for the interest of France, without committing herself to any important course, to draw nearer to England and to Italy, since England and Italy are allied by necessity. The difficulty for France, however, is, not to have a good policy, but any policy. Parliamentary government has become too blind, too narrow; the leaders think only of to-morrow, for "to-morrow, we die."

Correspondence.

THE TOCSIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Cleveland's letter upon the silver question rings like the sound of a trumpet, and justifies the hope that we have at last a President who dares to have an opinion of his own. Now we shall see whether an appeal to the nation by its chosen leader to come to the rescue of its endangered currency, has any power against a knot of silver-mine owners, who, through the intrigues of the lobby, are determined to make all the other interests of the country minister and pay tribute to theirs. But the significance of the letter is much wider than its relation to the coinage of silver, however important that may be. It declares in effect that the Executive has a right to a policy and a national policy—as opposed to that of Congress, which must always be powerfully modified, if not wholly determined, by local influences.

For the development of this position, the tariff offers a golden opportunity. We may imagine the President in his opening message to Congress saying something like the following: "The condition of the tariff imperatively demands attention, whether from the point of view of surplus revenue, involving temptation to extravagant expenditure, or from that of the commerce and manufactures of the country. A question so complex cannot be settled by a simple aye-and-no vote, and the interests which have been created or modified by the fiscal conditions of the last twenty years are too vast to be dealt with by any single comprehensive and radical measure. The proper treatment of the subject demands a course of careful, continuous, and detailed experiment. The only authority which officially represents the interest of the nation as a whole in this particular is the Secretary of the Treasury. It is respectfully submitted for the consideration of Congress, whether the public interest would not be promoted by the admission of the Secretary to a share in the public discussion of the subject on the floor, or in the House of Representatives."

Possibly it may appear to some persons an impertinence thus to put words in the mouth of the President. But since so many of his friends have kindly given their time and thoughts for the last two months to making up his Cabinet, others may regard it as a delicate attention to offer to furnish him with a policy. G. B.

Boston, February 28, 1885.

CONGRESS IN PARALYSIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You were once good enough to let me say a word in the *Nation* about and against letting the Cabinet have seats in Congress. I want to withdraw that word. I have been several times in Washington since I wrote, and there and everywhere one cannot fail to see that Congress is in a state of paralysis, and cannot control or discharge its function of law-making. Mr. John A. Kasson a year ago expressed to me his utter disheartenment at the utter incapacity of action Congress persisted in. He seemed to think, as I recall it, that an amendment of the rules was necessary; but surely there is little help in that. A prominent parliamentarian of the House told me lately that one of the well-known leaders of the House said to him, in talking of the rules, that it would never do to have it so the body of the members could pass any bill they chose, or words to that effect. Any one in Washington, at any part of the present session, would soon find that the great body of the members were in an angry frame of mind because four or five men were controlling, in a repressive way, the work of the House. If it had been an acknowledged dictatorship, with affirmative and directing power, it would have been better, but it was unacknowledged, indirect, negative, and merely obstructive. A Democratic friend suggests to us a constitutional amendment directing that the Cabinet shall be chosen from the Congress and continue members thereof. If that is done, or if Cabinet members are chosen outside of Congress and admitted to seats and debate by act of Congress (which is probably the better and more attainable way), Congress should concurrently with that use the power given it by Section 2 Article II of the Constitution to place the appointment of all Federal officials not therein named in the courts, or leave it to the President or the heads of departments, with such clear and specific civil-service rules as would strip these appointments of any collusive or corrupting factorship in any possible relation between Congress and the Administration. This need would also be avoided if these offices were filled by election.

I do not abate reluctance to an increase of the power of the Executive over the Legislative, but I yield to the need that Congress shall be a law-making power, and not as now a body of sheer inanity. There must be some plan invented by which it and the country will know that it is in session for some specific purpose, and will do some specific work. It is now blind-man's buff, and disheartening and discreditable to this country when compared with the clear-cut ministry-directed work of the English Parliament.

S. M. C.

Keokuk, Iowa, February 17, 1885.

ATHEIST WITNESSES IN MASSACHUSETTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial paragraph referring to the debate in the Massachusetts General Court upon the bill to remove the restrictions upon the testimony of atheists, shows some misapprehension of the existing law upon the subject. The present rule does not absolutely exclude the testimony of atheists, as you would seem to imply, but merely provides that their credibility may be disparaged by the introduction of evidence as to their disbelief in God. The provision of the statutes is as follows (Pub. Stats. ch. 169, section 17):

"Every person not a believer in any religion shall be required to testify truly under the pains and penalties of perjury; and the evidence of such person's disbelief in the existence of God may be received to affect his credibility as a witness."

The clause is, at the best, sufficiently shameful, though not, perhaps, of great practical hardship to litigants. A jury is hardly likely to discredit the testimony of a truthful-appearing man simply because the Legislature has placed a stigma upon him. But as a matter of principle, the enactment would seem to be a vicious one, through which, at some time or other, the Legislature will draw the pen. R.

Boston, February 28.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your admirable comment on the refusal of the Senate of Massachusetts to repeal the law by which witnesses may be discredited for unbelief, it is said that "The principle that religious belief has nothing to do with, and ought to have nothing to do with, a man's credibility as a witness is now acknowledged in the jurisprudence of most civilized countries, including twenty-eight States of this Union." Permit me to say that the number of such States and Territories would be more correctly given as eighteen, namely: Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Idaho, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Wisconsin, Texas, and Vermont. In Massachusetts, as in the District of Columbia, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Maine, Nebraska, and Utah, atheists and agnostics can testify, but are liable to be discredited, the provision in this State being the same as against convicted criminals.

A jury at East Cambridge was recently persuaded, on account of a physician's acknowledging his atheism, to disbelieve his testimony to the incompetency of his patient, Miss Caira Robbins, to make a will. Here, as in the Swaim court-martial, where De Akers was forbidden to testify on account of agnosticism, the real wrong was to parties not known to be heterodox. All such proceedings violate the equal right of every citizen to have his life and property protected by the laws. F. M. Holland.

Concord, Mass., February 28.

DEGREES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Please permit me to correct the statement made in No. 1025 of the *Nation*, that "one cannot by mere length of attendance, or even by high attainments, secure a degree from the University of Virginia, but only by 'standing' all of the examinations for which a *formal application* is made," and that "comparatively few students make this formal application."

As a former student and a graduate of the University of Virginia, I can say from actual observation that very few of those whose attainments are sufficient to give them any hope of success in "standing" the examinations in their respective schools fail to make the requisite formal application. In nearly all of the schools in the University there are, during the academic year, two examinations—the intermediate, held near the middle of the session, and the final, held at or near the close. For leave to stand the intermediate examination no application has to be made; and it often happens that the failure of the student is so great in this that he does not think it worth while to stand the final examination, and conse-

quently does not "apply." Nevertheless, it is frequently the case that, even in those schools in which the examinations are most difficult, and the degree of graduate hardest to obtain, a very large proportion make formal application and stand the final examination. For example, in the school of Latin, during the session of 1878-9, certainly one-half, and perhaps more than two-thirds, of the senior class of that school "applied" and were examined for graduation, while only between twenty and twenty-five—about one-third of the whole class—were successful. The exact figures are not before me, but my statements are substantially correct.

At the University of Virginia, as at other schools, high attainments outside the course of study required for a particular degree do not count for one who is seeking to obtain that degree. But there is no school in the country which affords less ground for the complaint that high attainments do not tell. The courses of study for which degrees are conferred are numerous and entirely elective; and if the student desires a higher title than that of "graduate," which belongs to all who have been graduated in any of the schools of the University, he need have little difficulty in finding a course of study which will satisfy his desire for a degree, and, at the same time, give him full scope for his tastes and aptitudes, and an opportunity to display his "high attainments," if he has made any. The formal application to "stand" examinations is a very easy and simple matter, and, as it saves the professors the annoyance of looking over some worthless examination papers, is a very reasonable regulation. As it is merely a matter of form, and may be made at almost any time, and does not even bind the student making it to attend his examinations, it is very generally made even by many who do not fully intend to attempt their examinations when they make the application. Away from the University, "I didn't apply" is doubtless often made to cover a multitude of sins, etc. J. B. M.

Wilmington, Del., February 20, 1885.

PROHIBITION AND LICENSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In commenting, in your last issue, on a letter from Bangor concerning the results of the prohibition law in Maine, you say:

"The statistics show that the prohibitory law, instead of suppressing the liquor traffic, forces it to be conducted quietly. Undoubtedly it acts as a strong check upon it, but an equally strong check would be exercised by a high-license law, by which the State would gather a revenue."

In one aspect of the case this is quite true, and it is nowhere better illustrated than by the experience of the city which has for the largest periods tried both systems. The following table, founded on the reports of the Police Commissioners of the city of Boston, and on C. D. Wright's Statistics of Labor, shows the comparative proportion of the cases of intoxication coming under the notice of the police in that city under the two systems known as prohibition and high license:

Year.		Number of cases of arrest or assistance for drunkenness to each 1,000 of population.	Average weekly wage of all employees.
1869,	Prohibition	88	
1870,	"	84	
1871,	"	75	
1872,	"	64	$11 00
1873,	"	61	
1874,	"	57	10 98
1875,	License	51	10 05
1876,	"	45	
1877,	"	41	
1878,	"	39	9 51
1879,	"	43	
1880,	"	51	9 45
1881,	"	56	10 40
1882,	"	51	
1883,	"	49	

These figures are significant, not only because they prove your statement that neither law acts as more than a check on the liquor traffic, but also in showing that the abuse of liquor (and undoubtedly its use) varies much more in accordance with the rise and fall of wages than with any alteration in the law.

From 1869 to 1878 the cases of arrest or assistance for drunkenness fell off steadily under both prohibitory and license laws, as the rate of wages went down. From 1879 to 1881, as wages increased, the number of cases rose with equal steadiness under the same license law. Since 1882, again, the same law has seen the decline of wages, which then began, followed by a decrease of drunkenness. Evidently the average workman does not take to drink when he gets out of work.

So far as can be observed, the same variations seem to have taken place in Maine under a continuous prohibitory law.

But is there not one aspect of the question which you have omitted? Your statement that no law can stop drinking is true, not because of any peculiar fallacy in the prohibitory law, but simply from the nature of men in general. Whatever a man intensely wants and craves, that he will in some way contrive to get, in spite of any prohibitory laws, whether it be liquor or dynamite, a Bible or a church. The drunkard will get his liquor under either prohibitory or license laws.

But is it not equally true that, while a license law may check unlawful selling, it must, in the long run, inevitably increase the general consumption of liquor at public bars, simply because it increases for the general public and the young men yearly coming to the front the ease of obtaining liquor and the attractions with which it may be presented? And this, not because of any inherent defect in any license system in particular, but because of the general law, that not only does a demand create a supply, but a supply of anything in itself agreeable creates a demand—a law which has been so amply illustrated in our day by the increased demand which has followed the supplying of cheap fruits, the extension of railways, the building of tramways, the cheapening of books, and the multiplying of newspapers. Is there anything to show that the drink problem presents any exception to this otherwise universal law? Have you considered this side of the question? An Observer.

Boston, February 21, 1885.

COPIES FROM THE OLD MASTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What is said about copies of paintings in the communication of Mr. Salomon Reinach, published in your issue No. 1026, indicates some important misconceptions which, as you did not refer to them in your editorial comments, I beg to submit a few remarks upon.

It is by no means so easy to obtain good copies as your correspondent supposes. The production of a copy which shall faithfully render the copyable qualities of a masterpiece requires a preliminary training—in addition to natural gifts—such as young painters do not generally receive at this day anywhere in Europe. The aims and methods of the present European schools (whatever be their merits) are totally different from those of the great schools of the past. There is little in the instruction now given at Paris or Munich which tends to quicken a student's understanding of the excellences of Italian painting. As a consequence, the students of these schools do not usually appreciate what is best when they go to Italy. I have had abundant confirmation of this in observing what things the majority of them give their attention to there. The inadequacy of present Continental training in this respect is sufficiently shown by those same copies, sent to Paris by the *Prix de Rome* men, which Mr. Reinach characterizes as "excellent." They are very far from excellent. They are entirely wanting in expression of those refined qualities which are peculiarly Italian—as any discerning person may see who will visit the Gallery of Copies at the École des Beaux Arts, and will then pass over to the Louvre and compare the original work. The copies made by the majority of copyists who crowd the galleries of Europe have no educational value whatever, and the production of them is a sad waste of labor and material.

But very serviceable and even precious copies can be made; and galleries might be formed of them which would be of great value. They would be worth a great deal more than galleries of inferior originals, such as are now too rapidly forming in America. The qualifications requisite to enable a person to copy usefully must be acquired by a training in the principles and methods which prevailed in the schools whose works are to be copied. Such training can be obtained only by courses of study pursued chiefly in the galleries and churches of Italy. Courses of this kind, faithfully, intelligently, and sympathetically followed, are a means of real culture to those who engage in them, and copies produced by such persons may be a means of the best instruction to others.

But a trained and competent copyist cannot work for such low prices as Mr. Reinach names. The labor and mental strain (it is a profound mistake to suppose it a purely manual process) are much greater in copying than in original work. And for a good copy of Raphael's "Holy Family" on the scale mentioned by Mr. Reinach, an artist ought to receive at least five times as much as the 1,500 francs which he names as the price for which it may be procured.

Yours truly, Charles H. Moore.

Harvard University, March 2, 1885.

[What Mr. Moore says of the difference between the aims and methods of the present European schools as contrasted with those of the great schools of the past is perfectly true, as is what he says of the educational value of the "copyists who crowd the galleries of Europe," as a general thing; but from some others of his conclusions we are disposed to differ. The copyist requires not so much a preliminary training as a peculiar constitution. The training which will fit him for copying the old masters is in the practice of copying, and is not to be got in any other way; and the man (or woman) who makes the best copyist is generally devoid of any striking ability for original work. A painter of great individuality and original power will never be a good copyist, for even if he had the ability, he would not sacrifice the time and labor necessary to make himself an adept in a kind of work which would be slavery to him. He may now and then, for the sake of the training, make a thorough copy of a favorite master, but he will carry it no further. As a rule, the best copyists have little or no original powers, and for painters of this kind, who devote their lives to copying, the estimates of Mr. Reinach are not, in our opinion, too low. Of course, an American student going out to Europe would measure the value of his copy by the price he got for his original work at home, which is much in excess of that paid for better results to an experienced copyist by profession, to whom the "labor and mental strain" supposed by Mr. Moore are slight compared to those exacted from a painter whose

habitual work goes in another groove. As we know nothing of "the principles and methods which prevailed in the schools whose works are to be copied," except as we find them in the works themselves, it is only by copying them that they can be learned; and as modern work has nothing in common, as to purpose or ideal, with these works, it is only from the *professed* copyist that we can expect this devotion or the success we demand for an educational copy. It is useless, therefore, to expect our copies from the young artists sent out to study in Europe; and here Mr. Reinach, not knowing them, was mistaken.—Ed. Nation.]

PRODIGALITY AS A CURE FOR HARD TIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to suggest that "U. H. C.'s" plan of consuming large quantities of ice cream and champagne in times of undue prosperity was really tried on a great scale in the bubbling times of 1880 1. There were doubtless hasty and too large expenditures in increase of railroad and furnace and factory—though not very excessive after all; but the unproductive expenditure was immense. There can be no doubt that a large part of the inability of very many persons to spend freely now comes from their over-expenditure in those times on the very things that "U. H. C." would have had them spend on—on fine clothes, fine furniture, fine houses; on beautiful pictures and flowers and gardens and parks; on interior decorators and plumbers, and on extravagant living in general. This applied not merely to very rich people, but to the whole community.

Did the man who spent his income in building a railroad rather too far, for the moment, into the prairie, or who employed people to build a new mill and to carry it on, do more harm than the man who spent his income for needless luxuries? And, after all, what expenditure was more strictly unproductive than the building of certain superfluous factories and railroads?

Middlesex.

February 28, 1885.

THE SILVERITES OF THE CALIFORNIA PRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A comparison of the past history of finance in California with the present attitude of the California newspapers toward the silver question is sufficient to make one doubt the sanity of their editors. But as an alternative view I offer the following possible explanation of the phenomenon.

During the whole seventeen years of greenback depreciation, the gold standard was maintained in California by the sheer moral force of the business community. Any man who paid his debts in the depreciated, albeit legal-tender, currency of the nation underwent a species of boycotting; he lost all business standing, he could henceforward obtain no credit; if he was a merchant, he was at once branded as the man who paid his obligations in greenbacks, and the community with rare unanimity let him alone—a record, by the way, which any State or nation should be proud of.

Now can it be that the newspaper clamor for the enforced coinage of the silver dollar is made with malice aforethought, for the mere purpose of securing a good market for California and Nevada silver, and with a deliberate confidence in the ability and purpose of Californians to repeat their former financial record, and still maintain the gold standard when silver shall have driven gold out of circulation in the Eastern States? Or is this crediting the California editor with an improbable sagacity?

Very respectfully, I. S.

Berkeley, Cal., February 23, 1885.

THE METRIC SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of some recent opposition to the introduction of the metric system into the United States, I should like to say a few words which would perhaps better find a place in a technical journal, were it not that the subject is one which is now before the tribunal of the lay public; the technical bodies of the United States being so overwhelmingly in favor of the system that the distinguished opponents of it (and there are a few such left) write rather bitterly, and with an evident sense of working for a lost cause, when they appear against it.

A recent article from one of them says: "One of the objections to attempts to introduce it here is that improvements that can be made in our present system (so called) [I say heartily Amen to the "so called"] are thereby delayed, such as the use of the ton of 2,000 pounds and the cental of 100 pounds." I hope the objections will continue until the ton of 2,250 pounds (1,000 kilograms) takes the place of that of 2,240 and the centner of 225 pounds (100 kilograms) supplants the hundredweight (!) of 112 pounds. The same writer calls us to reflect upon its "whimsical, unspeakable, polysyllabic Græco-Roman nomenclature." Something over ten years between my two visits to this country have sufficed to carry over what he would find a rather dull peasantry to the polysyllables referred to; which consist, in lineal measures, of the millimetre, centimetre, metre, and kilometre, in place of sixteenths, thirty-seconds, and sixty-fourths of an inch, inches, feet, yards, and miles. In weights, grammes, kilogrammes (generally called kilos), and tonnes, are used instead of grains, ounces, pounds, and tons, and in liquid measure the litre has practically supplanted gills, pints, quarts, and gallons. It is divided for ordinary purposes (*e. g.*, beer drinking!) binarily, into halves and quarters.

The same article says: "What the iron heel of a military despotism may have accomplished with the pauper laborers of an effete European monarchy is not worth a tinker's dam . . . as a precedent for a free people." I am inclined to think the said iron heel did not have to grind very hard on the railroad men of Germany in this instance, in spite of Mr. Coleman Sellers's statement that they told him they were forced into the system; since it substituted a single decimal system for some 12 or 14 duodecimal ones formerly used, with all of which they had to be familiar on account of car interchange.

The same opponent of the metric system exhibits the tonnage of the world as given at the Meridian Conference—

	Tons.
Tonnage controlled by Greenwich Standard	14,000,000
" " " Paris "	1,735,000

—as a proof of the greater extent of the English system of measurement. He does not compare the relative disturbance to this branch of trade to be produced by changing the 2,240 and 2,250 pounds tons in the table to his 2,000 pounds tons, with that produced by changing the English and American tonnage from the 2,240 lb. English to the 2,250 lb. French ton, with the advantage, in the latter case, of having the collective tonnage on a decimal system.

There are some points in the metric system which have been suggested to me by the ladies of my family—who after a short experience with it are its enthusiastic advocates—which I do not remember to have seen mentioned before. These are, the facts that our dry-goods houses are put to a good deal of extra trouble and expense in changing the metre folds of imported goods into yards, and that in selling very expensive goods by the inch with prices by the yard the figuring is rendered very complicated; whereas in selling by the centimetre nothing can be simpler than the calculation based on the metre price.

The old objections to the introduction of the metric system on the score of its throwing out of use great numbers of tools has always seemed to me unfounded; and I am confirmed in this view by finding that German shops use quantities of English tools, which they call 1 *zoll*, 2 *zoll*, etc., as being convenient names. So we can continue to use tools of the present sizes, continuing to call them 1 inch, 2 inch, etc.; it being understood that the dimensions of such tools are a given number of millimetres, whenever it is necessary to state them exactly.

A curious instance of the inconvenience of our subdivision into sixteenths and thirty-seconds is the general practice of mechanics of calling 25 thirty-seconds, for example, three-quarters and a thirty-second, as giving a better idea to the mind of what proportion of an inch it is. It would never occur to a mechanic under the other system to say 2 centimetres and a millimetre instead of 21 millimetres, since the very form of the figure shows him that the dimension is one millimetre over 2 centimetres.

The battle of English and French wire gauges has nothing to do with the metric system, since the English dimensions are very complicated when expressed in inches, and no more so in millimetres.

To our friends who are in the habit of calling their Government lands eighties or forties the same remark applies as to tools: they can go on doing so—only, when they want to express the area exactly, they would do so in *ares* instead of acres. The name of eighty or forty for a Government subdivision refers to the nature of the division of the section, and rarely expresses the exact area contained in the piece in question.

We who believe in the metric system do not wish to have it imposed upon those of contrary belief, further than to have Government officers transact their business with metric measures; in hoping for which, however, we do not disguise the hope that the country will go over to that system en masse within ten years after its adoption by Government offices.

Yours respectfully,

W. Howard White.

Frankfort, February 6, 1885.

Notes.

Joseph Thomson's account of his last remarkable excursion in Africa, 'Through Masai Land,' will be reprinted in this country by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They also announce 'Pilot Fortune,' a story of Nova Scotian life, by Miss M. C. L. Reeves and Emily Read; and 'A Carpet Knight,' by the author of 'Cupid and the Sphinx.' A "Riverside Aldine Series" of American classics has been begun—handy volumes, choicely made, and sold at a uniform low rate.

Chas. Scribner's Sons will publish this month the tenth and last volume of the series of short "Stories by American Authors"; and 'American Presbyterianism: its Origin and Growth during the Colonial Period,' by C. A. Briggs. They have also in press 'Two Years in the Jungle,' by W. T. Hornaday.

E. P. Dutton & Co. issue immediately a new volume of poems by Miss Havergal, and 'Sermons,' by the Rev. Phillips Brooks, in two volumes, paper.

'The Countess Almara's Murder,' and 'The Trial of Gideon,' two stories by Julian Hawthorne,

are in the press of Funk & Wagnalls, as well as a new edition of the 'Library of Religious Poetry.'

Mr. Augustin Daly is preparing a privately printed edition of his original plays and skilful adaptations, including among the latter his late admirable revision of Farquhar's "Recruiting Officer," as neat and as difficult a bit of modernizing as Garrick's transformation of Wycherley's foul "Country Wife" into the lively and inocuous "Country Girl." For the despair of collectors we may record that there are twelve large-paper copies of each play.

Mr. W. M. Griswold adds a sixteenth to his series of "Q. P. Indexes," namely, 'An Index to the Leading British Reviews and Magazines for 1882, 1883, and 1884' (Bangor, Me.). He modestly offers it as a substitute for something better, such as the proposed Supplement to 'Poole's Index.' Some new devices for reference to author and magazine are here introduced. Of these, as of those which characterize the entire series, it may be said that they are defensible chiefly on the ground of necessary economy, and it is much to be wished that a better typographical taste entered into the production of these indexes.

White, Stokes & Allen have just reprinted the poems of Winthrop Mackworth Praed, with the memoir of the late Rev. Derwent Coleridge—two volumes in one. Gilt edges, an etching on the title-page, and some decorative endeavors on the covers make a presentable book.

As a new demonstration that a thing of beauty is a joy forever, we have the luxurious Christmas card now transformed into a birthday card, so that the pleasure-giving missive may be in season at all times. White, Stokes & Allen have issued a silk-fringed booklet, counterpart of the Christmas and Easter missives, as "Birthday Flowers"—six chromolithographic flower groups, with appropriate poetical quotations, the whole arranged by Miss Susie B. Skelding.

Beside a dictionary of familiar poetical quotations, there is always a place for one that gathers together extracts which chance has not made familiar, but which, on that very account, it is more desirable to cite. Such a dictionary may also, of course, be of great assistance in tracking an unassigned quotation. This rôle is tolerably filled by Bohn's topical 'Dictionary of Poetical Quotations,' of which his successors have just published a fourth edition (London: George Bell & Sons). The late Mr. Bohn's qualifications for such a task, measured by his own original verse sifted in amid the work of recognized poets, would not be thought great, and it should be pointed out that in this Dictionary the Victorian poets are hardly represented at all, and those of the Lake school and their contemporaries only sparingly.

From the same publishers come to us a new edition (still in the Bohn series) of Buchanan's 'Dictionary of Science and Technical Terms used in Philosophy, etc.,' with a supplement queerly edited by James A. Smith (*vide* the article on War); and an excellent brand-new edition of Coleridge's stimulating 'Table-Talk,' including the 'Omniana' and a few waifs and strays. Here one can enjoy both what is antiquated and what is still vital. For example (A. D. 1833): "Look at that head of Cline, by Chantrey! Is that forehead, that nose, those temples, and that chin akin to the monkey tribe? No, no. To a man of sensibility no argument could disprove the bestial theory so convincingly as a quiet contemplation of that fine bust." And again (same year): "Colonization is not only a manifest expedient for, but an imperative duty on, Great Britain. . . . But it must be . . . a colonization of hope, and not . . . a colonization of despair."

Roraima, the famous mountain in British Guiana, hitherto pronounced inaccessible by the few travellers who have ever seen it, has at last been ascended. An expedition was sent out last fall by the Royal Society and the Royal Geographical Society, under the lead of Mr. E. F. im Thurn, who has just telegraphed to Kew that he has succeeded in reaching the top. The mountain rises some 6,000 feet above the plain, the last third of the ascent being a perpendicular wall of rock. The top is a flat table-land about twelve miles long, covered with vegetation, from which flow streams of considerable size. From its isolated position, it is hoped that some primitive forms of animal and plant life still survive upon the summit. Mr. im Thurn's last despatches from the foot of the wall speak of the place as "a very garden of orchids and most beautiful and strange plants."

The Indian Government is about to publish an account of the remarkable journey through Tibet recently made by one of the native explorers of the Indian Survey. This man, known only as Pandit A——k, travelled as a merchant, his instruments consisting of a sextant, compass, barometer, thermometers, a Tibetan tea-bowl for a mercury trough a Buddhist prayer-barrel in which he concealed his field books, and a Buddhist rosary for counting his paces, a bead being dropped at every 100 paces. Though robbed and imprisoned again and again, and subjected to the greatest hardships, he managed to cross Tibet from south to north, and returned to India along the Chinese and Indian frontier after an absence of four and a half years. His field books, which, with his instruments, he had succeeded in preserving, contain a "continuous and unbroken route survey, with magnetic bearings and paced distances," of 2,800 miles, more than half of which, 1,700, were of entirely new country. His accounts of Lhása, where he was detained a year waiting for a caravan, and of the great central plain of Tibet, 15,000 feet above the sea level, and yet covered in summer with herbage and countless herds of wild animals, and of the various mountain ranges which he crossed, sometimes by passes 18,000 feet high, promise to be of great interest. It should be remembered that the ordinary stimulus for explorers, public recognition of their services and fame, is absolutely wanting to these men who for the past twenty years have been sent out by the Indian Government, since their names, even, are concealed so long as they are capable of active service.

We note the appearance of No. 2 of the 'U. S. Publications—Monthly Catalogue' (Washington: J. H. Hickcox), and shall be glad to learn of the assured permanence of this useful and conscientious undertaking. A full index at the end of the volume will contain in one alphabet the title of every U.S. Document, Report, and Law, thus avoiding the necessity of consulting the nine separate indexes of the series of Congressional Documents and Statutes. Moreover, a large proportion of the titles are those of important Government publications on scientific, historical, and mechanical subjects, never included in the series of Congressional documents.

Part 11 of the English-Spanish Technological Dictionary issuing by N. Ponce de Leon (42 Broadway) carries this comprehensive work along to the word *ply*. Some of the curiosities of international nomenclature are seen in these examples from under *pendulum*: "*grate pendulum:* péndulo compensador de Graham"; "*gridiron pendulum:* péndulo de Harrison." Here the non-inventive nation takes over the discoverer's name, which at home (or perhaps in the United States?) is displaced by the poetic designation, so to speak.

With the April number, *Outing* is to be enlarged by the addition of fifty pages a month, and the price will be raised to correspond with that of the other American monthlies. Mr. Sylvester Baxter is now its editor. In the same number will begin two new serial stories, one by Julian Hawthorne, under the alluring title of "Love—or a Name," and the other a translated novel.

Quite the most noticeable paper in the March *Magazine of American History* is Dr. Hammond's "Personal Recollections of Brigadier-General Nathaniel Lyon, United States Army." It is so good in its way that it suggests a new field for this writer's strong extra-professional literary predilection.

England's never-ceasing drum-beat in the revolving year is paralleled by the interminable production of encyclopædias in Germany. In the class known as 'Konversations-Lexikon' alone, we have the larger Brockhaus not more than half completed in its thirteenth edition before a condensed edition is announced. So it is scarcely two years since the third edition of that invaluable little treasury of knowledge, 'Meyers Hand-Lexicon' was published, and now there li s before us the first number of the fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon,' the well-known rival of Brockhaus (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). At this stage of the present publication ther› is little to be said except to repeat the prospectus, which holds out all the necessary inducements on the score of scholarly collaboration, and promises 3,000 illustrations in the text, and 550 inserted plates, of which a large part will be colored. The plates first put forward are excellent in all respects—a colored map of Alpine elevations, a colored group of typical African races, colored examples of ornaments (Asiatic and other), and specimens of modern art work in bronze. The orthography is the so-called "new according to Duden"—a name bearing an ominous resemblance to that bestowed on some of our own reformers. The death of Edmond About, whose name occurs in this first instalment, is recorded betimes.

La Revue Félibréenne is the title of an outgrowth of a department of the *Revue Lyonnaise*, organ hitherto of the literary cultivators of the *langue d'oc*. To the first number, published last month, the poet Frédéric Mistral, to whom this linguistic revival is so largely indebted, furnishes a long poem. The editor sets forth his intentions, after reviewing the growth of local and national interest in the slumbering Provençal dialect. He also strives to explain the meaning of the terms *félibre* and *félibrige*, but adds nothing to what the curious will find under those titles in the Supplement to Littré.

M. Klinksieck, Paris, publishes a notice of the life of the late Charles Joseph Tissot, by M. Salomon Reinach. Tissot was one of those men—savants and diplomats at once, always ready to use their position for the good of science—whom the enlightened Government of France keeps in its service, and to whom we owe so many patient investigations and admirable discoveries. Tissot's African researches make a distinct chapter in archæological investigation, and had he lived we should probably have had all the light on Carthaginian history which the remains would or will ever give. The In Memoriam of M. Reinach is the tribute of a friend and devoted aid in his studies, made legatee of his materials, in part collected by their collaboration and under M. Tissot's direction.

The *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* for December, 1884, records, in its memoir of Dumont, another loss to archæology. Dumont has been to the Balkan countries what Tissot was to the Carthaginian territory. Of the school of Athens he was almost a founder, and among the admirable Hellenists whose names have been identified with that institution that of Dumont will always be preëminent. Like Tissot, he paid

by the abbreviation of his years for his devotion to Science—one of her silent martyrs. Of especial interest among the other papers in the *Bulletin* is an account of the excavations in Delos of some houses of the second century, with plans, by Pierre Paris, and a study of a new description of vase from a specimen found at Myrina, by Rayet, *facile princeps* among those who have made Greek ceramics a specialty.

In the number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 1, Madame Th. Bentzon, continuing her studies of American literature, considers 'Le Roman de la Femme-Médecin,' and devotes herself chiefly to Miss Sarah Orne Jewett's 'A Country Doctor.'

Another long translation, or adaptation, from the English, reviewing the century of the London *Times*, marks *Le Livre* for February. The leading article discusses the original editions of Molière with sole reference to the illustrations, which are minutely analyzed and compared as to costume, scenic accessories, action and position of the characters, and even their possible portraiture of the dramatist. Several facsimiles of the designs accompanying the editions of 1710 and 1713 relieve the tedium of a necessarily dry inventory. In the miscellany we find mention of a new fortnightly *Revue Rétrospective*, sold only by subscription, which offers its readers "une anecdote inconnue, une erreur à rectifier," or some other "révélation instructive." We remark also the correspondence between François Coppée and M. Coquelin, upon the former's resigning his post of librarian of the Théâtre-Français. M. Coppée had recently been elected a member of the Academy, and, strange to say, some of the members of the administrative committee of the Theatre grudged him the added honor. In withdrawing from his post M. Coppée takes with him his new play, "The Jacobites," which he will bring out at the Odéon.

The University of Michigan is rejoicing over a very handsome addition to its Law Library, the gift of Mr. C. H. Buhl, of Detroit. The collection embraces some five thousand volumes, many of which, of course, are duplicates of works already in the Library; but a policy of exchange will readily dispose of superfluities and supply deficiencies, and the Law Library, as a whole, may thus easily be made the most valuable in the State, and one of the most valuable in the Northwest. The Buhl collection was but recently purchased, and the books are in excellent condition.

The American Society for Psychical Research, lately organized at Boston under very respectable auspices, has established a section in New York. Its object is not, as has been supposed by some, the study of supernatural phenomena; what it attempts is, to reduce to the laws to which they belong certain unusual conditions of mental action. These are chiefly those sensitive states, within the limits of health, in which some persons seem to have the faculty of apprehending simple ideas in the minds of others, independently of muscular contact and without the aid of the special senses. Beyond and possibly cognate to this are the hypnotic state and the clairvoyant condition, if the latter really exists. There are probably many "sensitives," as above described, in every community; and those interested in the furtherance of such scientific work would greatly oblige the Society by putting its secretary, at 58 Wall Street, in communication with any such subjects as are likely to be available for study by its committees. Directions, by the way, for experiments in "thought transference," are now procurable of the Society in its Circular No. 4.

The Council of the New England Meteorological Society have recently voted to extend the area of their investigations so as to follow natural rather than strictly political boundaries, and they therefore invite assistance in their work from observers in the Hudson Valley and on Long Island, as well as from New England, as heretofore. Any persons in these districts who will coöperate with the Society, are requested to address Prof. Winslow Upton, Providence, R. I., who will send in return blank forms for recording observations; temperature and rainfall being at present the subjects especially investigated. The Society's Bulletin, of which the fourth number is about to appear, is given in exchange for records thus obtained. Applications for membership should be made to the Secretary, Cambridge, Mass.

—The sixth and concluding volume of the revised edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States' bears some of the marks of having been originally an independent work. The fifth volume, completing the original narrative, ends with the establishment of independence in 1783. The 'History of the Constitution' is rather a history of the establishment of the Union, and necessarily overlaps the older work. It traces the idea of union, and the successive attempts made toward its realization, from the early colonial period through the Revolutionary War, and gives interesting details of the inauguration of the Confederation in 1781, and the defects that were at once observed in its articles. Even before these articles went into operation the most sagacious statesmen were convinced of their inadequacy. Nearly the whole first book, 'The Confederation,' belongs to the period of which the military and diplomatic events have been already narrated in Vol. v. Book ii., "On the Way to a Federal Convention," extends from 1783 to 1787, and contains a very interesting sketch of the events and discussions that at last brought about the assembling of the Convention. In this period Virginia, the oldest, strongest, and proudest of the States, appears as the leader in the opposition to a stronger government; although it was Virginia statesmen, Washington and Madison especially, that were most influential in calling the Convention. But the fact is not always noted, which appears very plainly in these chapters, that it was Virginia who represented the State-rights doctrine in the early years of the Republic. It was not, we think, until Calhoun placed his doctrine in alliance with the slave interest, that South Carolina, originally a Federalist State, ranged herself at the head of the party of State rights, nullification, and secession. The volume contains three other books: "The Federal Convention"; "The People of the States in Judgment on the Constitution"; and "The Federal Government." This crowning work of an eminent historian is fitly illustrated with an excellent portrait of the author.

—Mr. John Bigelow's article in the March *Harper's*, on "Jefferson's Financial Diary," contains a good deal of curious and entertaining information. Those who think that there is always a close connection between a man's character and his politics, and to whom, at the same time, Jefferson's memory is not dear, will find confirmation of their view in the extracts here given. A passion for general principles without regard to the facts in which political principles find their root, is the reproach cast in the teeth of Jefferson by those of the opposite school; and in his private financial system we see perhaps an analogous peculiarity. Jefferson took the interest of a philosopher in arithmetic applied to household affairs; but his interest in the relation of fact between income and expenditure, for the ascertainment of which, in most people's minds, accounts are kept, was evidently very slight. He liked to have his accounts balance, though, as Mr. Bigelow says, he generally had to force his balances, and in one case we find an entry of the considerable sum of $766 51, which he explains as "probably" proceeding "from having set down the same article of expense twice in some cases"; adding, "Yet it is exact enough to give general ideas." In the same year he was obliged to borrow $4,361 to make the balance exact; but as this was a necessary means to an important end, he evidently did not regret it. Debt he seems to have regarded, as so many gentlemen of his day and generation did, with entire cheerfulness, as a necessary condition of existence; just as slavery was a necessary condition of life on his estates. It is a great mistake to infer, however, as in a commercial society we are so apt to do, that Jefferson's Micawberish turn of mind made him unscrupulous in his dealings with the public, or in his office. On the contrary, there is proof in this diary (never intended to be made public, and therefore all the better evidence) of great delicacy of feeling in these matters. For instance, we find Jefferson insisting on paying the duty on two hundred bottles of champagne, part of a quantity imported by the Spanish Minister, and consequently exempt, but afterwards presented to him. He appears also to have forced upon the Rev. Mr. Leland, who came to him bearing a gift in the shape of a monster cheese of 1,235 pounds, payment in full at the rate of 16 cents a pound, though Mr. Bigelow shrewdly suspects that the cheese was brought by the reverend gentleman in the hope that the acceptance of it as a gift would establish for him a "claim" of corresponding magnitude upon the Administration. This is a way of getting out of such a difficulty that cannot in our time be safely recommended to Presidents. If it were once understood that a gift not accepted would be bought at the market value by the Executive, the practice of present-giving would, in the present depressed condition of industry, be rather stimulated than repressed. The only safe method nowadays seems to be that established by Mr. Cleveland, of setting up a kind of returned-gift bureau as soon after election as possible, thus giving public notice that presents will not be received as such, still less bought in the Jeffersonian manner.

—In spite of railroads and telegraphs and the shifting character of the population in this country, the word Western, as an epithet of more than topographical signification, has not yet lost its meaning. The Correspondence University made a moderately modest beginning last year with its headquarters at Ithaca. This year it has been transferred to Chicago, and the following extract from its circular will show with what result:

"No one can fail to admire the magnificence of its aim and the grandeur of its purpose. But whatever of value it has lies chiefly in its faculty —and here its character is supreme and unapproachable. It was conceived in a spirit of philanthropy, and a high moral purpose and noble ambition to benefit others have united together seventy distinguished scholars in the most remarkable association of the age."

The danger of this is, that the low-toned Englishmen who help to make up the seventy distinguished scholars may not give sufficient emphasis to the distinction between Eastern and Western American arts of advertising. It is difficult to make due allowance for the smallness of the visual angle subtended by a distant object; and a distinction vital to us the Englishman, with his cloudy ideas of American geography, may easily overlook. So the quiet Americans pass through Europe unobserved, and the noisy ones, not bearing plain geographical labels upon their backs, give their character to the name; and so to the true Bostonian everything beyond Salem seems to be Down East, and only the traveller knows that however far he proceeds along the coast of Maine, there is a still remoter region for which that name and quality must be reserved.

—Late last year two reports were published giving valuable information on popular libraries in France, one by the Prefecture of the Seine, the other by the Mayoralty of Besançon. The substance of them was that in Paris there are 26 libraries supported by the city, containing 100,247 volumes, lending out, in 1883, 440,670 volumes, and, for use in the building, 109,670 more. Out of Paris the libraries are as yet very small; in this country we should hardly say more of them than that they were better than nothing. Amiens, for instance, has 18 libraries with an average of less than 1,000 volumes apiece; Lyons has 6, with 12,000 volumes in all; Bordeaux 2, with 7,770 volumes; Toulouse 6,000 volumes, Nancy 3,500 volumes. The great city of Marseilles has 6,120 volumes. To be sure, that is more than the great city of New York has. The oldest library is at Havre, founded in 1847; most of the others are of later birth than 1864. *Polybiblion*, commenting on these reports, compared the neighbors of France, and found them much better off. Fribourg has a library dating from 1813, with 25,000 volumes. Geneva has 11,000 volumes, Antwerp 12,000, Liverpool 118,000, Manchester 155,000, and Leeds, Birmingham, Bradford, Newcastle, Bolton, each five times as many as any provincial French library. But it is the American libraries that excite the chief admiration of the writer, not always justly. The New Yorker will smile on reading that in his city two *free popular* libraries have an endowment of $2,347,000; for he knows that "free" in this case does not mean ease of access and convenience of use, but absence of payment, and "popular" does not indicate any correspondence with the needs and wishes of the "people."

—It has been known for some time that a commission of Mexican archæologists and historians was engaged on a comprehensive history of Mexico, from the earliest times to our own day. The first instalments of the work are now issuing from the Spanish press, and Messrs. Requesens & Co., of this city, are bringing out an English translation of it, in their "Illustrated Universal Library," under the title, 'Mexico Viewed through the Course of the Ages.' They propose to publish the history in five volumes of fourteen parts each. We have received the first part of the first volume. Some idea of the great scope of the undertaking may be gained from the fact that the fifty-six folio pages of this first part are but one-seventieth of the whole history. The commission of editors has at its head General Riva Palacio, soldier, politician, novelist, and archæologist in one. With him are associated Señores Arias, Chavero, Vigil, and Zarate. It is probable, so we are informed, that their labors will yet extend through a period of three years. Certainly the history opens in a careful and deliberate manner, which gives promise of thoroughness and solidity in the work that is to follow. The first part under consideration is entirely taken up with an enumeration of sources: hieroglyphics, monuments, native interpreters, chroniclers, historians. In fact, the enumeration is not completed in these fifty-six pages. The attitude of the editors toward the Aztec histories, so far as it is indicated in the discussions of authorities, seems to be one of judicious scepticism. The extraordinary fulness of the materials at their disposal, and the evident maturity of the judgments which they have formed on all disputed points, go far toward assuring a permanent and substantial value to their work. If one may judge of the superstructure by the foundations, this new history of Mexico will far surpass any now in existence. We cannot, however, give much praise either to the publishers or to the translator, General F. F. Millen. The paper covers of this first part, which present, we suppose, some of the "illustrations in rich colors" of which the prospectus speaks, are, decidedly, specimens of cheap and tawdry magnificence. One is tempted to pardon this, however, on seeing the excellent paper and good type of the body of the work; but inspection discloses such a number of misprints—there are over sixty, most of them gross, in the fifty-six pages—that there seems to be no escape for the publisher from the charges of bad taste and great carelessness. Of the merit of the translation we are reluctant to speak, as we have not yet been able to secure a copy of the original. But there need be no hesitation in saying of the English which lies before us in the translation, that it is execrable. The very first sentence is ungrammatical, and thus fittingly introduces a book which swarms with impossible constructions, inelegant expressions, and wrongly-used words. A few specimens of the latter are the following: "likenesses," in the sense of signs; "nominations," in the sense of titles; "diverse," for divers; "foundation," for founding; "denouncement," for denunciation; "composed from," for of. One encounters, besides, such words as "progresses," "interpretated," "indigenes," "matricular"; and such phrases as "he slides into the fault," "luck has decreed," "the steely sword," etc. We sincerely hope that the remaining parts of this important work will be given an English dress corresponding to its deserts. The excellence of the history, great as it is, will not be able to carry the weight of such a translation.

— We find in the *Bulletin Critique* a notice of the fourth *livraison* published by the Société Historique de Gascogne. This is a collection of unpublished documents about the Huguenots in Bigorre. It shows in detail, what was well known in general, the fierce nature of the wars of religion. Some of the *obiter dicta* are quite as interesting as the documents that are confined to the subject indicated in the title. One, for instance, shows the existence of a sort of militia for mutual defence against marauding bands, that was called in Bearnese *Orde*, in Latin *Ordea*, from the Gothic word *wordea*, no doubt our *ward* and *guard*. Another document recounts the subscription of the inhabitants of a small town to replace the bell which had been ruined when the Huguenots burned the church, which bell was to be used by the monks for all their services and by the city authorities (consuls) to call together the city council and the town meetings, and to alarm this *Orde* in case of incursion of enemies, robbers, or other evil-doers, or in case of fire in the houses of the said city. The town meetings which they were to call (*vésiaux*, meetings of neighbors) were very curious. The inhabitants of each locality met in a public place to arrange such affairs as they had in common. Sometimes they dissolved the general meeting to deliberate by quarters or even by streets. Each quarter or street named a delegate and gave him imperative instructions. These delegates, with the city consuls, formed a council to decide the matter in question. This coexistence of a government resembling the town meeting with a government resembling that by a mayor and board of aldermen, we do not remember to have met with elsewhere.

—Students of historical geography and lovers of good maps will alike take delight in M. Longnon's 'Atlas historique de la France,' the first *livraison* of which has just been published (Hachette). The Atlas is to consist of thirty-five *planches*, and is published in seven *livraisons*, each at ten francs. The cost, therefore, is about half a dollar for a *planche*, or full-page map. Only one of the five sheets in the present number is, however, devoted to a single map, viz., No. 5, which contains the Empire of Charlemagne in the year 806, "which marks the apogee of the dominion of the new Cæsar." This map, embracing the entire empire at this date, contains all Germany and nearly the whole of Italy as well as France. The whole number of maps, large and small, in these five sheets, is twenty-three. No. 1 is a map of Gaul in the time of Cæsar, and a small map in the corner gives it as in the time of Augustus; the accompanying *fascicule* discusses satisfactorily the question of the sixty *civitates* of Augustus, and the sixty-four of Tiberius. No. 2 is for the date 400, and a small map gives the territorial distribution of the Roman tribes in Gaul so far as known—a very curious piece of information; only eight of these tribes have been traced in Gaul. Nos. 3 and 4 contain each nine maps, giving the several divisions of Gaul in the Merovinginian and early Carolingian periods; one of them is an ecclesiastical map. Here we find the only serious defect in the Atlas. The earliest of these eighteen maps is for 506, just before the victory over the Visigoths; but the century between this date and the one preceding (400) is one that very much needs illustration by maps. One would have thought that 481, the accession of Clovis, would be given at any rate; but the dates of settlement of the Visigoths (419), and of the Burgundians (443), within the limits of Gaul would also be very useful. Either one of these three dates would be far more serviceable to students of history than the majority of those actually given. Not the least valuable feature of these maps is the opportunity they afford of tracing the historical continuity from the original Gallic tribe through successive changes of the Roman and Frank occupation to the *gau* of Charlemagne's time. An accompanying *fascicule* of sixty-six pages contains an exhaustive discussion of every point of historical geography that appears to need elucidation for this period.

—The Orange Judd Company print for Gen. T. L. Clingman, of North Carolina, an essay, evidently written in good faith, upon 'The Tobacco Remedy.' If a tithe of its statements can be confirmed, the vile weed is a substantial rival of the tree of life. 'Consumption,' by Dr. J. M. W. Kitchen (Putnams), is a handsome little volume for popular reading. It is always an open question how far special information can judiciously be given to those not specially trained; but, skipping about a dozen pages of treatment, the possible consumptive or his friend might read this book with interest, and probably with advantage. Dr. G. H. Rohé has prepared a brief statement of the principles of preventive medicine that will probably justify its title as a 'Text-Book of Hygiene' (Baltimore: Thomas & Evans). He thinks the dangers of burial-grounds are generally overrated, but in other respects, as far as we observe, he presents the latest opinions. It is convenient for classes who do not require too much detail. 'Women, Plumbers, and Doctors' (Appletons) is an excellent résumé of domestic sanitary science prepared by Mrs. H. M. Plunkett for women who should be housekeepers as well as householders. It includes a good essay on kerosene, is illustrated and well indexed, and its author ought to be thanked by many a sister for this common-sense exposition of daily dangers and daily duties. The constant temptation to announce "what is good for" some disease has proved irresistible here where cholera and malaria are touched upon. But it remains true that prevention and cure are different problems. The veteran Dr. Frank H. Hamilton reprints from the New York *Medical Journal* a concise essay upon our present knowledge of cholera as he understands it, which laymen may read with comprehension. He does not accept Koch's comma bacillus as a proved cholera cause; and in this he is confirmed by very recent utterances of

Klein, the London authority. "The parliament of man, the federation of the world," is in a degree foreshadowed by the triennial International Medical Congresses, the last of which was held in 1884 at Copenhagen. One of the American delegates, Dr. D. Bryan Delevan, has written its 'Social History' (Appletons) very attractively. Danish hospitality, from the King's own through every step in the social scale, but with royal open-handedness on every side, outdid itself; and this account will be a pleasant souvenir for the participating guests, and a graceful testimony to the hosts that, at least across the water, they are gratefully remembered. The next Congress meets at Washington in 1887, and our medical men will have no easy task to discharge the gracious debt. Wm. H. Hudson's 'Sea-Sickness' (Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.), the author says, "discloses for the first time the true cause and nature of" that distressful condition, and "if universally acted upon, sea-sickness would at once cease to exist." What an opportunity is presented to the philanthropist for its extinction by the gratuitous circulation of this teaching. "Mind is chemical affinity" and "expediency is the moral law" (pp. 2, 245), are the substantial conclusions which Dr. S. V. Clevenger reaches in his 'Comparative Physiology and Psychology' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.). He acknowledges that there is an Unknown, but will not grant an Unknowable, and professes to examine the constitution of mind by an extension of Herbert Spencer's principles. In doing so he repudiates "the baleful influence of teleology," and develops man and man's mind from the amœba, whose assimilation of food is caused by chemical affinity to which locomotion and prehension are accessory. Doctor Clevenger would replace the *Cogito ergo sum* of Descartes by *Sum et cogito*, but he does not discuss the origin of matter. The book is a radical contribution to psychological science and is worth reading, notwithstanding certain infelicities of style; but its views are not likely to obtain ready acceptance. Mrs. Mary H. Hunt's 'Temperance Physiology' (A. S. Barnes & Co.) is an elementary exposition of the influence of alcohol and tobacco upon the healthy human body, with an outline of physiology as a peg upon which to hang it, for junior scholars. It has an "endorsement of scientific accuracy" in the preface by a medical gentleman, and in the main it is correct, but the illustration (fig. 22) of oval blood discs "in the blood of an animal" is misleading without the explanation that animals with oval blood corpuscles are exceptional. A scientific man would hesitate to make a microscopic distinction between human blood and that of the commoner animals, and if he did so he would not use form as a differential factor.

—The Brooklyn Philharmonic Society never accomplished a more ambitious and more commendable task than it did on Friday and Saturday by giving the first public performances in America of Liszt's oratorio, the "Legend of St. Elizabeth." Only those who are aware of the enormous difficulties of this work can realize how much praise is due the Society for the excellence of the performance, taken as a whole, and including the work of the soloists—Miss Emma Juch, Mme. Dossert, Messrs. Heinrich, Remmertz, and Morawski. The oratorio was evidently appreciated by the audience, for all the best numbers were vigorously applauded. In the last half-hour, however, the interest seemed to flag; and this was due to the anti-climax in the music. Mr. Thomas had made extensive cuts, but if the Legend is repeated, which we trust will be the case very soon, it would be well to make still further excisions, especially in the solo parts—those lengthy recitatives which are often unsupported by a rich symphonic accompaniment. Liszt himself apparently recognized that in these recitatives lay the weakness of the Legend, for in his next choral work, "Christus," he omitted them almost entirely, leaving only choruses and instrumental parts, with an occasional solo where it is required by the structure of the text. "Christus," indeed, marks as great an advance over the old form of oratorio as Liszt's symphonic poems do over the symphonic form, or as Wagner's music dramas do over the old-fashioned opera; and the "Legend of St. Elizabeth" occupies an intermediate position, comparable to some extent to that of "Tannhäuser." If the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society wish to deserve additional laurels, they would do well to produce "Christus" next year, and thus give their patrons an opportunity to observe the evolution of a musical form.

—The "Legend of St. Elizabeth" is remarkably well suited for musical treatment. In the form in which it is used by Liszt's librettist, it was suggested by Moritz von Schwind's six frescoes at the Wartburg, in accordance with which the oratorio is divided into six scenes. In the first scene the arrival of Elizabeth at the Wartburg is celebrated in a chorus of charming simplicity and gayety. The next scene represents a meeting of Elizabeth with her husband, the Landgrave Ludwig, just returning from a campaign. He had forbidden her spending her possessions in gifts to the poor, and, seeing her with a basket of provisions, asks her what it contains. She replies that it is filled with roses. He opens it to allay his suspicions, and actually finds it filled with roses, for a miracle had been worked to save Elizabeth from the sin of falsehood. Nothing could exceed the exquisite charm of the orchestral part at the moment the roses are discovered—their fragrance is literally translated into tones. This scene may be placed on a par with the Good Friday Spell in "Parsifal." It is followed by a stirring march and chorus of crusaders, in Liszt's best vein—a march which alone would suffice to place this "Legend" in the front rank of oratorios. The scenes following depict Elizabeth's leave-taking from Ludwig prior to his departure to the Holy Land; her expulsion from the castle by the Dowager Landgravine Sophie after the death of Ludwig; her death in a hospital, where she has sought refuge; and the celebration of her canonization by the assembled princes, ecclesiastic authorities, and the populace in the Marburg Cathedral. The expulsion of Elizabeth from the Wartburg is accompanied by a terrific storm, graphically illustrated by the orchestra. The final choruses in Latin text cannot fail to evoke in the hearer the feeling of sublimity associated with a ceremony in the interior of an imposing cathedral—that powerful æsthetic agent for quickening religious feeling. It is needless to go into further details regarding the music, which is characterized by Liszt's usual orchestral brilliancy and harmonic originality and depth, the general effect being, moreover, heightened by the use of leading motives. The text contrasts favorably in interest and structure with most oratorio libretti.

GRAY'S WORKS.

The Works of Thomas Gray, in Prose and Verse. Edited by Edmund Gosse, Clark Lecturer on English Literature at the University of Cambridge. 4 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1885.

Mr. Gosse is one of the most conspicuous of that band of students of our literature who unite what have too often been divorced, scholarship and taste. The present work will still further confirm a reputation already well established. In most respects it is a model piece of editing. The text has been printed, wherever desirable and possible, directly from Gray's own manuscript. Wherever that was lacking, or was not final, the printed edition having the best authority in its favor has been scrupulously followed. Nor has Mr. Gosse's activity been confined to doing better what has already been done before. He has collected from every quarter everything of Gray as yet unprinted on which he could lay hands. These additions, though not great in quantity nor of a character to advance the poet's fame, are necessarily of special interest to the student of English literature. Certain omissions are also to be put down to the editor's credit. He has relieved the text entirely from the alterations—some of them almost deserving the name of flagrant—made in it by Mason, Gray's first editor. He has cut out entirely from the poems the lines with which that tumid versifier botched the unfinished work left by his friend. He has also removed from the page that fungus growth of commentary which in Mitford's edition was not unfrequently the only thing conspicuous on it. In nearly everything, in fact, Mr. Gosse has performed, with unwearied industry and with thorough intelligence, the most exacting duties that fall to the lot of an editor. An elaborate index of over fifty pages is itself a signal illustration of the conscientiousness with which the task undertaken has been performed. There was little need of the modest hope expressed in the preface that the addition of matter hitherto unprinted would be deemed sufficient to justify the existence of this work, which besides would include what hitherto it has been necessary to obtain four distinct publications in order to secure. This edition will at once supersede the valuable one of Mitford as effectually as his has the dishonest one of Mason; nor does it seem likely that another one will be demanded in our time if ever.

No critic, however, could sleep the sleep of the just who failed to point out some faults in the work he was reviewing. If to these we seem to give disproportionate time and space, it is not because their existence modifies the views just expressed, but because oversights and errors in the editing of a great classic like Gray, however unimportant comparatively, can never be in themselves unimportant. The particular provocation, therefore, to undisturbed rest which we find in this work is the arrangement of the letters. As nearly everything to which we take exception occurs in the second volume, which carries the correspondence down to the year 1760, our criticism will not extend beyond that period.

The first fault to be found with the letters as they stand here is that they do not always appear in the order in which they were written. Gray's correspondence tells largely the story of his life, and the interest in it is accordingly a continuous one. It is, therefore, always annoying, and is sometimes apt to be misleading, to finish one letter and then follow it with another dated a month or so, and in one or two instances, the year, before. These misplacements are not frequent, but it is hard to see what justification can be found for their occurring at all.

More serious fault is to be found with the treatment of the undated letters, of which there are quite a number in the earlier correspondence of Gray. Mr. Gosse has not in this matter always displayed the care and intelligence which he has everywhere else brought to his task. He has in one or two instances failed to supply dates which were lacking in the letters, but which his notes presuppose the reader to know. Thus letter 44 has no year given; but a note tells us that Fielding's 'Joseph Andrews' was published "in February of that year." More than this, Mr. Gosse has in only one instance—that of letter 49—

corrected Mitford's conjectural dates when false and the conjectural dates which he adds himself are in some cases unquestionably wrong. The matter is so important that a detailed examination of the most serious errors seems desirable, for the incorrect dates that have been given to Gray's undated correspondence have proved always a sad puzzle to the students of the poet's life.

To begin with, letter 52, addressed to John Chute, is simply dated by the writer, "London, July." To this Mr. Gosse adds in brackets, "1745." The contents show that it belongs to 1742. Mention is made of the opening of Ranelagh Gardens, which took place in the spring of that year. Gray also speaks of the "Thurloe Papers" having lately been published, and these came out in May, 1742. Letter 54, to the same person, should precede letter 52 just mentioned. It is here dated 1746 with a query. There is little difficulty in settling the precise time at which it was written. It speaks of Garrick's playing at Goodman's Fields, and he never played there save between October 19, 1741, and May 24, 1742, nor was, indeed, that theatre used after the latter date. Mention is made, besides, of the intended opening of Ranelagh, and there is a reference also to the controversy which the old Duchess of Marlborough had succeeded in arousing by the pamphlet she had had published, giving an account of her conduct. This came out early in March, 1742. But, finally, a passage on current politics seems to fix the very day on which the letter was written. "Messieurs the Commons," says Gray, "are to ballot for seven persons to-morrow to state the public accounts." This is almost certainly a direct reference to the Secret Committee which on March 21 the House of Commons had voted to create for the purpose of inquiring into the expenditures of Sir Robert Walpole's administration. The balloting for the members of this committee—twenty-one in number, not seven, as stated by Gray—took place on Thursday, March 26.

The most singular misplacement, however, is that of letters 75 and 76; all the more singular because in Mitford's edition they are found in their right place. These are transferred to 1750, and that date is indeed added to the second one as if it were from the writer's own manuscript. But this does not seem possible. These two letters are addressed to Chute, and were written to him immediately after his return to England from Italy. This, we know from the Walpole correspondence, took place in September, 1746. But we should hardly need this direct evidence to make it clear that 1746 is the true date and not 1750. Gray writes in the second of these letters that he and Walpole are together again, and that it is about a year, he thinks, since Walpole wrote to him desiring to renew their friendship. If his words are to be taken literally, they seem to show that it was in November, 1745, that the reconciliation between the two took place, and not in November, 1744, as has been stated by Mr. Gosse in his 'Life of Gray.'

To go on with further details, letters 84, 85, and 86 are included among those of the year 1751. In this Mr. Gosse has followed Mitford. Letter 84, however, belongs to an early part of the year 1748. It is made up almost entirely of a criticism of Dodsley's 'Collection of Poems,' the first three volumes of which made their appearance in January of that year; and it is to these three that Gray's remarks are confined. The date is still further established by a reference to the ill-success of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu's 'Eclogues,' which Walpole had caused to be published in November, 1747; and also by the mention of Melmoth's 'Fitz-Osborne Letters,' the first part of which had appeared in December of the same year. Letter 85 should precede letter 84, for it belongs to the end of 1747. It criticises Lyttleton's elegy on his wife, which had come out early in November of that year, and also refers to the forthcoming collection of poems by Dodsley. Letter 86 is still earlier. It belongs to the close of 1746, both on account of its reference to the impeachment of Lord Lovat, which took place on December 11, and also on account of its reference to the possible mission of Sir Charles Hanbury Williams to Berlin, which was part of the political gossip of the end of that year.

An editor, of course, can say that he is not to be held responsible for the date given by the reader to letters which are left undated. But when these are put with the correspondence of a particular year, the inference will inevitably be drawn by everybody that they are placed there because they belong there. Thus, letter 132, addressed to Walpole, but undated, is included in the correspondence of 1757. It is mainly a criticism of "Rousseau's people," as Gray calls them. How many readers would be likely to know that the 'Nouvelle Héloïse,' here discussed, was not published till several years after 1757? The previous editor is the one really responsible for these mistakes. Mitford was an accurate and well-informed man, and generally to be trusted. But, like the rest of us, he was not infallible, and a too implicit reliance upon him has in these few cases led Mr. Gosse into error. One curious oversight resulting from following him without verification occurs in a note to letter 89, in which it is said that the edition of Bishop Hall's 'Satires,' criticised by Gray in the letter, was produced at Oxford in 1753. But the letter itself is endorsed December 19, 1752. The poet is therefore represented as speaking, in the text, of a work which, according to the commentary, was not in existence till the year after. As a matter of fact, the edition of Hall's 'Satires' mentioned was brought out at Oxford in November, 1752.

We are far from wishing to place too much stress upon these omissions and oversights. They are few in number, they are easily remedied when once attention has been called to them, and, compared with the positive merits of the work, they sink almost into insignificance. But Mr. Gosse is a scholar of exceptional knowledge and ability, and any errors which he chances to make or fails to correct will be accepted on his authority, unless promptly pointed out, will be widely propagated, and in all likelihood will be perpetuated. At the same time we doubt if the most malevolent criticism could detect any flaws, outside of the kind just described, in this edition, which includes everything extant that is known to have come from the pen of Gray. An unimportant exception, if indeed it can be called an exception, is described in the appendix to the fourth volume. A note on the posthumous poems at page 142 of the first volume gives also the title of several pieces once in circulation from mouth to mouth, but which have now dropped out of memory. Mr. Gosse has indeed gone forth in quest of poems reported to exist, and once perhaps existing, with the same ardor as the Knights of the Round Table set out to secure the Holy Grail; and unfortunately, as he tells us, with about the same success.

It may, therefore, be accepted that in this edition we have the whole outcome of Gray's literary life. The quantity must be conceded to be extraordinarily small for a modern author. It is inevitable, therefore, that in any consideration of his achievement the question should invariably come up why it was that he wrote so little. A favorite theory, perhaps the present favorite theory, is that this paucity of production was due to the character of the age and not to that of the man. The eighteenth century is steadily patronized by the nineteenth in a way which suggests to the doubting heart unpleasant possibilities as to the attitude which the twentieth century may take toward the nineteenth. In no one thing, however, does it hold its predecessor more responsible than for the character and extent of Gray's poetical achievement. He was, it is said, a poet in an age of prose. He was a sort of literary Robinson Crusoe, wrecked in the unimaginative, unspiritual, watery waste of the eighteenth century. This view has been lately enforced with his usual clearness and acuteness by Matthew Arnold; and to that author Mr. Gosse dedicates this edition of Gray in terms which seem to indicate that he too accepts this opinion. Still, the authority of any names, however great, can hardly convince us that this theory is true. It is by the nature of the man and not of the century that Gray's barrenness of production is to be explained. The causes that limited it do not seem hard to find. He never felt through life the pressure of necessity. He was not rich, but he had enough. He lived a life of lettered ease; and a life of lettered ease is not favorable to literary fertility, unless the love of fame acts as an unusually powerful stimulant. This in Gray's case could hardly be said to act as a stimulant at all. Moreover, while he had the genius of the poet, he had the tastes and inclinations of the scholar, or perhaps it would be truer to say, of the student. These, when strongly developed, are unfavorable in a high degree to original composition; for by those possessing them the luxury of the acquisition of knowledge will always be preferred to the toil involved in the creation of literature. Milton's case is in many respects analogous. He was everlastingly occupying his leisure with the compilation of histories, of systems of divinity, of Latin dictionaries; and had he not been prevented by blindness from indulging these tastes, it is surely among the possibilities that he would never have found the time to complete his early-planned but long-deferred great work. It is certain that, had he died at the age at which Gray died, his published poetical production would have rivalled the latter's in scantiness. In a similar way Gray was writing notes on classical authors, compiling chronological tables, and planning works never to be completed, involving study rather than genius; and no slight share of his literary labor was given up to the composition of Latin verse—an occupation which makes the pursuits of the schoolmen respectable.

In addition to all this, Gray was a consummate literary artist, and had all the fastidiousness and the self-dissatisfaction which go with the artistic nature. The same sort of feeling that led him to throw out one beautiful stanza which was included in the "Elegy" when first printed, acted, we may be sure, in a thousand cases of which we have no knowledge. Each of these reasons is sufficient to explain his silence without seeking for its cause in something outside of himself. The eighteenth century has sins enough of literary commission to answer for without making it responsible for sins of literary omission on the part of its individual members.

The further question arises here, if this paucity of production has not been on the whole a benefit to Gray's fame—at any rate to the universality of it. The bulk exhibited by his poetry may not seem imposing to the critic, but it does not frighten the reader. It is natural for us to wish that a writer of Gray's order of genius should have produced some one large work; not because size is essential to greatness, but because it is necessary to the display of invention on a grand scale, and to the development of passions and activities working through mighty agencies. Yet it is extremely doubtful if his fame would have been enhanced in the slightest measure if he had accomplished what it is so natural for us to desire. He probably knew the limits of his own powers better than his friends or critics. The

unpublished fragments which he left do not, on the whole, make us regret very deeply that he never completed long and ambitious works. They would certainly have contained many fine lines, and might have contained many fine passages; but the spread of his reputation would most probably have been hindered rather than helped by the weight it had to carry. In nothing was the wisdom of the ancients more clearly expressed than in the story of the Sibylline books. The value remained the same after two-thirds of them had been destroyed; and the surviving three would doubtless have been more frequently consulted than the original nine had they possessed the same existence in fact as in fable. Of the majority of even writers of genius, it can truly be said that they would be read a great deal more had they written a great deal less. Gray is one of the very few poets whose productions are mastered in their entirety; and the actual familiarity with them, so general among educated men, is due in no slight degree to their fewness. His fame might possibly have been more imposing, but it certainly would not have been broader than it is now, if he had been selected as the official mouthpiece of the muse of long-windedness.

TAINE'S 'GOUVERNEMENT RÉVOLUTIONNAIRE.'—II.

Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. Par H. Taine de l'Académie Française. La Révolution. Tome III.: Le Gouvernement Révolutionnaire. Paris: Hachette. New York: F. W. Christern. 1885.

The judgment which sound criticism ought to form of Taine's volumes depends entirely upon the standard by which he is tried. If he is to be considered as an advocate bound fairly to make out a crushing case against the eulogists of the Revolution, his book is absolutely past praise. It is, as a work of honest polemics, as notable a performance as has been produced throughout the history of literature. The case against the Revolutionists is put with such extraordinary strength and supported by such an accumulation of evidence, that all the defenders of Jacobinism—sophists, poets, or paradox-mongers—are put out of court. The illusions of fancy and the sophisms of rhetoric cannot for a moment stand against the accumulative mass of Taine's facts. But we can hardly conceive that a writer who spent years of toil in accumulating stores of information with reference to the most striking, if not the most important, era of modern history, will be willing to pass simply as an honest advocate who holds a brief against the defenders of the Girondists or the Jacobins. Taine cannot be content to claim no higher reputation than the fame due to a political controversialist. His great work is assuredly meant to be something much better than such a book as might, under favorable circumstances, have been produced by the research and the partisanship of Croker. Taine must claim to be, at any rate, a critic of history, and must surely intend his book to be taken as an historian's judicial utterance on the main problems suggested by the French Revolution. 'Les Origines de la France Contemporaine,' in short, must, in its author's eyes at least, be a work which has a right to stand side by side with De Tocqueville's 'Ancien Régime'; and it would be no compliment to Taine's undoubted merits if we tested his work by any lower standard than it is fair to apply to books which sum up the result of philosophical and impartial reflection.

If, however, Taine be judged by the same standard by which one tests the merits and defects of De Tocqueville, of Quinet, or of Carlyle, the consequence inevitably follows that the spirit in which 'Les Origines' is written, and the views which the book contains, are fairly open to severe criticism. Taine is much more than an advocate speaking from his brief, but his writings are colored by the faults of advocacy. He can write occasionally in the true historical spirit; but throughout great portions of his work, and especially in his concluding books, he reminds one of an honest *procureur-général* employed to establish the criminality of the Revolutionary heroes. His honesty appears in his care to confirm every accusation by reference to good authorities; he is quite innocent of invention. But the account of the accused, their acts and their motives, is often no more a complete history of the Revolution than is a prosecutor's version of a criminal and his antecedents a complete or satisfactory account of the prisoner's life. Taine lacks scientific disinterestedness, breadth of view, and insight. Hence the result of his labors has been to produce a store of materials for history rather than a satisfactory piece of historical criticism. That this judgment is not too severe will be apparent to any one who considers the three following features in Taine's account of the Revolution.

First. Taine never shows any real appreciation of the difficulties which beset every man who, from 1789 onwards, wished to secure order without sacrificing freedom. All Europe had, a century ago, lost the art of dealing with popular tumults. The citizens of London were as helpless when Lord George Gordon opened the prisons as was the Government of France when the mob entered the Bastille. In England, however, the friends of order could with ease rally round the King and his Ministers. No one feared that if the troops were allowed to fire upon rioters, their next step would be to dissolve Parliament by force. The Liberals of France were unable to rally round Louis the Sixteenth. No man so free from gross vices was ever so utterly contemptible. The idea of showing the nation that, in the words of George the Third, "there was one magistrate in the country at least who would do his duty," never occurred to Louis. And had the King been a person of more energy, it is difficult to see how any Liberal could have stood by the French monarch. It is easy enough for writers who have realized all the horrors which have flowed from the Jacobin triumph, to intimate or imply that by a little energy the moderate men who undoubtedly made up the majority of Frenchmen could have secured the blessings of constitutional government. Constitutional government without the King was impossible. But it is hardly doubtful that if Lafayette, and men of his quality, had headed the King to crush the mob of Paris by force of the army, the next step in the drama of reaction would have been the overthrow of the Constitutionalists by the court. Under the circumstances of France in 1789, Moderates must almost instinctively have felt that their only choice lay between revolution and reaction. And a generation, many of whom can recollect 1848 and 1849, must admit that the feeling which influenced the men of the Revolution was sound. In every country throughout Europe the reformers or revolutionists of 1848 tried with more or less success to avoid the errors of their fathers. In France, in Italy, and in Germany the friends of order rallied round the Government; the mob was put down, and, in every country except Piedmont, the hopes of the Liberals were ruined. That Victor Emmanuel should have deservedly become the hero of Italy simply because he acted like a gentleman and kept his word, is a lasting satire on the trustworthiness of royal oaths.

Once, however, admit that Moderates could not trust the King, and the calamities of the Revolution follow by something very like an inevitable sequence. Add, further, that the terrors of reaction lost none of their power when Louis had perished on the scaffold. There is every proof that a large body of educated Frenchmen wished well to the Girondists. The Jacobins, who ultimately destroyed the only true Republicans in the country, were, as Taine establishes, a small, a desperate, and a despicable faction. Yet the Girondists could offer no real opposition to their rivals. One cause of their weakness is patent: men will never conquer who fear success. The victory of the Girondists would, one may confidently say, have opened the road to reaction. If a Republican general had, like Cavaignac, fifty years later, rallied the army and the country in defence of the Republic and of order, he would have, like Cavaignac, found, that by reëstablishing order he had destroyed the Republic. The destruction, moreover, of the Republic meant in 1793 the dismemberment of France. Taine, we are aware, does not profess to write a history, and therefore is not bound to describe the resistance of the French nation to foreign Powers. But he is bound not to forget the connection between war abroad and terrorism at home. We certainly find throughout his pages no trace of his keeping before his mind the impression which must have been made, not only upon the fanatics of Paris but upon every patriot throughout the country, by the treachery of Dumouriez. His treason was the more fearful because it came within an ace of success.

Secondly. Taine's whole attitude with regard to the exploits of the French army is perplexing. One may perhaps even suspect that he himself is puzzled how to account for the success of French arms abroad at the very time when, on Taine's own showing, the Government at home was in the hands of knaves, fools, and fanatics. It may of course be said that the triumph of French arms was not caused by Jacobin terrorism, and we have not much doubt that this assertion is in a great measure true. If fear of death may occasionally have inspired a general to deeds of successful rashness, the dread of unjust and disgraceful punishment must still more often have deprived brave officers of nerve and judgment. But the difficulty is to see how, if the rule of the Terrorists and the Directory was marked by corruption and incompetence, the armies, which after all obeyed the Government, could have come out victorious in a struggle with combined Europe. Suppose, as is certain, that the armed forces contained with hosts of blackguards all that was best and most generous in the manhood of France; the question still recurs, How is gross tyranny and corruption at home compatible with enthusiasm and moral discipline among the troops who guarded and extended the frontiers of their country? Moreover, hateful as was the Directory, the soldiers appear, on the eighteenth of Brumaire, to have supported the Republican or revolutionary party. The army was not Republican, but was nevertheless enthusiastic for the Revolution. Robespierre was overthrown by the Assembly; there is not, so far as we know, a trace of evidence that the army were preparing to put an end to the Terror. Bonaparte generally pretty well knew where was the true seat of political power, and Bonaparte was, on the ninth of Thermidor, a friend and protégé of the younger Robespierre.

Thirdly. Taine, in his last volume at least, palpably overrates the merits of the *ancien régime*. All that he says in praise of the nobility, the middle classes, and of the clergy, is, we may believe, in itself true. The noblesse often exhibited a public spirit which is unknown to their descendants; the middle class possessed a kind of respectability which is not often found among their modern representatives; and we may well believe that, as stated nearly ninety years ago by Burke, the higher priesthood of France were, towards the outbreak of the Revolution, a body among

whom one would not be surprised to find a Fénelon. The society which the Revolution destroyed was a society the members of which often displayed many virtues, and still more often many charms. Any candid reader of Arthur Young's 'Travels' will feel that the liberal France which welcomed Young is scarcely represented in the France of to-day, and that no traveller who wanders, as the English gentleman-farmer wandered, from Calais to Luchon, will ever meet hosts as charming as the ladies and gentlemen in whom Young found not only acquaintance but friends. All this can be conceded to any admirer of old France. It may also be candidly admitted that, during the latter part of the eighteenth century, outrageous cruelty on the part, either of the court or the nobility, was almost unknown. A political régime of despotism and exclusiveness was mitigated by the humanity and urbanity of social life. But if from all this the conclusion be drawn that nothing but the fanaticism and folly of Revolutionists destroyed monarchical France, the inference is overset by one pregnant remark of De Tocqueville's, of which we give here the substance and not the words. "I find," he in effect says, "that by those who lived under the *ancien régime*, it was universally detested. And in face of this fact it is impossible to maintain that it was not detestable."

The force of this argument is confirmed by two considerations. Men who detested the Revolution dreaded nothing more than a return to the pre-revolutionary state of affairs. The admiration entertained for the English Constitution is the strongest condemnation which could be pronounced on the governments of Continental Europe. No rational observer can doubt that English institutions under George the Third were full of faults which, to an Englishman or American of the present day, would seem intolerable. And no observer can also doubt that, during the eighteenth century, the English Constitution, with all its faults, was the object of a kind of respect and wonder which the modern English polity, with all its merits, fails to excite. The reason is not far to seek. It is not absolute but comparative merits which are the object of wonder. In 1789 the English Constitution secured free national life, liberty of discussion, and supremacy of law. These elementary features of good government were at that date utterly unknown to France; they are now the characteristics of every civilized European state. Hence, a century ago the Constitution of England was admired as the one body of institutions under which personal freedom was combined with national power and national prosperity. At the present moment, England is governed under a far more humane and enlightened form of government than existed there in the reign of George the Third; but humanity and enlightenment are no longer the monopoly of England. Qualities which exist under the constitution of every civilized state cannot, from the nature of things, be regarded with the admiration due only to exceptional merit.

Nor is it only from the comparison with England that we may infer the defects of French government and society. Taine, in effect, forgets the misery which the *ancien régime* brought upon whole classes. Exclusion from honorable careers was an insult and oppression to many who, under no circumstances, would have risen high, say in the army or in the sphere of politics. The peasants saw in the landed proprietors a class who were oppressive without being powerful. Protestants and dissidents of all kinds felt that, even when not actually oppressed, they were always liable to oppression. The arbitrariness and the cruelty of the criminal law not only irritated all persons bent on ameliorating the condition of the country, but, what is a matter of great consequence, instilled into the people at once the habit of obedience to power, and the feeling that cruel and severe penalties were the right mode of punishing all attacks on the creed or the political institutions of the State. The priests like Carrier, and the advocates such as Robespierre, who were the authors or the servants of the Reign of Terror, may have thought that they deserved some credit for not making use of actual torture as a means of punishment, and, one may assume without a doubt, derived their notions of justice, or rather of injustice, from the habits of the very Government which they had overthrown. The Jacobins, as Quinet has well pointed out, were in reality reactionists; they secured the momentary triumph of the Revolution by adopting and exaggerating the spirit and procedure of the fallen despotism. When once it is clearly perceived that the *ancien régime* was detested and from many points of view detestable, we understand why it was that France which, ninety years ago, was certainly not republican, never really became royalist. But this is a matter which Taine never explains; he loses his way, so to speak, amid a mass of details which his industry has accumulated together, and neither can find himself nor supply to his readers a clue by which to escape from confusion into the clear light of truth.

The Cruise of the Brooklyn. A Journal of the Principal Events of a Three-Years' Cruise in the South Atlantic Station. By W. H. Beehler, Lieutenant United States Navy. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1885.

Lieutenant Beehler's handsome volume is partly designed as a record of the cruise of the *Brooklyn*, to be preserved as a pleasant memento by shipmates who had been long enough together to have a sort of family feeling for one another, and partly as a magazine of information with regard to the countries visited. The list of these is a long one, and the volume contains a great deal that is of interest in regard to parts of the world not often visited, as, for example, Madagascar, and to matters for which we should ordinarily resort (frequently, however, in vain) to a cyclopædia. The style is colloquial, or perhaps we should say journalistic, as the book has grown out of a newspaper published on board the *Brooklyn* by permission of the commanding officer, and called the *Brooklyn Eagle*. According to the preface, the interesting reception of Neptune on board the flag-ship upon crossing the line "created a demand for a periodical," and the author was selected to assume the editorial control. Happily the *Brooklyn* seems to have had among her stores a press, types, and printing-ink, and the *Eagle* became "a regular feature" of the cruise, and was furnished to subscribers at the moderate rate of 5 cents per copy, while contributors were encouraged by being allowed as many copies of the papers as they pleased for themselves. In a continued series of the *Eagle* was published a "History of the River Plate Republics," which the author intends to complete and publish in a separate volume. The 'Cruise of the *Brooklyn*' may fairly be called a unique publication; for probably there is no navy in the world but ours in which the commander of a squadron would think of allowing the tedium of a voyage to be beguiled by the publication of a newspaper conducted by a subordinate, nor any other in which such a publication would not be likely to lead to an early mutiny. The weekly distribution of *Saturday Reviews* among his crew by the kind commander of the *Mantelpiece* was nothing compared to the actual publication of a newspaper on board, in which the most natural material for "editorial comment" would seem to be the behavior and discipline of men and officers, the management of the ship, etc. All these difficulties were in the case of the *Brooklyn* successfully avoided, and the venture turned out a complete success.

The book contains a number of valuable illustrations and a track-chart of the cruise, showing that the *Brooklyn* between New York, South America, and the eastern coast of Africa, and Madagascar, made a record of 38,600 miles. The author wisely writes in great detail, and thus manages to reproduce very well the impressions made upon him by the various incidents of his cruise. In Montevideo, for instance, we have a graphic and minute description of the sports of the arena as developed by Spanish-American civilization, including not only an extremely perfect type of bull-fight—more complete and antique, we should infer, than any elsewhere to be found—but an extraordinary combat between a bull and what the author says the natives call a "Paraguayan tiger"—a sort of leopard, apparently. A very good description of the carnival at the same place is given. Mr. Beehler has a journalist's eye for what is most characteristic in places and scenes; and it will interest those who endeavor from time to time to naturalize the carnival in the north, to learn that the Montevidians have a carnival custom which might be cheaply and easily introduced in New York, though with us it would probably find favor chiefly among boys and girls rather than adults. This is the use of the *pomo* and *pomito*, which are small leaden flasks, something like the tubes made to hold artists' colors, containing perfumed water. This in carnival time, by a slight pressure between the fingers, is quietly squirted into the eyes and noses of the merry-makers, greatly heightening the gayety of the hour. Water is also used as ammunition in a variety of other ways, by means of paper bags, buckets, and, most effectively of all, a hose attached to a hydrant. The author notices one circumstance which probably explains why in Catholic countries the masked balls, which with us are so dreary, are the great event of the gay season—that it is only at them that the women have any liberty. At a carnival ball in South America a woman may do what she pleases—talk, walk alone with men, flirt, and otherwise enjoy herself. This with us she can do at any time without going to the trouble of putting on a mask or domino. All this gives an idea only of the lighter part of the contents of Mr. Beehler's entertaining volume. For the more solid portions we must refer the reader to the book itself.

Tenants of an Old Farm; Leaves from the Note-book of a Naturalist. By Henry C. McCook, D.D. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1884. 8vo, pp. 456.

In certain features—title, colloquial style, and illustrations in part comically adapted from nature—the present work recalls the now almost forgotten English 'Episodes of Insect Life,' and the more recent French 'Population of an Old Pear Tree'; but it is superior to both. While the professional naturalist will, in most cases, wish that the author had resisted successfully the advice of others as stated in the very frank preface, and had related his numerous and interesting observations upon spiders, ants, etc., in the most direct way, he will probably admit that what appear to him superfluities and almost impertinences, will make the scientific matter acceptable to a much larger circle of readers. Moreover, the plan adopted of stringing a series of observations by a single individual upon a slender thread of story, is perhaps the only one which would enable the author to confine himself almost wholly to what he has personally wit-

nessed either in the vicinity of Philadelphia or in Texas. It also enabled him to dispense with references in the text; but they might have found an appropriate and useful place in an appendix, and thus, along with the considerable number of contributions which are to be credited to Mr. McCook himself, the general reader and the student would have learned at least the names of the very small band of American workers upon ants and spiders. That the author is a clergyman is sufficiently, but not objectionably, manifest. His dealings with the troublesome topic of evolution, indeed, exemplify well the advantages that would follow the introduction of a certain amount of natural history into the preparation for the ministry.

The illustrations are numerous, and for the most part both artistic and accurate; even the amusing ones suggest the truths which masquerade, as it were, in harlequin attire.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Lee, Vernon. Miss Brown. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library, 20 cents.
Mackail, J. W. The Æneid of Virgil. Translated into English. Macmillan & Co. $1 75.
McLennan, D The Patriarchal Theory. Based on the Papers of the Late John Ferguson McLennan. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Olssen, Dr. W. O. Revelation Universal and Special. Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.
Orcutt, Dr. H. School Keeping, How to Do it. Boston: N. E. Publishing Co. $1.
Reid, J. S. M. Tulli Ciceronis Academica. The Text Revised and Explained. Macmillan & Co. $3 75.
Ward, T. H. Humphry Sandwith: A Memoir, Compiled from Autobiographical Notes. Cassell & Co. $2.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 12, 1885.

The Week.

THE action of several Republican Congressmen and Senators, including Messrs. Hiscock, Millard, and Bayne, in calling upon President Cleveland and expressing their hearty approval of his inaugural address, and their willingness to support him in administering the Government in accordance with the spirit therein manifested, is highly commendable and significant. It shows that there are some men in the Republican party who are able to realize that the campaign is over, and that the country has interests which are higher than those of any party. What the country needs is a plain, honest administration of the Government; and if President Cleveland endeavors to give it that, he will not only deserve but will receive the support of everybody except those blind partisans who would rather see a bad Administration than have their plans for 1888 upset by a good one. We have had a surfeit of politics in the administration of the Government for the past eight years. The electoral controversy of 1876 and 1877 carried the partisan bitterness of the campaign far into the Hayes Administration, and almost into the campaign of 1880. The long wrangle over the New York Collectorship in 1881, culminating in the assassination of Garfield, had a similar effect. Partisan critics of President Cleveland are hoping for such a wrangle over his policy as will weaken his Administration, but they will be disappointed. The spirit of the time, as well as the character of the President, is against it. There is no marplot like Blaine in this Cabinet, and there are no signs of such a party quarrel as he brought on in the spring of 1881.

As a general rule, even those who opposed Mr. Cleveland most bitterly during the canvass are, now that he is President, treating him with respect, or at all events with civility. There are, however, some exceptions to this rule. On Wednesday there was a debate in the New York Senate over the proposal to adjourn in honor of the inauguration at Washington, which drew from Senator Gilbert a piece of campaign denunciation of the President, in which he spoke of his inauguration as a "disgrace" and "disaster." In Boston, a few days ago, that eccentric theologian, Joseph Cook, in a so-called religious lecture, delivered himself of a tirade still more offensive and indecent. We have received at this office within a few days a medal which some bitter Republican partisan has actually gone to the expense of having struck off simply for the purpose of inscribing on it insulting remarks about the President. All this only shows that a good many Republicans still feel very sore over their defeat. The number, we know, is diminishing every day, but nothing but time and experience of the new Administration will wholly extinguish their rancor. We refer to the matter now, however, simply for the purpose of reminding them that personal denunciations of the President are in these times somewhat dangerous, and that it is the duty of every good citizen to refrain from them, at all events in public. The lawfulness of "removing" obnoxious persons in power unhappily has become a very familiar idea in our day, and the country swarms with cranks and fanatics, in whose brain the incautious talk of sensible men may sow the seeds of murder or outrage. Moreover, in this country the old spoils system still has such a hold on the imagination of the worst portion of the population, that it furnishes tens of thousands with a reason for wishing to get a reforming President out of the way, which may any day, under the influence of liquor or disappointment, ripen into action. The excited people who thought the country would be ruined, and proposed to sell their property at fifty cents on the dollar, if a Democratic President came into power, are nearly all restored to their right mind, and are going on with their business as usual. Let the others who worked themselves into the belief that President Cleveland was a stupid profligate, if they cannot at once get over their delusion, at least keep a watch on their tongues.

The selection of Mr. Charles S. Fairchild as his First Assistant Secretary in the Treasury, is probably the very best answer which Mr. Manning could give at present to any doubts which have been inspired by his political antecedents, as to his fidelity to civil-service reform, and as to the principles on which he means to manage the Treasury. Mr. Fairchild, who has not been in office since he held the State Attorney-Generalship in 1876-77, is a man, in every respect, political, personal, and professional, of the very highest standing, a promoter of every good cause, a reformer through and through, and eminently qualified both by attainments and experience for the work of his new place in Washington. Mr. Manning would never have put Mr. Fairchild in it if he did not mean to purify the Treasury, and manage it on business principles. Both he and Mr. Whitney have a chance of honest fame which does not come to men once in fifty years, and we cannot help believing that they are aware of it and will use it.

A curious claim is put forward that President Cleveland ought to retain Collector Robertson in office because he has refused to use the patronage of his office in the interest of politics, and has administered it on civil-service-reform principles. The persons who make this claim seem to have short memories. What was the Collector doing at Chicago at the time of the last National Republican Convention? Was there in that city at that time a more enthusiastic or active Blaine man than he? What was he doing throughout the campaign but throwing all his influence in favor of Blaine's election? Not more than a fortnight before the election he was interviewed at some length by a *Tribune* reporter, and said that Cleveland had not a ghost of a chance for carrying New York; that everything was in Blaine's favor. He was a partisan from first to last. There was no civil-service reform in his appointments, and while he has been shrewd enough to conform outwardly to civil-service regulations in his administration of the Collectorship, he has been throughout his term quietly and faithfully devoted to the Blaine influences which put him in power at so great a cost to his party.

The Buffalo *Express* makes the suggestion that Mr. Evarts ought to be the Republican candidate for Governor this year, because he would be sure to be elected, and he would then be the most likely candidate for the Presidential nomination in 1888. There are several objections to this fine plan. In the first place, if he were elected Governor, it would deprive the Empire State of Mr. Evarts's services in the Senate, where great things are expected of him. In the second place, if he were not elected Governor, his defeat would be certain to depress him and thus detract from the brilliancy of his Senatorial work; and his Presidential boom, which we rejoice to say is now in a flourishing condition, would be prematurely demolished. And he would be very likely to be defeated as Governor from much the same causes which defeated Judge Folger. He would be "knifed" by the friends of other aspirants in his own party. It is a little early to start the campaign for 1888, as Mr. Evarts or any other candidate who makes the experiment will be certain to discover.

The position taken by Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., President of the Union Pacific Railroad, in his letter to Senator Hoar concerning the relations of that company to the Government, must impress fair-minded people as at once candid and businesslike. There is no ground for any suspicion that the company, under its present management, has made any concealments or has come short of a full statement of its capabilities, so far as the same are now known, for meeting its pecuniary obligations to the Government. The question is thus reduced to the simplest terms, viz.: Is it for the public interest that the Government should take the property and assume the liability of the prior lien, or fix such terms of payment as its earning capacity and the proper development of the adjacent territory will permit and justify? Care being taken that no security now held shall be lost or impaired, we think that intelligent public opinion will favor the latter policy very decidedly. The burdens imposed upon the Government are sufficiently extensive and onerous, without any unnecessary additions. The resources of statesmanship are already sufficiently taxed, and if ever there was a time poorly adapted to the enlargement of public functions and to new experiments in administration, that time is the present. The Democratic party should be in no haste to add railroading to its other responsibilities.

Ex-Secretary Teller's defence of his action in the matter of the Backbone Land Grant, if not entirely conclusive, is decidedly more respectable than the attack made upon him by

Senator Van Wyck. Since the wind began to blow against land-grants a few years ago, the Department of the Interior has repeatedly called the attention of Congress to the law and the facts relating to the so-called lapsed grants. The law has been settled by the Supreme Court in the sense that a Congressional grant of land remains in force, notwithstanding a failure of the conditions of the grant, until a forfeiture shall have been declared by law. To all intents and purposes, therefore, the Backbone Grant was in the condition of a grant where there had been no breach of conditions. The Secretary of the Interior was bound legally to see it in that light. Nevertheless, he had held back the patents some years, in order to give Congress the opportunity to pass an act of forfeiture if it should choose to do so. No such action was taken, but in place of it a petition was filed in the Department by certain members of Congress requesting the Secretary to withhold the patents still further. Such a request, Mr. Teller justly remarks, is entitled to no more consideration than a petition from an equal number of private citizens in any walk of life. The railroad company, which had finally earned the lands, had rights in the premises, and the question for the executive branch of the Government to consider was whether these rights should be still further denied or postponed at the instance of a few private persons. It is alleged by Mr. Van Wyck and others that the company claiming the grant was not the same one to which it had been originally made, and that the transfer from the old company to the new one was not valid. Upon this point the opinion of the Attorney-General stands opposed to that of Mr. Van Wyck. But even if the opinion of the latter be the better in point of law, it is not the one which the Secretary of the Interior is bound to follow. Very fantastic notions get abroad at times regarding the value of legal authority, but the framework of government has been constituted in such a way that the opinion of the Attorney-General must prevail over that of Senator Van Wyck in a case properly brought before him, in the same way and to the same extent that it prevails over that of Justus Schwab.

General Hazen has sent a request to the new Administration that the court-martial proceedings ordered in his case be not dismissed, alleging as an excuse that rumors had come to his ears that such action was contemplated. As nobody else has heard such rumors, there was no apparent cause for the General's uneasiness. He will have an opportunity to answer the charge against him of having been guilty of the extraordinary conduct of censuring his superior officer, the Secretary of War, both in official communications and in public interviews, and all for the purpose of removing from himself the blame for the failure of the Arctic Relief Expedition and the consequent death by starvation of a part of the Greely party. This blame was placed directly upon him by the court of inquiry, and if President Arthur had done his full duty promptly, General Hazen would have had his case settled by court-martial many months ago.

We trust that the court-martial will make a thorough examination of General Hazen's conduct in the relief-expedition matter and give a final decision upon it. The text of the charges seems to justify such a course. It was shown at the court of inquiry that his negligence, or wilful disobedience of orders, was the direct cause of the failure of the *Proteus* expedition to establish a relief station at the point where the subsequent experiences of the Greely party proved it to be most needed. General Hazen, instead of obeying directions and putting instructions for the establishment of such a station into his official orders to Lieutenant Garlington, merely slipped a memorandum for such instruction into the envelope containing the orders, and privately told Garlington to pay no attention to it. Having done this extraordinary thing, and having been exposed in it, he devoted himself to inditing official criticisms on the course of the Secretary of War, and to "working" the press of the country with whitewashing explanations of his conduct.

The deadlock over the Senatorial question in Illinois has reached the stage of turbulence and personal violence. Of course all hope of useful legislation has been abandoned while men's thoughts are excited by the opposing claims of parties and persons to the high office in dispute. It cannot be said that the controversy is any nearer settlement now than it was on the day when the Legislature assembled, since if Mr. Morrison and General Logan should both withdraw, the tie vote would still prevent an election. It has been surmised that some scaly Republican member might be bought with an office, or some corrupt Democrat with money, to give to one or the other party a clear majority. It is scarcely possible that such a transaction could be consummated in the blazing light which has been thrown upon the actors in the struggle, and we feel very sure that neither Colonel Morrison nor General Logan would be a party to any questionable methods for securing the prize for which they have been respectively nominated. The only outcome now discernible is a vacancy in the representation of Illinois in the Senate until a new Legislature is chosen by the people.

Word comes from Iowa that the Prohibition Liquor Law, which has been in force since July last, is confessedly not a success. It is enforced in only a few counties; in others it is openly disregarded, with no efforts on the part of the authorities to enforce it; in a few, spasmodic attempts are made to enforce it, but with indifferent success. Throughout the State liquor is sold openly, and in the larger cities and towns the number of saloons has increased rather than diminished. In some cities and towns the law is openly repudiated and a license law is really enforced in its place; but in nearly all parts of the State the liquor traffic is in full blast, with no check of any kind upon it, and no revenue therefrom accruing to the local treasuries. One result is that the municipalities are embarrassed for funds to carry on their governments. The benefits from this state of affairs are so small as to be scarcely perceptible. In a few strongly rural communities, public sentiment is enough opposed to liquor selling to secure the enforcement of the law, but everywhere else its presence upon the statute-book is a farce, the influence of which is demoralizing and harmful. This is the experience of every State in which a prohibitory law has been enacted.

Professor Felix Adler, in his ethical sermon on Sunday, made a sharp attack on the managers of the House of Refuge for teaching the inmates such Christian dogmas as the divinity of Christ, the power of the Holy Ghost, and the immaculate conception. He holds that although these dogmas may not be sectarian as between Christians, they are sectarian as against Jews, Unitarians, and Agnostics. He declares that there are twenty or thirty Jewish children in the Refuge, who do not accept these doctrines, and yet are compelled to listen to them, and whose parents would protest against them "with might and main," "if they thought their protest would meet with anything but bitter scorn." He admits, however, the inconvenience which would result from allowing each child to have the full religious service of his choice performed for his benefit, and he doubtless foresees the possibility that there would be in that case such frequent changes of faith among them that it would be very difficult to minister adequately to their religious needs. So he proposes that all religious teaching should be dropped, and that the young criminals should instead thereof be "taught noble ambition by reading good biographies," in combination "with a good reading-room, a well-drained playground, and a useful trade." We are afraid, however, this programme also would make a terrible rumpus. Who is to select the biographies? Would they include that of Christ, or Socrates, or Marcus Aurelius, or Spinoza, or Darwin, or Francis of Assisi, or Xavier, or Napoleon, or Luther, or King David, or Leo X., or Voltaire, or William Wilberforce, and if not, why not? They could hardly be confined to American "self-made men," who began by sweeping out a store, and ended by owning several millions of money in "gilt-edged securities."

The decision of the General Term of the Supreme Court that James D. Fish can be examined as a witness concerning his relations with the firm of Grant & Ward may lead to interesting revelations. The public will be greatly surprised if a sharp examination of Mr. Fish does not disclose a good deal of valuable information. He is pretty generally believed to know more about the extraordinary transactions of the firm than any other man except Ward himself, and if he can be induced to tell it, the whole community will be the gainer. If he is an innocent man, the opportunity to clear himself is now presented; but this theory of his relations to the firm is not sustained by the plea of his counsel that he ought not to be asked to testify, lest by so doing he may criminate himself. If we can get his full statement of the firm's operations, and then get Ward's for comparison with it, we shall be in a fair way to find out the true history of this memorable swindle.

News of trouble between Guatemala and Nicaragua growing out of the canal treaty with

the United States comes opportunely to justify the action of the Senate in rejecting it. It is stated in the *Herald's* Washington despatches that "President Barrios (of Guatemala) has practically declared war against Nicaragua, by insisting upon a course on the part of the latter State, with respect to a consolidation of the Central American republics, which Nicaragua cannot accept; and that the understanding at the State Department is that this attempt to stir up trouble with Nicaragua was prompted by the new relations which this nation has offered to assume toward the United States." Here would be a notable chance to initiate a spirited foreign policy, by sending a few regiments of soldiers, specially recruited for the purpose, to Central America to restore order and hold Guatemala in check. It might be supposed that Guatemala would come to order at the word of command from Washington, thus dispensing with the need of military force, just as France allowed herself to be beckoned out of Mexico without compulsory process. Such a conception would be entirely faulty, for the reason that among the Central American republics fighting is the national pastime, involving no more sense of responsibility than a "shindy" at Donnybrook Fair. If Guatemala has any real or fancied wrongs to avenge upon Nicaragua, the fact that the United States stands behind Nicaragua will have no more effect than the fear of punishment in another world. The distinction between theoretical and applied force has the same value in Central America that it has in the Sudan.

The debates in the House of Commons on the vote of censure pretty thoroughly disposed of the charge against the Ministry of having betrayed Gordon or failed him in any reasonable way. Mr. Gladstone showed that when Gordon was first sent out it was simply to report; that the subsequent extensions of his commission were made at his own request; that his understanding that no British expedition was to be sent to support him was complete; that he himself in his despatches from the first strongly denounced any attempt to hold the Sudan as impracticable; that his first suggestion of a permanent policy of any kind was the despatch of Zebehr, the old slave-dealer, to be Governor-General, a proposal which shocked public opinion, and which the Tories themselves condemned from the first; and that Gordon himself gave them every reason to believe that he was not till the end in any real danger in Khartum, as a retreat southward was always open to him. It was shown, too, that the expedition for his relief was started as soon as it became evident that public opinion called for it; and that the Nile route was adopted, after full discussion, not by Lord Wolseley only, but by the best military authorities in England. The Suakim route would have called for between 30,000 and 40,000 camels, and would have been most perilous for any large body of men, owing to the scarcity of water. On the Nile the expedition was carried up more than half way—that is, to Assuan—in Cook's steamers, and was sure of water all along. Finally, what brought about the treachery at Khartum was the near approach of the relieving force, and that would have precipitated it at any time—in October as readily as in January.

The Marquis of Hartington's speech was mainly directed to showing that the Ministry had in all they had done merely followed the current of public opinion, which changed from day to day, and, as usual, took little count of difficulties. This is to a large extent an excuse, but it is also a confession of shortcoming. What has brought the Ministry into trouble is their not having had from the beginning a distinctly defined policy of their own. When they decided that Egypt must give up the Sudan, they should also have decided to leave the garrisons to their fate, because, as they now acknowledge, there was no possible means of rescuing them. They ought not, therefore, to have allowed themselves to be bullied into making believe that they could be rescued, and sending Gordon out to see how it could be done. Out of this initial error all the subsequent woe has come. What makes it the more deplorable is that the garrisons have since generally gone over to the Mahdi, bag and baggage, and some of them are now fighting under his standard. There were in them a few, perhaps half a dozen, English and American officers, one of whom still holds out at Kassala, and one or two others away in the far south. The fate of these men is doubtless melancholy, but they were military adventurers, who took the risks of service under Egypt in the Sudan with their eyes open; and under any circumstances their lives were not so valuable as to be worth the hundreds already sacrificed, and the thousands still to be sacrificed in an attempt to save them.

Earl Granville has been explaining in the House of Lords that he meant nothing offensive when he said that he plumed himself lately in a debate with the Duke of Richmond on not having taken Bismarck's "advice" to seize Egypt, on the ground that he wished England to reserve her liberty of action under all circumstances. Lord Granville acknowledges that instead of "advice" he ought to have said "opinion." He denied, moreover, that there was anything confidential in either the advice or the opinion, as Prince Bismarck alleged. It was offered in "declarations which were not confidential." Besides this, Lord Granville expressed on behalf of the British Government all sorts of friendly feelings toward both Bismarck and Germany. Great efforts are apparently being made to put a stop to these recriminations and restore the old good understanding, and Bismarck, it is said, is going to play mediator in the Afghan difficulty, and get both the Russian and Afghan outposts to withdraw from the frontier.

It is not probable, however, that anything will now restore confidence in England except the repair and armament of the fortifications of Herat, and the occupation of the place by a very strong garrison. No matter what the Russians may say or promise, the fact has been brought out in a very emphatic form, that the occupation of Merv has exposed Herat to capture by a *coup de main* before the Amir could get any assistance from England, and that if the place were once in the hands of European troops, its recapture would be very difficult. Sir Henry Rawlinson pointed out ten years ago that "the place would be at the mercy of any European Power holding Merv." It possesses extraordinary natural advantages as a stronghold. The great high roads from Kabul, Teheran, Balkh, Bokhara, Khiva, Meshed, Seistan, and Kandahar all meet in it. It has a splendid climate, and lies in a fertile valley. What is of most importance is that it is surrounded by the greatest earthworks ever seen, the origin of which, like the origin of the place itself, is lost in remote antiquity. The town, which is a mile square, is surrounded by an earthen parapet, if one may call it so, which measures 250 feet at its base, and is 50 or 60 feet high, and surrounded by a wall 9 feet thick at the base and 18 feet high. In addition to this there is a wet ditch 45 feet wide and 15 feet deep. In fact, if the Russians got into Herat, it would be almost impossible to get them out. The Persians tried to capture it in 1838 under a Russian leader, Borowski, but were beaten off by the Afghans under Eldred Pottinger. In 1856, the Persians occupied it, also under Russian inspiration, but were compelled to evacuate it the following year, under pressure of a British invasion of Persia itself, in which the Persian army was ruined in a single engagement. Abdurrahman Khan, who is on very friendly terms with the English, will probably now be subsidized for garrisoning it with a heavy force, and be supplied with improved guns, or he will be paid for letting the British occupy it. Otherwise there will be no sleep for the unfortunate British taxpayer, for whom the morning news from every quarter of the globe is now so full of terrors.

The Afghans have brought together some force at Penjdeh, but, it is said, under orders to retire as soon as the Russians do. It is rumored that the Russians have agreed to retire, but it will probably be difficult to get them to execute their promise faithfully. They will continue to send troops down to Astrabad, their base on the Caspian, and to Merv, and gradually accumulate an army in these places, and keep the Afghans and British both in a constant state of alarm. Astrabad, by the way, they seized some ten years ago, although they did not deny it was Persian territory, and for a few years continued to promise to evacuate it speedily, but all the while kept fortifying it, and now have no more intention of surrendering it than of surrendering Khiva. The way the Foreign Office at St. Petersburg gets out of these difficulties is by pleading the difficulty of controlling officers in those distant regions, and, in fact, the necessity of leaving them a large share of liberty. The general in command of the force which has been getting up the present trouble is now set down as a "hot-headed Panslavist," and has doubtless been disavowed, but he will not be displaced. In the meantime the British are concentrating an army at Quettah, which, if the parties should come to blows just now, would be overwhelmingly superior in numbers and equipment to anything Russia can bring together, and the Ministry at home is evidently fully prepared to use it. This will perhaps have more pacific influence than anything else.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 4, to TUESDAY, March 10, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

INAUGURATION DAY, at Washington, was one of the most successful in the country's history. It was characterized by great and orderly crowds, splendid weather, a brilliant procession, and an elegant ball in the evening. It is estimated that 100,000 visitors were in Washington, and that 25,000 people took part in the procession. President Cleveland's inaugural address was enthusiastically received, and has been so extensively published that it is useless to summarize it here.

President Cleveland's Cabinet nominations were sent to the Senate on Thursday. They are the same as indicated in last week's Summary. The nominations were all referred to committees. Senator Riddleberger objected to the customary immediate consideration of the nominations of those who were members of the Senate. He made a few remarks, saying in substance that his objection to Mr. Bayard arose from the belief that he was un-American. This violation of "Senatorial courtesy" was severely criticised by both parties. On Thursday the Cabinet were unanimously confirmed by the Senate, Mr. Riddleberger concluding not to wage the fight single-handed.

One of President Cleveland's first acts in connection whith his official household was the decision to retain Mr. O. L. Pruden as assistant to Private-Secretary Lamont. Mr. Pruden was appointed by President Grant. His retention is heartily commended by members of both parties.

One of the first official acts of Mr. Manning as Secretary of the Treasury was the appointment of Mr. Charles S. Fairchild, of this city, to be First Assistant Secretary in place of Mr. French. Mr. Fairchild has held no public office since the expiration of his term as Attorney-General of New York, but as President of the State Charities Aid Association he has served the public in a most practical way.

Gen. John C. Black, of Illinois, has accepted the Commissionership of Patents. It was tendered to him in the following letter from Secretary Lamar: "The President thinks your official connection with his Administration will contribute to its success, and desires me to ascertain if you will assume the duties of Commissioner of Pensions. I cordially join in his request." General Black is a lawyer, was a Union General, and was the Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor of Illinois in 1872, and the Democratic candidate for the U. S. Senate against Logan in 1879.

President Cleveland's first Cabinet meeting was held on Tuesday. It is understood that the session was devoted almost entirely to the consideration of Federal appointments. It is asserted on good authority that each member of the Cabinet submitted a list of appointments in his Department, held to be essential to the administration of public business under the present régime. The lists, it is understood, included only those offices in which a change was desirable at once, in order that the new Secretaries might discharge the duties of their offices without the least friction or embarrassment.

The last hours of Congress, from midnight to noon on Wednesday, were characterized by some exciting scenes. In the House during the discussion of the conference report on the Sundry Civil Bill, a disorderly scene ensued, in which amendments appropriating several hundred thousand dollars for public buildings were passed with undue haste. Mr. Randall protested, and at length succeeded in getting the bill sent to a final conference. Agreements on the other appropriation bills were speedily effected and an extra session avoided. At 11:30 A. M. Mr. Randall moved to suspend the rules and pass the Senate Grant Retirement Bill. After some filibusters on a contested election case had been satisfied by the seating of Frederick (Dem.), instead of Wilson (Rep., Iowa.), the bill was passed by a vote of 198 to 78 amid tremendous cheers. The House at 12 M. adjourned sine die. In the Senate the River and Harbor Bill was first increased from $5,000,000 to $10,000,000, and then laid on the table by a vote of 28 to 20. Before noon the Grant Retirement Bill, already passed by the Senate, was received from the House, which had just passed it, and was sent to the President, who immediately signed it, and nominated General Grant to be General on the retired list of the army with the full pay of such rank ($13,500). The Senate confirmed this in open executive session amid thunders of applause on the floor and in the galleries. A recess was then taken to attend the inauguration ceremonies.

In the conference on the Naval Bill in the last hours of Congress the House receded from its appropriation of $400,000 to complete the wooden vessel *New York*, and from the amendment to build a 6,000-ton cruiser. The Senate gave up the completion of the monitors. Mr. Randall agreed to the construction of two steam cruisers of about 4,000 tons each, one heavy-gun vessel of about 1,600 tons, and one light gun-boat of 750 tons, but on the condition that the Senate recede from the point which placed their design and construction under the provisions of the previous acts constituting the Naval Advisory Board, under whose direction the present cruisers are now building. The design and construction, therefore, are left in the hands of Secretary Whitney.

By order of President Arthur, the Interior Department on March 3 issued patents for the lands in Louisiana granted to aid the construction of the New Orleans and Pacific Railroad. These lands, comprising about 700,000 acres, are what is commonly known as the Backbone Grant, and it was in regard to them that several members of Congress sent a protest to the President a few days ago.

The resolution of Mr. Van Wyck (Rep., Neb.) relative to the issue of these patents was called up in the Senate on Monday. Mr. Van Wyck made an impassioned speech, reflecting severely upon the last Administration. He concluded: "Was it dangerous to trust the new Administration to do justice to the settlers? Was there danger that the rights of the settlers would be recognized, and the public domain protected by the incoming Administration? If so, the new Administration came in none too soon." Mr. Teller replied with a legal and historical statement of the case. He declared that Mr. Van Wyck was a "professional anti-monopolist and champion of the people," that his purpose was to pose before the public and to gain notoriety, and not to aid to do justice, or to redress wrongs.

Objection was made in the Senate on Monday to the swearing in of Mr. Blair, of New Hampshire, reappointed by the Governor. Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, made the point that a Governor has no right to make an appointment which will begin a term. Mr. Hoar said that a precedent had already been established in a similar case. He thought it would be an injustice to the State to refuse to have him sworn. Mr. Hoar offered a formal resolution that the oath be administered to the Senator from New Hampshire. Mr. Harris asked unanimous consent that it lie over till Tuesday, and this was granted.

The Governor of Mississippi has appointed Gen. E. C. Walthall to succeed Mr. Lamar as United States Senator. He is a lawyer, and was a Confederate Major-General.

The Illinois Legislature was the scene of a row on Thursday. One hundred and ten Republicans were present, and ninety-eight voted for Logan, the Democrats not voting. A Democratic Chairman then pronounced the joint session adjourned. Protests and blows followed, one member getting a black eye. Finally the houses separated without another ballot.

In the New York Assembly on Monday three amendments intended to weaken the State Civil Service Law were reported adversely, and all the reports were sustained.

The Assembly at Albany on Wednesday passed the bill which compels horse and certain other railroad companies to prevent their employees from working more than twelve consecutive hours, except in cases of emergency. The bill is limited to roads of ten miles or less in length. On Thursday the Assembly passed the Appropriation Bill with the $25,000 item for the Adirondack survey included. The Committee on Grievances have voted to report adversely the Woman Suffrage Bill.

Secretary of State Carr has requested S. N. D. North, managing editor of the Utica *Herald*, to superintend the compilation of the New York census.

Adolph Sonnenthal, the distinguished German actor, arrived in this country on Sunday, and appeared at the Thalia Theatre on Monday night.

Mr. T. S. Arthur, author and publisher, died in Philadelphia on Friday. His best-known work is 'Ten Nights in a Bar-room.'

FOREIGN.

In important despatches from the Russian Government presented to Mr. Gladstone on Thursday, M. de Giers, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, denies that the Russian occupation of Akrobat, Zulfikar Pass, and Sariyuz was designed to forestall the decisions of the joint commissions on the Russo-Afghan frontier. He says that the advance of the Russians from Puli-Khatum was only ordered after the Afghans, in July last, during the negotiations for the organization of the Commission, had occupied Panjdeh, and in January had occupied Sariyuz, whence the Afghans withdrew on the advance of the Russians. M. de Giers did not maintain the right of Russia to hold the disputed outposts, but his Government refused to withdraw the Russian troops until the Commission presented its report on the frontier question.

Teheran advices on Saturday said that it was reported there that the Amir of Afghanistan was sending troops to protect the Afghan frontier against the Russians. It was also rumored that the British members of the Boundary Commission would soon return to India. Persia, it is said, will remain strictly neutral in any complications that may arise between England and Russia.

It was announced in London on Sunday that orders had been sent to Sir Peter Lumsden, the British Special Commissioner on the Afghan frontier question, to direct the Afghans to evacuate Panjdeh on the withdrawal of the Russian forces from Akrobat. Baron de Staal, the Russian Ambassador, has, it is said, promised that the Russian troops shall retire. Nevertheless, the London *News* on Monday said: "Although there is a possible hope of a peaceful solution, the condition of affairs is still critical. The British Government's demands that the Russians retire from the Afghan frontier, whether put in the form of an ultimatum or not, are final. The choice of peace or war lies in the hands of the Russian statesmen."

In a leading article on Monday, the London *Times* urged England to occupy and fortify Herat at once, and to check the Russian advance toward the interior of Afghanistan at any cost. It said that if Russia wished to fight, England was not only ready but willing, and Russia had only to say the word.

At a late hour on Tuesday the British Government had not received a reply from Russia to their latest overtures for a settlement of the Afghan question. The *Pall Mall Gazette* said it believed in the correctness of the news received on Monday evening, to the effect that the Russians had advanced their outposts in Zulfikar Pass further south, instead of withdrawing them north, as requested by England. The *Gazette* states that there can be no doubt that grave fears are entertained of a collision between the Russian and Afghan troops.

The total of the enrolled volunteers in Great Britain at the present time is announced as 215,000 men, the greatest number yet attained.

Dr. Blowitz, the London *Times's* correspondent at Paris, on Thursday wrote a strong letter attacking Prince Bismarck for indirection in his dealings with the British Foreign Office concerning the South Pacific Islands. In the Blue Book on this subject issued by the British Government on February 25th there is given a conversation which occurred early in February between Prince Bismarck and Sir Edward Malet, British Ambassador at Berlin. During this the German Chancellor read a despatch which he had sent to Count Münster, German Ambassador to London, on the 5th of the preceding May, and which purported to convey to England Bismarck's idea of how Great Britain could assist Germany in her colonization schemes, and his promise to reciprocate by helping English interests nearer home. The despatch as read urged England to fall in with the suggestions made, because in the event of refusal Germany would be compelled to ask France to perform the offices declined by England. The Chancellor told Sir Edward Malet that as Count Münster seemed to make no progress, it was feared in Berlin that he had not stated the points of the despatch with sufficient strength and precision, so Count Herbert Bismarck was sent to London to assure the success of the desired negotiations.

Dr. Blowitz accuses Bismarck of direct falsehood in these statements. He refers to the fact that Bismarck read the original despatch to Sir Edward Malet in Berlin as a proof that he really never sent it to London. Bismarck, Dr. Blowitz says, proceeded as if this despatch had been sent to London to form the basis of an alliance between England and Germany concerning colonial annexations; as if its rejection by England had been formally and deliberately made; as if this rejection were an endorsement by England of a German-French alliance and gave Germany certain liberty in the South Pacific; and then, when asked for explanations about his encroachments on British possessions, produced as his warrant the original of the very despatch. This production, Dr. Blowitz avers, was made nine months after the date of the despatch, and just when it suited Bismarck's purpose.

Earl Granville, Minister of Foreign Affairs, made a long speech in the British House of Lords on Friday, in explanation of the Bismarck controversy. He said that Bismarck had misunderstood his previous retort to the Duke of Richmond. He (Granville) did not mean that Bismarck had advised England to take Egypt; nor did he refer to private and friendly communications from Bismarck, but to later declarations, not confidential, expressing Germany's hope that England would represent Europe's interests in Egypt. "All my efforts," said Lord Granville, "will be exerted in favor of the conciliatory policy which Prince Bismarck has sketched out." The German Chancellor, he said, must have misunderstood him, for England, beyond any other nation, was gratified at Germany's greatness, and would spare no efforts to retain the friendship now existing between the two Governments." The German papers consider this an apology on England's part.

A letter from Lord Granville was read in the House of Commons on Monday night on the German diplomatic dispute. He says he has "good reason to hope that this friction is a thing of the past." He denies that he ever received Prince Bismarck's despatch of May 5, which, he says, was evidently private and intended for Count von Münster's guidance in dealing with the general political situation. The reading of Earl Granville's letter left a bad impression, as it was considered an inadequate exposition of his denial of the receipt of Prince Bismarck's despatch, and conveyed a hint that Count Herbert Bismarck, at that time Secretary of the German Embassy, had suppressed the communication. Nevertheless it was announced from Berlin on Tuesday that the Emperor William had formally congratulated Prince Bismarck on the success of Count Herbert Bismarck's mission to England, and that Bismarck would soon declare in the Reichstag that a complete reconciliation with England had been effected. It having been reported that the British flag at Victoria colony in West Africa had been hauled down and the German colors substituted, Germany officially informed the British Government on Tuesday that she disavowed such action, and would make necessary reparation if the report proved true.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) published on Wednesday a caustic criticism of the action of the British Government in publishing the private conversations of Prince Bismarck with Sir Edward Malet, the British Ambassador. It pronounces the printing in the Blue Book on the South African question of the personal remarks made by the German Chancellor to Sir Edward Malet "a striking and regrettable case of indiscretion." "Such conduct," continues the *Gazette*, "must put a stop to all confidential exchange of news between the statesmen of the two governments. If the object of these publications has been to make France distrust Germany, it has failed, but its malevolence remains inexplicable."

Advices from Cameroons, under date of January 19, say the situation there is still very much unsettled. Hickorytown, Lockprisos, Fosstown, Moskoko, and Belltown have been burned to the ground, and the natives have sought refuge in the bush. King Bell is afraid to return, although the Germans have tried to induce him to rebuild Belltown. The London *Daily News* says that the territory seized by Germany in eastern Africa is more than twice the size of Prussia. It surrounds Zanzibar, and the intention seems to be to make the Sultan of Zanzibar dependent upon Germany rather than England.

In the House of Commons on Monday night the Marquis of Hartington, in moving a vote of 3,000 additional men for the army, explained that the cost of the autumn expedition to Khartum would be included in the expenses of the next financial year, and would require another credit. He said that General Graham's forces would disperse the rebels, occupy Osman Digna's positions, and prevent the rebels from again concentrating. General Graham would then open the route to Berber as far as possible. If he reached Berber in time, he would coöperate with General Wolseley in his advance on Khartum. The Suakim Railway, the Marquis of Hartington said, would be purely a military structure, but would doubtless eventually lead to the establishment of a permanent railway.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night the Marquis of Hartington said the Government thought that any advance by General Graham from Suakim for the relief of the garrison at Kassala was impossible. He said the Government was unprepared to state the number of additional men they intended to enroll in the army. A motion to grant £330,000 for extra naval expenses was agreed to.

The garrison of Kassala has had another battle with the Haddendowahs, and been completely defeated. The Emir writes that unless speedily relieved the garrison will succumb to famine.

General Wolseley, on Friday, in an address to his troops at Korti, said: "The Queen desires me to express her admiration of your courage and self-devotion. To have commanded such men is to me a source of the highest pride. No greater honor can be in store for you than that I look forward to, of leading you, please God, in to Khartum before the year is out. On the river and in the desert you have borne hardships and privations murmurless. In action you have been uniformly victorious. You have done all that men could do to save a comrade, but Khartum fell through treachery two days before it could be reached. A period of comparative inaction is now expected. The army is not yet formed with a view to the siege of Khartum. We must content ourselves during this period and prepare for the autumn advance. You will, I know, face the heat and the work that remains for you to do with the same courage and endurance which you have displayed hitherto."

During the summer the main body of the British troops will remain in camp at Korti, with headquarters at Dongola. The Mudir of Dongola's army will remain at Meraweh with General Buller's contingent. Two movable columns under Generals Dormer and Brackenbury will be stationed between Debbeh and Handak in constant readiness for action.

The last convoy of the wounded from Gakdul has arrived at Korti. General Wolseley's headquarters will soon be moved to Dongola. The Mahdi will, it is said, soon remove his camp from Umderman to Metemneh or Shendy.

The rear guard of General Sir Redvers Buller's troops arrived at Korti on Monday in a terribly fagged condition. General Brackenbury arrived at Korti on Monday.

The Mahdi, fearing treachery, has gone to Abbas Island, 130 miles above Khartum. There is great dissension and famine among the rebels, and a rising against the Mahdi's uncle in Kordofan was announced on Tuesday.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* urges that the best testimonial possible to make for General Gordon would be the formation of a "Gordon Free State," upon the plan of the Congo Free State, formed by the International African Association, the new State to embrace the Nile country, and its object to be the holding of that waterway on behalf of trade and civilization.

It is reported that after the recent division on the vote of censure, Queen Victoria advised the resignation of Mr. Gladstone and a reconstruction of the Ministry on the basis of a thorough and consistent foreign policy. Mr. Gladstone declined to resign, maintaining that he held power under a commission from the people.

Edmund Yates, editor of the London *World*, was released from jail on Tuesday on account of ill-health.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, by a vote of 264 to 150, finally passed the bill raising the duties on cereals.

General Brière Delisle, the French commander in Tonquin, telegraphed on Sunday that he had relieved the beleaguered French garrison at Tuyenquan. He said: "We arrived on March 3 at Tuyenquan. The Black Flags and the Yunnan army had occupied the pass, the sides of which were inaccessible, and had built forts with three lines of trenches before Duoc. The fighting was severe. Our troops behaved more admirably than ever. The enemy raised the siege of Tuyenquan last evening, the French garrison having fought eighteen days. This siege should be counted among the most brilliant pages of our history. The gunboat *Mitrailleuse* actively assisted in the defence of Tuyenquan. General Négrier's column has been pushed rapidly northward since the capture of Langson. He has now destroyed the line of forts which guarded the Chinese frontier, and has blown up the fortifications which have been known as the gate of China. The magazines, containing large quantities of ammunition, have also been destroyed." The French attacking party's loss at Tuyenquan was 66 killed and 133 wounded; the garrison lost 50 killed and 33 wounded during seven assaults on the town by Chinese troops.

The French commander in Anam has learned that Chinese mandarins are intriguing with the Anam Court with a view to secure combined action between the Anamese and the Chinese for the overthrow of the French authority.

THE CABINET.

It is obvious from a glance at President Cleveland's Cabinet that we should have to go a long way back in the history of the Government to find one of which the average in both ability and character was higher, and it is by the average that Cabinets have, after all, to be judged. Seven such places cannot be filled in any country in the world with men of the first order of capacity, even if seven such men were easily found. All administrative work which has to be done in subordination to another will, or in consultation with other minds—which depends, in short, in any degree for its success on powers of persuasion, or on insight into character—calls for other things besides capacity. It needs a great deal of patience, of good temper, of judgment of men, and of experience of affairs, which persons of the highest capacity do not always possess. Consequently, Cabinets are usually to the eye of the outer world a mixture of materials of very unequal quality. Some of our best Presidents have made them up on the chemical plan of putting in alkalies to neutralize acids—that is, putting in men whom the rest of the world knew to be good, for the purpose of offsetting men whom the President himself knew to be bad.

It is the custom of the American public, however, to be very indulgent about the composition of a Cabinet at the outset of an Administration. It recognizes the fact that the Cabinet has to be, after all, a collection of agents to do important work, as well as a collection of political notables, and that in the choice of these agents a President must be allowed great freedom, and that a large number of the reasons, sometimes some of the best ones which govern this choice, must needs be unknown to the public. The first judgment on a Cabinet, therefore, unless there are notoriously bad appointments in it, must take it as a whole rather than in detail. People's first thought is rather how it will work as a unit than how its different members will manage their separate departments. In other words, the first impulse is to examine it as a sign of the President's policy and aims, of the kind of men with whom he likes to surround himself.

Looked at in this way, we are sure there will be general agreement that President Cleveland's average is very high. The three men whom he has taken from the South, Messrs. Bayard, Lamar, and Garland, cannot be surpassed, within the field of possible choice, for either character or capacity. The sole objection any one can make to them is that they are Southerners, but this objection will only come from that very small and rapidly diminishing body of persons who hold that the Government ought to be conducted on the theory that twelve of the States do not belong to the Union; that there are two grades of American citizens, the Northern and Southern; and that the latter should be allowed to participate in the management of national affairs only on condition that it always votes with the other. This theory has, however, been rejected at the polls by the majority of the American people. Even if President Cleveland had not so largely owed his election to the South, it would have been his solemn duty to save that greatest of all results of the war—the restoration of the Union—by treating the leading men of the South as American statesmen in the fullest and best sense of the term, and entitled to a fair share in all the honors and rewards which the triumph of their party may have won. Happily he has been enabled to do this, in the present case, by putting three men in his Cabinet who, in talents and integrity, would be a credit to any part of the country.

The work of selection at the North has been more difficult. Democrats have in this part of the world been excluded for twenty-five years from all share in the administration of national affairs—a circumstance which has operated in a very marked way either to discourage political capacity in the party, or to prevent its making itself conspicuous. Moreover, many of the older men of the party, who were prominent in public life when the war broke out, have been either discredited by their opposition to the war, or by their abandonment of the old doctrines of the party in dealing with the currency and the national credit after the war. There are but very few of these whose record has not been dimmed in one of these ways, and they are mostly too old to feel the importance of the issues which have been coming to the front during the last ten years. President Cleveland, who is himself the choice of the younger men of the party, had, in putting Northerners into his Cabinet, therefore, almost inevitably to select men but little known in the national arena, and known better for political activity than for administrative experience. But there is no test known to us of fitness for a Cabinet, except political conspicuousness, which Judge Endicott and Colonel Vilas will not bear. The President could not take as his advisers or agents two fitter representatives—one of what is best in New England, and the other what is best in the rising communities of the Northwest—than these two gentlemen. The facts of their biography, indeed, make all comment on their fitness unnecessary.

Mr. Manning and Mr. Whitney, from this State, are in fact the only selections which can call forth adverse criticism. The objections to them are obvious, and have found utterance in many quarters, and have been fully felt by us since they were first talked of. These gentlemen are both close personal friends of the new President, and were both largely instrumental in securing his nomination. It may be said, therefore, and will be said, that their offices are the rewards of their zeal at the Convention and during the canvass. Moreover, Mr. Manning is little known outside this State, except as a very able political manager, and people will ask and do ask wherein consists his fitness for the Treasury, the department of all which needs most rigid care from an Administration pledged to civil-service reform, and that through which any catastrophe in the financial situation would bring most discredit on the President. Mr. Whitney is also open to the objection that he is but little known outside the State, and that he has had no administrative or political experience in the national arena.

We feel the force of these objections as much as any one, but they are, it is to be observed, presumptive rather than positive. They are well calculated to excite prejudice and disappointment. They are not, however, a proper basis for distrust or hostility. There is nothing in them to forbid the hope that these gentlemen will make good administrators and sincere reformers. Of their capacity for anything they undertake we hear no question. Moreover, our confidence in Mr. Cleveland is mainly in his integrity of purpose. To suppose that he had put into the Treasury and the Navy Departments two persons on whom he did not believe he could count for absolute support of the principles of administration to which he stands pledged, would be to suppose him wholly unfit for his place. This, however, is a conclusion which even an enemy, if honest, would not allow himself to reach sooner than two years hence. We, for our part, prefer to believe that he has in all his appointments acted on better knowledge than we possess, and with the confident and well-founded expectation of making his Administration what his supporters at the polls looked for at his hands.

SIGNS OF PROGRESS.

President Cleveland may be said to have reached the really critical period in his Administration, as he has now to deal with the filling of the minor offices, a work full of traps and pitfalls for unwary feet. The Washington hotels are crowded with office-seekers, who either have never heard of civil-service reform, or who think the President's letter meant no more than the party platforms usually mean, and are bent on ignoring it. The difficulty which all Presidents hitherto have had in dealing with this crisis, has been the not unnatural difficulty of realizing what an infinitesimally small portion of the American people these office-seekers are, and how unimportant on the whole their claims and opinions are. When the rooms of the White House are packed with a few hundred of them, each telling of the awful consequences to the party of any mistake in the distribution of the spoils in his "deestreect," the President requires to be a man of strong nerves and vivid imagination to see beyond them the American people, toiling in field, and factory, and store, without any desire about offices except that they should be filled by competent men, and full of ridicule for the office-seeking trade and its troubles and disappointments. It is in fact only the Presidents who play the spoils game who need to treat the spoilsmen seriously. The latter cannot damage one who declares, in their own slang, that he is "out of it."

Great as is the rush for office, however, it is neither so great nor so eager as it was four years ago. If any one will take the trouble to turn back to the files of the daily newspapers for the four months of Garfield's Administration, he will find them filled with accounts of the doings of the crowds of office-seekers at Washington. He will read that they swarmed upon the President so persistently that he was unable to attend to his public duties, and that their constant appeals for "places" were seriously undermining his health; that, next to the President, Mr. Secretary Blaine was the greatest sufferer, because of his thousands of personal friends, all of whom had somehow come to understand that he was to

"give them something" when he came into power; that every member of the Cabinet was in a state of siege which made life for him a burden and the administration of the public business an impossibility. This condition of affairs was not limited by the first few weeks of Garfield's Administration, but grew worse and worse with each subsequent week, until it culminated in his murder by a disappointed office-seeker, whose weak head had been turned by the angry ravings of other disappointed office-seekers.

There is nothing so fierce as this struggle of 1881 in progress at Washington now. The office-seeker is there in force, and he is making a nuisance of himself as usual, but the President and the Secretary of State are not so badly persecuted as is the Postmaster-General. The solid South, which was expected to come to Washington in a body, is scarcely represented there at all. The chief rush is for the post-offices of the North and West, and this is likely to be over within a short time. The impression is getting abroad among all applicants for offices that the President "has gone back on them," and is going to keep his word about civil-service reform; that he is not in a hurry about making appointments, and that a week's sojourn in Washington may end in nothing but failure and the payment of a board bill. A struggle for office under these conditions is certain to have only one result—the gradual disappearance of the besiegers.

President Cleveland has only to be faithful to his professions in order to win. He has a great advantage over his predecessors in the shield which the Civil-Service Law gives him. So long as he stands inflexibly by that he is safe. No impartial observer, looking back now at Garfield's sad experience, can fail to see that every concession which he made to the office-seeking class added to his difficulties. Though there was no civil-service law in force when he came into office, he was a professed friend of civil-service reform, was pledged to carry it forward in his Administration, and had committed himself in his inaugural address in favor of a fixed tenure in office as a "protection against the waste of time and obstruction to the public business caused by the inordinate pressure for place." Yet his first important appointments were not such as to encourage civil-service reformers or to discourage the place-hunters. On March 23, while the pressure upon his Administration was as furious as it had been at the very outset of his term, he sent to the Senate a batch of fifteen important nominations, among which were the following: For Collector of the Port of New York, William H. Robertson; for Solicitor-General, William E. Chandler; for Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Thomas M. Nichol. In order to create a "place" for Mr. Robertson, General Merritt, whose term as Collector had not expired, was made Consul-General in London, and General Badeau, who was Consul-General in London, was made Chargé d'Affaires at Denmark. The whole country recognized in these appointments an abandonment of the civil-service-reform principle. One of them led to the most bitter factional quarrel in the history of the country, which did not end even in the death of the President himself. Another, that of Chandler, was rejected by the Senate. Their effect upon the office-seekers was unmistakable. They added to the heat of the struggle for place, and to the bitterness of the contending factions within the party itself. The appointment, about the same time, of Stanley Matthews to the Supreme Bench, after his appointment by President Hayes had been rejected, had a similar effect. Subsequently, also, a faithful and most efficient Commissioner of Pensions was removed to make a "place" for Colonel Dudley, who had been useful in "carrying Indiana"; and wholesale changes, based upon a similar recognition of value received, were made in the consular service. Every additional concession added fuel to the flame, and the host of office-seekers was almost as great three months after the inauguration as it was during the first month.

There is a lesson in this experience for President Cleveland and his advisers, and we are confident that it is scarcely necessary to call their attention to it. The short interviews which have been published with all the members of the Cabinet show them to be, without exception, cordially in sympathy with the President in his civil-service-reform attitude. Fortunately, we are in no doubt about his ability or his inclination to keep his pledges. His course as Mayor and Governor is a sufficient evidence of both. The hungry crowd in Washington are a very small part of the President's political party, and, as we have said, a still smaller part of the American people. They will find this out very soon and go home, for every slow-coming appointment will add, we are firmly convinced, to their disappointment.

THE NEW BI-METALLIC MOVEMENT.

THE recent stirrings of the bi-metallists in France and Germany have undoubtedly been prompted and pushed by Prince Bismarck. The success which has attended his reactionary policy in economical as well as political affairs has apparently emboldened him to take another step backward. That he has been a bi-metallist in principle from the beginning was made tolerably plain by the indiscretion of Mr. William D. Kelley, who published a private conversation which he had with Bismarck at Berlin on the subject in the summer of 1879. In this conversation the latter avowed himself a believer in the double standard, and indulged in some contemptuous remarks upon his own Finance Minister, which caused considerable irritation in official circles in Berlin. By way of appeasing this irritation and rebuking Mr. Kelley for his ill-timed zeal, Prince Bismarck refused to see the American bi-metallic Commissioner, Mr. George Walker, who had been sent abroad the same year by President Hayes to pave the way for a new International Monetary Conference; and when this Conference assembled two years later, the German delegates were instructed to say that they could not change their monetary system. None the less was it evident that Bismarck was personally a bi-metallist. The conversation with Kelley did take place. It was correctly reported. Its significance is only now becoming apparent. Bismarck is as much a reactionist in respect of money as he is in regard to corn-laws. The late movement for bi-metallism in the Reichstag was evidently inspired by the Chancellor, and, although decisively voted down, it will probably be heard of again. The project contemplated the coining of "full-valued silver money" under an international agreement. This would imply a silver dollar of about 490 grains, and a ratio of about 18½ to 1, in place of 412½ grains and a ratio of 16 to 1, and would of course not be acceptable to the Bland faction in this country, although it might serve as a step-ladder to bring them into political harmony with President Cleveland.

If the project of a new International Conference under Bismarckian auspices shall eventually ripen, the United States will, of course, take part in it; but antecedently to such participation Congress must pass a law authorizing the President to appoint Commissioners and appropriating money for the expense of the negotiation. The Finance Committee's bill which was pending in the Senate at the adjournment of the recent session contained a provision of this kind, accompanied by a condition that, in the event of failure to reach an international agreement by the 1st of August, 1886, the coinage of silver by the United States mint should definitively cease. The bill having expired, the subject cannot be resumed until the new Congress shall assemble, at which time there is good reason to believe that a majority of both houses will be in favor of suspending the coinage at once, and resuming, if at all, only after an international agreement shall have been reached.

The prospects of such an agreement are as dim and distant now as they ever were, notwithstanding Bismarck's adhesion to the principle of bi-metallism. The German Chancellor has been able to control European politics by virtue of the heaviest battalions. He has been able to enforce the protective policy by appealing to the selfishness of the land-owners. But it lies not in his power to control the nature of things, nor is it by any means evident that he can persuade the commercial classes of Germany to join in such a movement. Bi-metallism is monetary Quixotism. The Conferences of 1878 and 1881 demonstrated effectually that there was no place to begin free coinage on the ratio of 15½, since the silver of Asia would rush to Europe to be exchanged for gold. The next Conference, if it is held, will demonstrate the impossibility of agreement upon any other ratio. Nevertheless, if Germany shall see fit to call it, the fitting course for this country to pursue will be to suspend silver coinage before and not after the Conference meets, since if the ratio to be adopted is the market value of silver or any other ratio different from our own, it will be necessary to recoin all of our own dollars—an undertaking which will give full employment to our mints for many years to come.

ENGLAND: A POLITICAL CRISIS.

LONDON, February 21.

SINCE the days of the Indian mutiny in 1857, England has had no period of excitement and anxiety comparable to that of the last fortnight. The fall of Khartum, just at the moment when

the relief of its gallant defender seemed all but achieved, smote public opinion like a thunderbolt, scattering all our plans, revealing dangers hitherto unheeded, opening up a long vista of efforts and sacrifices. Nearly every following day has brought news of some fresh encounter or military movement, and although the behavior of both generals and soldiers has been all that could have been wished, the small number of our forces, and their positions dispersed along the Nile and in the desert, have caused lively apprehensions for their safety. The accounts of unexampled activity in the departments charged with military preparations, the departure of troops for the Red Sea, the rumors current as to the intentions of the Government and the designs of foreign Powers—above all, the arrival almost every hour of some fresh piece of intelligence from the seat of war, for which the newspapers issue a special edition, so that the streets echo all the afternoon and far into the night with the shrill cries of the news-venders—have brought England, and especially London, into a state of tension such as no one recollects. Single days of equal excitement there have been before, as when it was supposed, in 1878, that we were on the eve of a war with Russia, or on that memorable Sunday when the news of the Phœnix Park murders shocked all classes alike; but rarely or never so long a strain of eagerness and disquiet.

The first strong sentiment was, of course, of grief at the death of Gordon, which from the first was scarcely doubtful—a grief not unmingled with shame and self-reproach. His character had been so striking, his conduct so heroic, that the idea that too little should have been done for such a man was doubly painful. The next was that of anxiety as to the proper course to be taken in the changed position of affairs. As the expedition had been undertaken solely for the sake of rescuing General Gordon and his companions, his and their death seemed to leave it without any further purpose. The Government had all along declared in the strongest terms their objections to any permanent occupation of Khartum, or any other part of the interior of Sudan, and had notoriously abstained from making a railroad from Suakim to Berber last spring, after their battles with Osman Digna near the Red Sea coast, because they conceived that its construction would compel them to remain there and become responsible for the administration of the country. Their position even in Egypt proper is now apparently less assured than it then was, while the difficulty of reducing the Sudan to order is obviously far greater, because the Mahdi is flushed with victory and surrounded by larger forces. Why, then, it was asked, continue the war against him? Why attempt a task which was deliberately declined when it was easier a year ago?

On the other hand, the sense of grief at Gordon's death, the sense of self-reproach at the failure of our attempts to reach him, the apparent ignominy of turning round and marching back after having spent so much money and sacrificed so many lives in vain, urged some further action against those who had barred our path and killed Gordon. The mere impulse of revenge might have been resisted, because as soon as revenge was felt to be the motive, most consciences condemned it as unworthy or insufficient. But other reasons presented themselves. In the first place, it seemed improbable that our troops could be withdrawn without further fighting, and fighting of a serious nature. They are a long way up from the frontiers of Egypt, and, as the Nile is now falling rapidly, their return by boats will during the next few months be more difficult than their advance was. Possibly the only way of getting them out may be to march across the desert from Berber to Suakim; but Berber is held by the enemy, and would have to be taken in order to open this route. It is, moreover, all but certain that the Mahdi would move forward and attack the British troops on their retreat, while the mere fact that they were retreating would cause the tribes along the line of march to add their strength to his. As his claims are not limited to the Sudan, but to the leadership of Mohammedans generally, he may be expected to attack Egypt, and would have to be fought there if he is not fought sooner. These considerations, with the fear that our retirement would be taken all over the East, in Asia, as well as in Africa, to import our defeat and his victory, and thus give a shock to the security of British power both in Egypt and India, led a large part of the public, irrespective of party, to declare for a forward movement and the continuance of the war against the Mahdi. The Government, whether convinced by such reasonings, as may fairly be believed, or holding that the stream of popular sentiment in this direction ought not to be resisted, promptly announced their intention to attack the Mahdi, recapture Khartum, and break his power. They forthwith proceeded to give effect to this resolution by despatching to Suakim not only a strong force designed to move inland thence, but also by sending out the materials for the construction of a railway from that port to Berber. They have, however, so far, abstained from declaring whether they will ultimately hold Khartum and govern the Eastern Sudan or not, although indicating a disposition not to do so, but to revert, once the Mahdi's power has been broken, to their former policy of withdrawing to Egypt proper and the Red Sea coast.

Some more explicit declaration will doubtless have been made by them before these lines reach you. My present object is to indicate how opinion now stands. It is perplexed and divided to a degree rarely seen even in this country, where on questions of foreign policy it is usually as ill-informed and indefinite as it is clear and decided on domestic matters. Four views may be distinguished. There is, firstly, that of those who hold it our duty (and indeed a necessity for the safety of Egypt, the suppression of the slave-trade, and the vindication of our own strength) not only to retake Khartum, but to hold it, and to set up some stable government in the Sudan, placing garrisons in the more important posts. This is the view which finds favor with the Tory party and with a section of the Liberals, who ask what use there would be in going to Khartum if we are forthwith to abandon it. There is, secondly, the view, understood to be held by the Ministry, that although the Mahdi's power must be overthrown, and our armies kept in the country for ten or twelve months at least to effect that object, the Sudan ought to be subsequently evacuated. Then there is a third view, that the only objects we have to consider are the safe withdrawal of our troops and the protection of the Egyptian frontier, and that it is therefore desirable to avoid advancing against the Mahdi, unless military reasons should prove that only by attacking and defeating him can our retreat be secured. This view, which is pretty largely held among the Liberals, accentuates the importance of taking no step (such as the capture of Khartum or making of the railway to Berber) which can lead to ultimate annexation, and therefore disapproves the proposed action of the Government, while it recognizes the necessity of leaving to the generals on the spot a discretion as to the military movements necessary to facilitate withdrawal and protect Egypt. Lastly, there is the position of the more pronounced Radicals, which condemns altogether the prolongation of the war, and considers that there is nothing to be done but to evacuate the Sudan at the earliest possible moment. It is a view differing from that last described in insisting more strongly that immediate retirement is our main duty, and that military considerations must give way to this political necessity. That the line between these two views, and between them and that understood to be held by the Government, is somewhat ill-defined, shows how complicated and obscure the matter is, and explains how hard men find it to have a positive opinion. There can be little doubt that the general feeling among Ministerialists is to get rid of the war and get out of the Sudan; but people differ widely in their estimate of the extent to which military reasons should be allowed to determine the how and the when.

It need hardly be said that the effect of the catastrophe at Khartum, and the prospect of a long war with heavy expenditure, have gravely shaken the Ministry, to whose want of foresight, promptitude, and firmness many people on their own side of politics, as well as the whole Opposition, charge the misfortunes that have befallen. How far such blame is deserved I need not discuss; but it is noticeable that hardly any newspaper or public speaker does more in the way of defending the Cabinet than pointing out the extreme difficulty of the whole question, and the fact that the Opposition leaders, having indicated no counter policy during the last two years, would have succeeded no better, or perhaps, if their performances in 1876-80 are considered, even worse. It is commonly supposed that the Cabinet has been perplexed by internal differences of opinion; that Mr. Gladstone has been throughout opposed to any assumptions of responsibility in the Sudan, to the sending out of General Gordon, and to the despatch of the present expedition, while some of his colleagues have been able to guide the collective Ministerial policy to the steps actually taken, by insisting on the necessity of satisfying the popular demand for active measures.

Some day these things will become known; in the meantime the Government has been so seriously shaken that it would probably fall but for the peculiar circumstances in which Parliament finds itself. The Redistribution Bill has to be carried through this session, and a general election held within a few months, by next January at latest. Hence the Opposition have little wish to come into office until a general election shows whether they can hope to retain it; and the condition of domestic business in Parliament, as well as of foreign affairs, makes a change of Government undesirable and an immediate general election almost impossible. It is, therefore, understood that the Tory chiefs do not particularly wish to take office. But as they feel bound to condemn the conduct of the Government, Sir Stafford Northcote has given notice of a vote of censure, which will be forthwith debated in the House of Commons, and doubtless decided before this letter reaches you. As its terms indicate a policy opposed to that retirement from the Sudan which the Radicals advocate, it is now supposed in London that they will adhere to Mr. Gladstone, and that the resolution of censure will not be carried, although some of the usual supporters of the Ministry may indicate their displeasure by abstention from voting. Meantime, the anxiety regarding the forces in the field has hardly diminished, and the political situation at home may be at any moment changed by news from the front.

Y.

THE BRITISH WAR SPIRIT AND ITS EFFECTS UPON CHARACTER.

DUBLIN, February 14, 1885.

THE ever-extending influence of the British Empire and British prestige are as wonderful as they are undeniable, and are unequalled in the history

of the world. We may not all admire or be able to share in any feelings of pride regarding them, but we cannot shut our eyes to facts. The formation of the Roman Empire by the addition of territory after territory round a small centre was nothing compared with a remote island extending its dominion to all parts of the world—replacing the power of older rivals, more populous and in some respects stronger than herself. Not the least remarkable features of the phenomenon are the completeness and precision with which England accomplishes her annexations and the extensions of her power, no doubt mainly through the appliances which modern science has placed at her disposal. Such an empire could not be attained and sustained without high average brain power and individual reliability, essentially the outcome of Protestantism, which favors the development of individual self-reliance and character. While believing that, upon the whole, war and its attendant horrors are tending to decrease, I doubt whether of late years the war spirit has at all lessened in the minds of the British people. It may be interesting to surmise the causes.

Although Disraeli's proclamation of the Queen as Empress was smiled at by so many of her subjects, the idea of British empire has latterly taken possession of the public mind in Great Britain as it never did before. "The empire" is now spoken of where the term "kingdom," or kingdoms, was formerly used. And with the new conception has come a strengthened, at least more openly expressed, belief, that any means would be justifiable for the maintenance of the power and prestige of that empire. This spirit is patent not only among the "'Arrys" and "Jingoes," but among the highest and most cultivated class of spiritual teachers in literature and the pulpit. This spirit may yet lead to any depths of cruelty and despotism toward other peoples where it is not curbed—as it was in our late dealings with you and other nations by respect, not unmixed perhaps with fear, and in our dealings with the Boers by a common religion and historical sympathies. The teachings of the New Testament are gossamer threads with the British Lion when what he considers his rights or his honor is concerned.

In all these considerations I must except the feeling of three-fourths of the Irish people at home and abroad, who, not from a sense of right and wrong, or because they have a higher political conscience regarding the outside world than the masses of their fellow-subjects, but for reasons which need not be here enumerated, are always upon the side of any nation, tribe, or people with which "England" is at war.

The establishment and maintenance of the volunteers has done much to increase the war spirit. Amateurs naturally learn to appreciate professionals more highly, and to admire in them feats which it would be their own ambition to emulate. The laying open of the immense civil service of the empire to all classes has permeated all classes with a taste for the details of government and a consciousness of the sweets of office, such as never existed when the aristocracy had the good things to themselves. Then, again, the dissenters and radicals have been brought into sympathy with the Government by the entrance into the Cabinet of such men as John Bright, Chamberlain, and Sir Charles Dilke. People are likely to make allowance for, if not to endorse, the measures of their friends. Parnell's portrait is not likely to be found in an Irish cabin after one of the boys has passed an examination for the police. On the whole, we do not hear the same expression of consideration for heathen opponents that was customary even in the days of the Indian mutiny or the bombardment of Kagoshima. There is no whisper now of a desire to surrender Gibraltar to Spain, such as at one period was occasionally heard in certain doctrinal circles. It is to be doubted whether a protectorate over the Ionian Islands would now be abandoned. Formerly, tolerably steady and consistent protests on the side of humanity and peace might be expected at least from the Society of Friends. But now that Friends are swarming into the professions and into the magistracy, that they wear Lord Mayor's robes,and attend levees in the scarlet costumes of Deputy Lieutenants, with a sword by the side, the rank and file of this Society are as little inclined to "embarrass the Government" as other men.

Latterly the expenses of our little wars have been raised entirely by increases of a penny or a few pence in the income tax, which no one pays who has not an income of £150 a year, and upon which a considerable allowance is made to all whose incomes are under £400. The cost, therefore, does not apparently press upon the artisans or poorer classes, who in many districts are directly gainers by the expenditure on war material and preparations. One of the most striking phenomena of the empire is the maintenance of the army by voluntary enlistment. Foreign wars would wear a very different complexion if they had to be fought with men taken by force from the plough or the loom. The same spirit which induces a young man to enlist makes him long for the excitement and chances of war. As to the upper classes, the army is even still looked to as preeminently the field for the display of spirit and gallantry, with which they are so largely endowed, and as a provision for younger sons. "And then we must hope there will be some little war," was remarked to a friend of mine by a widowed mother, belonging to the aristocracy, when, turning over a photographic album, she showed the portraits of her son as a lad, as a public-school boy, and as a collegian, and told how he was about entering the army.

The illustrated papers and the letters of war correspondents must play no inconsiderable part in fostering a warlike spirit and the idea of empire. Formerly war seemed in the main distant and vague. Money and men had to be sent out, and in return after long weeks or months came dry despatches and convoys of wounded. Now it is graphically and freshly brought before us, day by day, and hour by hour, in all its details, by facile pencils and brilliant writing. What is the payment of a few pounds of income tax to the consciousness of fellowship with such glorious doings! The thought of those few we have known who were struck down in a heroic death is soon forgotten as our hearts swell with exultation at vivid portrayal of the embarkation and the voyage, the landing, the march, and camp life in all its phases; the defence against innumerable odds; the hecatombs of savage dead who have rushed upon our bayonets and been sacrificed to the deadly fire of Remingtons and Gatling guns. The cartoons are large enough now to show us the glare in the eye of our townsman or schoolmate (in the inevitable white helmet) as he gives the fatal thrust, and the death horror of the naked savage receiving it, who had not the wisdom to gauge the power and acknowledge the manifest destiny of our empire and our race. These illustrated papers must have a powerful effect, especially upon children. For the very few who shrink more and more of late years from opening them—and there are such—thousands are attracted to them by the manner in which they minister to their pride, and the love of the horrible, not unmixed with that interest which few can avoid taking in the portrayal of the heroic endurance and the indomitable pluck which high education, and breeding, and civilization appear to induce and favor to a remarkable degree.

It is interesting to consider the differences of character that cannot but ultimately be evolved and accentuated between the British and American people in consequence of their different foreign relations. There is no class here that is not brought into sympathy with either the military or the civil services. The Mediterranean is always alive with steamers conveying backward and forward armies of military or civil servants and their families. With whatever feeling they first leave home, they return in a few years saturated with ideas of domination and superiority, not unmixed perhaps with a profound belief in their duties for good to the subject races with whom they are brought in contact. The thought of domination and superiority is, however, uppermost. Men retired from active service, whether by Highland lough or in the fashionable residence-towns in Great Britain (comparatively few select Ireland as their residences), give the tone to whole classes of society. Their ease of life, attained after comparatively a few years' service, is a standing proof of the advantages of foreign empire. And the contemptuous attitude of mind to which most of them attain toward the peoples over whom they have ruled, is easily translated into the same feelings toward all but the dominant class with which they have learned to mix.

In America, now that slavery is dead, you seem to have no influences tending in these directions. The struggle of life with you lies among yourselves, with your equals, or abroad mainly with those whom you must win, not coerce. You have developed as high a culture as ours; you have surpassed us in many of the arts of life; you will soon be our equals in the higher arts. Already it appears to me that Americans, male and female, of ordinary culture and education, are a higher, a more all-round, human type than their British brothers and sisters in a corresponding position. Your equal abilities and greater opportunities (Protestants as you will ever be in the main) cannot but eventually assert themselves in some remarkable manner, as abilities and opportunities have asserted themselves in the case of the British people in the capacity for foreign conquest. What your development may be can scarcely even be surmised until you throw off the shackles of protection, and until the field for the display of your energies, in the agricultural development of your continent, is much more circumscribed than it is at present.

All I have written is with the full consciousness of the many noble protests against a pursuance of the present bloody work in Egypt, by Mr. Morley, Mr. Courtney, and the provincial press here and there. There are as yet no signs that the mind of the British public generally is working toward a higher state of feeling that would prevent a recurrence of such a succession of warlike complications as we have had of late years.

D. B.

RETROSPECTIVE EXHIBITION OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

London, February.

The English school is very well represented in this exhibition by a few very choice Gainsboroughs (which ought to have been at the Grosvenor in lieu of much of the rubbish the directors had to be content with). The portrait of Lepell, Lady Mulgrave — a dainty, beautiful lady, with the usual smile which Gainsborough reserved for fair women—is very delicate and subtle in color, painted in the slight and true method of his most individual period. "Squire Hilliard and his Wife," a handsome couple,Gainsborough represents walking arm in arm in a park, the lady leading a white Pomeranian dog, which continues the line of toned white of her carefully (for Gainsborough) painted draperies. "Mrs. Hibbert" is also one of Gainsborough's

very best female portraits, and of a very lovely woman. The arrangement of this seated three-quarter figure is very graceful, the line of floating scarf and crossed arms being carefully studied and the values well balanced. The large black hat, with yellow ribbons and black feathers, is excellently well painted. The last two examples being not far from the Vandyke portraits, our eye wanders from Gainsborough to see how he emulated his great ideal, and we must confess that he seems weak and unsubstantial, very inapt at drawing hands, and generally patchy in execution.

Of Sir Joshua there is the lovely child, "Penelope Boothby," painted in his happiest vein. The fair soft hair, surmounted by the large white mob cap; the surprised gray eyes, so kittenlike and sweet; the mobile mouth and the childlike pose—are all admirably painted, with so much softness and rich cool color; while the dress and arrangement are very happy. Another child's portrait, that of Lord Burghersh, represents a happy momentary action with grace: the grays and whites of the boy's dress harmonize most pleasantly with the subdued brownish-green park-like background. Angelica Kauffman's portrait, by Sir Joshua, is very sweet in color and interesting in expression, but is slighter than the above-named examples. There are many more of his that might be named, but excepting a sketch of himself in the attitude of a deaf person listening, they are for the most part painted to order.

Hogarth has a very good life-size portrait of James Quin, the actor, painted with great facility and warm, true color, and the famous "Southwark Fair," full of incident and variety, well known from the print. The painting is as good as usual with Hogarth; the bits of landscape seen through the openings in the buildings are full of aerial quality; the groups and incidents are well subordinated, so that the detail and individual character, while well defined, are not obtrusive.

The two Turner landscapes in the long gallery are both eminently representative of different epochs of his painting. "Old London Bridge" is in the early, quiet manner. It represents fishing boats arriving at daybreak; some have already landed their burden, others are just coming in; the sky is full of light. But far more interesting in composition and subject is the "Burning of the Houses of Parliament"—a masterpiece of brilliant effect and harmonious color. The foreground to the right is cool and night-like in color, the water and sky dark blue, the bridge seen in moonlight, with black boats beneath crowded with people; in the distance the blazing mass of the Houses of Parliament. The moving mass of flames is so exceedingly fire-like in quality as to illumine also with a lurid light the left water foreground. This is a noble Turner, as is also "Saltash, Devon," in which some picturesque buildings by the riverside are illuminated by a warm evening light, with a luminous silvery sky above.

The Vandyke portrait of Charles I. is a very imposing picture—rather conventional, it would seem, in its arrangement of curtain and archway and coat-of-arms resting beside it, facing the spectator, were it not painted with such dash and ease that the head and figure of the King dominate the immense canvas. Not far from this is a most interesting portrait of the ill-fated Earl of Strafford. The head is fine and gentle, rather sad in expression. The whole picture is rich and sombre, the white dog's head on which Strafford's right hand is resting, and the toned white gaiters, being the only lights in it. There is also a fine Vandyke "Portrait of the Duchess of Buckingham and her three children," rather conventional in treatment. The Duchess is affectedly pressing to her breast the miniature of her dead husband, whose large oval portrait is above her.

A "Portrait of a Genoese Noble," Spanish School, is a very remarkable work. The figure and costume and hands, as also the clever arrangement of lines of the background and the general color, recall Velasquez. The excellent modelling, too, reminds us of some of his best portraits, but the head is less good than the rest of the picture—black in the shadows and unpleasantly red. The man is standing in the angle of a stone staircase, and has just turned to descend another flight, so that the lines of the staircase all point toward him from above. The Duke of Alva, by Antonio More, is splendid, though rather hard throughout. The face is like Holbein; the rest is most elaborate in detail, the inlaid armor being especially fine.

Mabuse's "Adoration of the Magi" is one of the remarkable pictures of the exhibition. The general effect is brilliant, hard, and wanting both in grace of line and beauty of expression, yet the color is clear and the draperies and accessories perfect as detail. Especially noteworthy as painting are the robes of the kneeling King, rich, deep-red velvet, lined with fur, executed in a manner worthy of Memling. Another beautiful piece of color is a woman's figure, to the extreme left, leaning out of a window in the red brick building, the blue of the figure harmonizing with the red in shadow. The whole picture is curiously balanced in respect to color relation between the two sides. The ruins in which the figures are grouped are naïvely rendered, and it is quite evident that they were painted from a new building of red brick and marble in which pieces have been damaged for the express benefit of the painter. In the pavement of the foreground the pieces can easily be detected, as they lie in would-be confusion, that fit into the damaged parts. The distant towers of Bethlehem are pale-blue as usual in distances of the Dutch school; to the extreme right, the green hills, less distant, are very beautiful in color. The only graceful piece of composition is the wreath of angels coming from behind the ruins, out to the right and circling round to the front. Each figure and object is painted quite independently of the rest, and there is nothing of the loss of outline and merging of one object in another, characteristic of the Italian masters. There is none of that devotional feeling given even to the ugliest faces by some of the Dutch painters; in fact, though there is a great deal of character, there is an utter want of expression of any kind, but a wonderful individuality and lifelike portraiture.

There are three large pictures by Rubens, from the Marlborough collection, which were offered to the nation, but refused on account of the exorbitant price asked. "Venus and Adonis," with the usual superabundance of flesh in the woman, is in no way remarkable. The pendant is very uninteresting in composition, and not so fine in flesh color as many of the Rubenses in the Louvre. The portrait which hangs between the foregoing represents a lady of queenly bearing and in regal robes of black, with high lace collar and open square bodice, who sits almost facing us. Her exquisitely beautiful hands are shown to advantage as she spreads them on her knee, one resting on a brown muff. Her skin is as fair as that of a young child. The features are very delicate and youthful, the hair fair, curly, and short, the head beautifully set on the shoulders and wonderfully well painted in relief against the white lace collar. The hands are long and delicate, with tapering fingers slightly curled at the tips.

Van Eyck's "Marriage of the Virgin" is a quaint composition. In the foreground is the Virgin to the right, accompanied by her mother and a group of virgins, one of whom is supported by an amorous youth; to the left, St. Joseph, decidedly Jewish and right well satisfied, in contrast with the group of disappointed lovers who stand behind him in various attitudes suggestive of their feelings. One turns away sadly, two look envious and almost ready to quarrel; another stands jauntily throwing back his head, as who should say, "I am sure *I* don't care!" while the priest in the centre joins the hands of the fortunate pair. This scene is cut off from the others which make up this complex composition by a low wall.

A "Virgin and Child," by Titian, is most exquisite in color, warm and rich in the manner of Palma. The Virgin is dark-haired, with sweet peaceful face, and red dress very fine in color, its folds falling gracefully about the seated figure. The background is the most beautiful piece of landscape painting in the exhibition after Turner's. The distant hills of Pieve di Cadore recall the Louvre Titian of the same size. In Veronese's "Punishment of Actæon" there is a lovely effect of color. Over all is a gray cloudy sky of the most beautiful pearly tints, rather wind-blown and streaky. In the foreground is a pool of still water, in which Artemis and two nymphs are bathing. The figures are heavy and short-limbed, but the color and quality of the flesh are exquisite. One figure stands in the full light with upraised arms, and is so white and luminous in the dark water that she seems to throw a reflection on the back of the other figure, which, grasping a red garment, is crouching in the shadow of the overhanging bank to the left. Here is seated Actæon, a little back amid the tree trunks, putting one hand in consternation to his former face, his metamorphosis having already begun. The third figure is half on a lower ledge of the bank to the extreme left, and is pointing with a bow to Actæon and inciting two dogs, who stand back bewildered, to attack their former master.

Correspondence.

CONGRESSIONAL PARALYSIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I offer to "S. M. C." congratulation upon his conversion, and thanks for his manly acknowledgment of it? There is still apparent, however, something of the timidity of one who sees before him a choice between two evils. He says that if the Cabinet officers were admitted to Congress, that body "should place the appointment of all Federal officials not named in the Constitution in the courts, or leave it to the President or the heads of departments, with such clear and specific civil-service rules as would strip these appointments of any collusive or corrupting factorship in any possible relation between Congress and the Administration. This need would also be avoided if these offices were filled by election." As to the latter point, I have no hesitation in asserting that if ever the executive offices below the Presidency are made elective by popular vote (and a Constitutional amendment to this effect would yet be much more easily carried than one admitting the Cabinet officers to Congress), it would sound the death-knell of the Republic. It is that very thing which has brought the science of administration in our States and cities to the brink of ruin, and the only hope of recovery is in the example of sound principle in the Federal Government through the appointment of all officials by one head. If, instead of local reform, we are to extend the pernicious principle to the national administration, then there is before us only the broad road to anarchy and ultimate military despotism.

So far from increased danger of collusion be-

tween the Executive and Congress, the public responsibility of the Cabinet is just the thing to prevent that danger. It is precisely this element which has changed the British Parliament from the corruption of the last century to its present purity, and which, by effecting the transfer of election contests to the courts, promises before many years to make the elections equally pure; which carried civil-service reform and has kept it effective for thirty years, whereas it is to be feared that ours stands at the mercy of that lobby intrigue which defeats every other measure of public interest.

"S. M. C." hints at a Constitutional amendment to effect a change in the position of the Cabinet. It cannot be too often repeated, that the attempt would be so utterly hopeless as to be equivalent to relegating the whole subject to the Greek Kalends. The entering wedge must be a simple vote of the House of Representatives, forced upon that body by the demand of the country, for the expression of which there is needed only the call of a leader, the "Suivez-moi" of Arcola.

"S. M. C." ascribes his change of heart to visits to Washington, and this is the method by which I arrived at the same conclusion fifteen years ago. But the state of things now is such that this seems no longer necessary. Not to mention all the sins of omission and commission—bankruptcy law, silver coinage, the tariff, railway land-grant titles, the condition of the Indians, etc.—the last week of the session furnishes reason enough for demanding a change. The spectacle of the Speaker deliberately using his official position to postpone action on the appropriation bills till the last minute, while expressing a quiet confidence that there would be no extra session, and then sending them to the Senate, the only place where there is any discussion, so late as to render discussion impossible, and to force a settlement in secret conference committees—it seems as if this was enough to convince anybody who was not wilfully blind of the necessity of some strong and responsible outside control.

G. B.

Boston, March 6, 1885.

TRANSLATIONS AND MISTRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discussion by your correspondents of the subject of translations has naturally interested me, and has suggested the making of a small contribution to it, which, however, I do not make for the value of the curious instance given, but in order to add a few words on the general subject.

I had occasion about two years since to look at Bohn's translation of Schiller's 'Thirty Years' War,' made by Rev. Mr. Morrison. On page 67, I found the sentence: "Could a mind so weak as that of Ferdinand," etc. The context made it so clear to me that the passage was meant for the Palsgrave *Frederic* instead of Ferdinand, that I turned to the original German and found that *neither* name was in the sentence, a pronoun only being used instead. The translator had evidently thought that he ought to relieve the reader of all doubt, and so supplied, as he thought, the missing name. We naturally wonder how such a blunder could have been made, and not less how it could have remained for about forty years. So it is.

The incident affected me singularly. Though the translation appears to be a good one, I have not since looked at it until to-day. I am now led, by way of supplementing a suggestion of Mr. Bourne in the *Nation* (1026), to make the following remarks:

1. People generally read either the original or a translation, or, if they read both, seldom compare them, unless with a special purpose. If the translation read well, they deem it well made; the rule is safe enough in ordinary use.

2. The average translator, not to say the best one, comes nearer the sense of his original than does the most careful reader to that of a work in his mother tongue. The loss, therefore, which a book ordinarily sustains in passing into a new language is much less than the depreciatory tone in which translations are generally referred to, would indicate. These references are often the fruit of a desire to be deemed familiar with other languages.

3. There are many persons who could produce a fair original article in their own language, to *one* who could make a good translation from a foreign tongue which he understood. The severest critiques of translations are by those who never made one, and could not if they should attempt it.

Finally, the most common objection to a translation—it is very often just—is, that it transfers too much of the style of the original. But some elements of the style of the original must be retained. The translator can properly do but two things, viz.: choose the best words, and form with them the best sentences, in the language into which he translates. The facts, thoughts, arguments, and the collocation of the whole, are supplied to him. If Washington Irving had translated Schiller's 'Thirty Years' War,' he would perhaps have been criticised for not reproducing the racy humor of the 'Sketch-Book.' The supplied matter is refractory. A book is not worth translating if it must in this process be made what it is not in the original.

A. N.

Brooklyn, February 28, 1885.

[None of our correspondents has touched upon the mischief which mistranslations may work when made the basis of further argument or speculation, and especially of controversy. A recent experience has taught us, for example, that no one ought to cite Von Holst's 'Constitutional History of the United States' in implicit reliance on the American translation.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The mistranslations given in the last number of the *Nation* brought to my mind some ingenious mistakes which I noted while correcting the French paper set for the Harvard admission examinations last June. The 500 or more papers which were written contained every variety of mistake, but there were two sentences which were the special stumbling-ground. "La pauvre femme, *sentant la raison de son mari*, ne bougea et se contenta *d'écarter un peu son rideau* pour voir sortir," etc., gave rise to "fearing for the reason of her husband," and "appreciating the reason of his marriage," and the words "écarter un peu son rideau" gave large opportunities to the guessers. Among the many mistranslations of these five words were the following: "She disobeyed his command," "she softened his rigor," "she shunned his bedside," "she opened her blinds," "she raised her head," "she polished her glasses" (common), "she listened to his reasons," "she lifted her eyelids," "she soothed her fears," "she checked her curiosity," "she moved her chair," "she joined in his laugh" (very common), "she broke her usual custom," "she stretched her neck out of the window," "she took up a small candle," "she threw on a light shawl," "she roughened her wrinkles," "she listened to her bird," "she kindled a fire in the brazier."

The second sentence was as follows: "Le pauvre garçon . . . se tournait et retournait sur son coussin, *envoyant de gros soupirs et gémissant sans pouvoir se réveiller*." Naturally, in several instances, the poor boy was "reflecting about his cousin," but the prize for ingenuity goes to this translation of the italicized words: "dreaming of great suppers, and groaning without being able to relieve himself."—Yours very truly,

F. A.

March 3, 1885.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Bourne, mentions several odd mistakes made by translators of books written originally in the French language. They are strange and grotesque enough; but they could be more than matched by examples taken from French translations of English books. The most amusing instance of a late date that I recall is to be found in *Le Livre*, vol. v, p. 619. One John Hollingshead having printed a book in London about theatres, under the title 'Foot Lights,' the editor of *Le Livre* found that title too much for him. He therefore ingeniously transformed it into 'Foot Tights,' which he, with equal ingenuity, translated '*Pantalons à Pieds!*'

This exquisite blunder is the more remarkable from the fact that *Le Livre* professes to have a corps of editors capable of criticising all literary productions in all the languages of Europe.—Respectfully,

R.

Little Rock, Ark., March 1, 1885.

THE DEMOCRATS ON THEIR GOOD BEHAVIOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your implied prediction, in No. 1026, that if the Democrats do not make hogs of themselves they will enjoy a prolonged hold of power, will strike most Republicans, and many Mugwumps even, as somewhat rash. I do not think it so, and I wish to point out one strong reason why it should not seem so. Any one who has watched the last three Presidential campaigns in the North, knows that there is a large body of Republican voters whose strongest and almost sole argument for keeping that party in power is the necessity of preserving the results of the war. If you present to them any argument on matters of Government policy, or point out to them any dangers threatening our future, or show them ever so strong reasons for a change of the party in control of the Government, they answer: "O yes, that may all be so; but if the Democrats get into power the results of the war will be endangered, and that would be the worst evil that could happen. You cannot show us any danger that we had not rather risk than the danger of having the war undone." The result is, that no argument is possible. The danger which they imagine, overshadows all others, and they cannot be persuaded that it does not exist. It is a real fear with them; and however sorry one may feel for them, one cannot blame them under the circumstances for voting as they do, or doubt their patriotism.

Thousands of votes were cast for Blaine last fall on this ground alone. Any one's observation will show that men of education, men who are open to conviction on most subjects, were influenced by this more than by any other consideration. Now four years of wise and careful Democratic administration will accomplish in removing this prejudice what whole libraries of argument would fail to do. When it is seen that the results of the war are as safe in Democratic as in Republican hands, this fear will vanish, and with its disappearance a wide door will be opened to Democratic proselyting, which has been obstinately closed till now. Remembering, in connection with this, the closeness of the struggle at the last two Republican victories, one may reason-

ably expect a continuance in power of the Democratic party if it behaves itself well during the next four years.

Not the least beneficial result of the defeat of Blaine will be that arguments on questions of national policy can now be used with this class of Republicans with some hope of influencing their action. It may be hoped, also, that a good administration will furnish the party with a consistent and firm policy on important national questions. One main reason why thoughtful men have hesitated to work for Democratic success has been because the party has been so vacillating and untrustworthy on every great issue. Nobody could tell where to find it or what to expect of it. Perhaps this is a natural result of being so long deprived of power and responsibility, but it has been a hindrance to its success which we may hope to see removed.

Altogether, President Cleveland has an opportunity to perform a great service to his party, and through it to the nation, such as falls to the lot of few men; and everything seems to indicate that he is the man for the opportunity.

PRESTON.

HISTORY AND THE SUDAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. G. Stanley Hall's Introduction to the recently published volume on 'Methods of Teaching History' there is this important sentence: "Others, who have realized the pregnant sense in which 'history is past politics,' forget the other sense in which the history of the world has been at nearly every point very different from the history of the conscious purposes of the leaders in its movements, and that 'while men thought they were doing this thing by these means, it was later seen that they were really doing quite other things by very different means.'" This view finds an interesting confirmation and amplification in a passage quoted by Grimm, the great critic of the eighteenth century, from the famous Cardinal Alberoni, the powerful minister of Philip V. (I quote from a translation): "The spirit of system," the Cardinal says, "is not less dangerous in politics than in philosophy. There is a good deal of temerity in seeking the causes of the grandeur and decline of the Romans in the constitution of their state. Events in which human prudence had the least possible share are epochs rather than consequences; it belongs to history alone to detail the causes of the grandeur and fall of states." Grimm himself adds to this: "We must observe here, after the Cardinal, that M. de Montesquieu has fallen into this error, in his 'Spirit of the Laws,' with respect to the English Constitution. He seeks, and has the secret of always finding, in that Constitution the causes of events. If states were arranged, like a system of philosophy, on paper, this procedure might answer very well; but we see every day that the greatest events . . . are only the work of chance, and of a thousand arbitrary circumstances."

We do, indeed, see every day that the greatest events in the history of England at this moment are the work of a thousand arbitrary circumstances, and that her possible misfortunes, reverses, dangers, embarrassments, the "decline" (in a word) of England—which God forefend!—lies beyond the range of perceptible laws. * *

Notes.

THE CENTURY COMPANY announce, as in course of publication for the coming autumn, 'William Lloyd Garrison: The Story of his Life, told by his Children.' This work will make two volumes octavo, and will bring the narrative down to the close of the year 1840. It has been largely prepared from inedited sources, and will abound in references to authorities. The illustrations will consist chiefly of portraits of Mr. Garrison and his nearest associates. Unavoidably, the work will partake of the nature of a history of the anti-slavery cause in the United States. The same house will simultaneously bring out 'The Life and Times of Samuel Bowles,' also in two volumes, by Mr. George S. Merriam, who, says the Springfield *Republican*, writes "with entire independence, from the standpoint of his personal opinions."

We understand that the sale in England of the great 'Dictionary of National Biography,' edited by Mr. Leslie Stephen, has exceeded the publishers' expectations. We have looked through the only volume which has thus far appeared, to note the number of articles having a special interest for Americans. Among the founders of New England we find the Rev. John Allen, of Dedham, Mass.; in the middle Colonial period, General Amherst, the captor of Louisburg and Governor of Virginia; in the Provincial, Sir Edmund Andros; in the Revolutionary, General Stirling (William Alexander), and Major André. Coming down to our own time, we mention Sarah Flower Adams, whose hymn "Nearer to Thee" perhaps obtained its earliest and widest recognition in this country; Lucy Aikin, the correspondent of Dr. Channing; Edward Strutt Abdy, author, fifty years ago, of a valuable 'Journal of a Residence and Tour in the United States'; and Professor Anderson, the "Wizard of the North." We have been struck anew with the general readableness of the sketches in this dictionary.

Among the latest announcements of Macmillan & Co. are an 'Introduction to the Study of the Law of the Constitution,' by Prof. A. V. Dicey, of All Souls, Oxford; and 'Principles of Economics' (a fragment), by the late W. Stanley Jevons.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. will be the authorized agents for the United States of the Revised Version of the Bible to be published in May. The same firm announce 'Lessons in Hygiene,' by Prof. John C. Cutter; and 'The Nature of the Mind and Human Automatism,' by Dr. Morton Prince.

Scribner & Welford are the American publishers of the new editions of Coleridge's 'Table-Talk,' Buchanan's 'Dictionary of Science,' and Bohn's 'Dictionary of Poetical Quotations,' mentioned in our last issue, as well as of volume vi (appendix) of Vasari's 'Lives,' previously noticed (*Nation*, No. 1025).

D. Appleton & Co. will at once begin to publish by arrangement, in six monthly parts, a new narrative poem, by Owen Meredith (Lord Lytton), entitled 'Glenaverie; or, The Metamorphosis.'

A new edition of Peter Parley's 'The Animal Kingdom Illustrated,' also known as 'Johnson's Natural History,' has been prepared by Prof. Alexander Winchell, of the University of Michigan. A novel feature of this work, which is in two large volumes, royal octavo, will be a "symposium"—Prof. E. L. Youmans expounding and defending, and President Seelye combating, the evolution theory. The publishers are A. J. Johnson & Co.

'The Structure of English Prose, a Manual of Composition and Rhetoric,' by Prof. John G. R. McElroy, of the University of Pennsylvania, is in the press of A. C. Armstrong & Co.

The special correspondent of the *Photographic Times* at New Orleans gives an interesting account, in the issue for February 27, of the experiments made by Surgeon John S. Billings, Curator of the Army Medical Museum, in procuring composite photographs of crania, in the manner first indicated by Mr. Francis Galton. In time the types thus obtained from various groups of primitive races will afford a most interesting comparison.

Science for February 27 has some noticeable articles on the results of the Greely expedition, accompanied by a map in which a curious discovery concerning the width of Grinnell Land is shown by the unexpected direction given to its western coast.

The *English Illustrated Magazine* for March leads off with a long extract from the forthcoming book of Princes Edward and George of Wales on their voyage round the world, which will certainly induce no one who is not in the clouds in the presence of royalty and its progeny, to read the book either for its very commonplace literature or its less than commonplace illustrations.

L'Art comes from the same publishers (Macmillan) to show in its January and February numbers how such things may be done with credit. Besides the etchings (of which one from the Velasquez portrait of Pope Innocent X. is worth the price of the three numbers), there is a surprising copiousness of spirited process illustrations, showing how, in the hands of a good artist, a process block is better than a woodcut with poor art. A review of Perrot's book on ancient art contains, apropos of the section on Cyprus, some grave allegations which ought to interest the authorities of the Metropolitan Museum. The *Courrier de l'Art*, an illustrated weekly chronicle of the studios, etc., of Paris, the hub of the artistic world without denial, accompanies *L'Art* as usual.

We receive from the compiler and publisher, Mr. Thomas G. Thrum, of Honolulu, the *Hawaiian Almanac and Annual* for 1885, which contains a great deal of statistical information concerning the Sandwich Islands. The past year there was not very prosperous commercially, though the weather was exceptionally favorable for the planter. Japanese immigration is about to be attempted, thus deepening the interesting race mixture of which this archipelago is the scene. The Honolulu Library and Reading-Room Association took possession of its commodious new building. The importation of paper is on the increase, and Mr. Thrum thinks it high time that a paper-mill were established, there being an endless variety of materials for making the stock.

S. M. Pettengill & Co. send us the tenth annual issue of Street & Co.'s 'Indian and Colonial Mercantile Directory,' a work steadily growing in bulk, and of universal utility for those engaged in foreign commerce, whether Englishmen or Americans. A directory of the United Kingdom is appended. Numerous maps are interspersed with the text, and, so far as we can judge, nothing seems to be wanting that could subserve the end of this publication. The following titles under Brazil will give an idea of the scheme: general view of geography, natural productions and population; trade returns; a list of principal towns; principal products; books of reference; steam communication; coins, weights, and measures; customs tariff, in full; the chief cities in regular order, with ample statistical details and merchants' directory.

Two recent French announcements are 'L'Expédition du *Rodgers* à la recherche de la *Jeannette*, par William H. Gilder,' translated into French by Capt. J. West; and 'Jack et Jane, adaptation d'après L. M. Alcott, par Stahl et Lermont.' This adaptation of 'Jack and Jill' is illustrated. M. Stahl had already adapted 'Little Women' as 'Les Quatre Filles du Docteur Marsch' (*sic*), now in its second edition.

Mr. Bret Harte's new story, 'A Ship of '49,' which was published in a syndicate of American

papers, is now appearing in the *English Illustrated Magazine*.

The English magazines and reviews continue to give abundant space to theatrical topics. Mr. Henry Irving has contributed to the *Nineteenth Century* a brief note on "The American Audience." In the same review Mr. William Archer, author of an incisive criticism of Mr. Irving, has an admirable essay on "The Duty of Dramatic Critics." In *Longman's* for March there is a rough and broad sketch of Gustavus V. Brooke, not always in the best of taste, by Mr. John Coleman, the writer of two papers on Charles Reade in *Lippincott's*.

Taking time by the forelock, the managers of the Paris Exhibition of 1889 have begun to publish a folio *Moniteur de l'Exposition* (New York: F. W. Christern). Portraits of M. Rouvier, Minister of Commerce, and M. Antonin Proust, head of the Exposition Committee, adorn the first number. Besides official information, the paper contains a certain amount of light miscellaneous reading.

MM. Bréal and Bailly announce that they will presently publish a 'Dictionnaire Étymologique Latin,' in which they have taken especial pains to trace the history of words, and to arrange the series of meanings in their true order. Merely to give the derivation of a word would be like giving in a biographical dictionary only the names of the subjects and of their fathers. MM. Bréal and Bailly try to show, wherever it is possible, to what side of the life of the Roman people, to what part of the ancient culture each word belonged, and proclaim that what has improperly been called the life of the language is in reality the life of the nation imprinted upon the language—a remark that reminds one of the attempts to construct the life of our Aryan ancestors from the language of their descendants.

The discovery of terracotta figurines in the necropolis of Myrina resembling those of Tanagra has led to a little controversy in regard to their character. M. E. Pottier, in a thesis published more than a year ago, maintained that the statuettes were originally made without any definite purpose, and were used either as gifts to friends, or as offerings to domestic or to public divinities, or to the manes of the dead. Their character at once shows that they were not made with any exclusive religious purpose. M. J. Martha now insists that they were manufactured without any religious purpose at all, and are found in tombs simply because they were very convenient mementoes of the dead to put there. Originally it was the custom in Asia Minor, as in other barbarous countries, to bury with the departed chief all that belonged to him—captives, slaves, horse, arms, jewels. In time the custom became at first less cruel, and then less expensive. Still, some memento was to be buried with the head of the family, and these little statues were a convenient substitute for the slaves and animals of the earlier days. The difference between the two theories is not profound, and it is not easy to see how it can be decided.

—Mr. Charles Bray's autobiography, 'Phases of Opinion and Experience during a Long Life' (London: Longmans), comes with exceeding opportuneness so soon after the publication of George Eliot's Life, and affords a most valuable and delightful addition to our knowledge of her. The little book fills out the picture her letters had already more than outlined, of the life at Rosehill and of the master—a man of determined persistence in individual and often unpopular opinions, but always of most bright and loving spirit. The first mention of George Eliot is upon that day of which she herself wrote: "I have seen Emerson—the first *man* I have ever seen." Mr. Bray writes: "We should have liked to have seen more of Emerson, but some Stratford friends came over and impressed on him that he was bound to pay homage at Shakspere's tomb, and accordingly carried us all off, Miss Evans included, to their home near that church on the Avon." Mr. Bray continues:

"I consider my intimate friendship of nine years with her among the bright spots of my life. . . . My sister, who lived next door to her (Coventry, 1841), brought her to call upon us one morning, thinking, among other natural reasons for introducing her, that the influence of this superior young lady of Evangelical principles might be beneficial to our heretical minds. . . . I can well recollect her modest demeanor as she sat down by the window, and I had a sort of surprised feeling, when she first spoke, at the measured, highly cultivated form of expression, so different from the usual tone of young persons from the country. We became friends at once. . . . I consider her the most delightful companion I have ever known; she knew everything. She had little self-assertion; her aim was always to show her friends off to the best advantage—not herself. . . . There were two sides; hers was the temperament of genius which has always its sunny and shady side. She was frequently very depressed—and often very provoking, as much so as she could be agreeable—and we had violent quarrels; but the next day they were quite forgotten. Of course we went over all subjects in heaven and earth. . . . I may claim to have laid down the basis of that philosophy which she afterwards retained. . . . George Combe, on first seeing a cast of her head, took it for a man's."

— Professor J. B. Thayer, of the Harvard Law School, has published an interesting "memorandum" on the "Legal effect of opinions given by judges to the Executive and the Legislature under certain American constitutions." The clause giving authority to call for judicial opinions out of court is found only in a very few constitutions. In Massachusetts it occurs in this form: "Each branch of the Legislature, as well as the Governor and Council, shall have authority to require the opinions of the justices of the Supreme Judicial Court upon important questions of law, and upon solemn occasions." It is the Massachusetts clause which has been copied into the constitutions of the other States. It appears that it originally came from the usage of the English Constitution by which the King, as well as the House of Lords, had the right to demand the opinions of the twelve judges of England. The practice, so far as the Crown is concerned, long since fell into disuse, but it is believed that the House of Lords keeps it alive. In England it is well settled that answers of the judges to the Lords have no binding force, and are merely expression of opinions of high authority, though few people who discuss the well-known answers relating to insanity in McNaghton's case (10 Cl. and Fin., 200) seem to remember this. To quote Professor Thayer:

"Here not only was there no litigated question before the Lords, but not even any pending legislative question. The Lords, in the course of their debates, having fallen into a discussion about a case recently tried at the Central Criminal Court, but not in any way before them—a case developing interesting questions in the law relating to insanity—conceived that they would like to know a little more accurately what the law on these points was. They accordingly put a set of 'abstract' questions to the judges—questions not arising out of any business before them, actual or contemplated. One of the judges (Maule) protested against this proceeding, but, as the others answered, he also answered. . . . It needs no argument to show that opinions so given are not binding upon anybody, and should not be. If reasons were asked for such a view, it would be enough to refer to what Mr. Justice Maule suggested in his protest, when he objected that the questions put 'do not appear to arise out of and are not put with reference to a particular case, or for a particular purpose, which might explain or limit the generality of the terms'; that he had heard no argument; and that he feared 'that, as the questions relate to matters of criminal law of great importance, the answers to them by the judges might embarrass the administration of justice when they are cited in trials.'"

To turn to this country, the English rule has been adopted generally, and the Massachusetts judges, and those of other States, have decided that such opinions are not binding when the point decided comes subsequently before them in the course of litigation. In Maine the early opinions of the judges seem to have been the same, but in the political excitement of 1880 they adopted the opposite view, that their opinions were binding on the Governor and Council in the performance of their ministerial duties. This view was generally acquiesced in by the public at the time, but Professor Thayer considers it as a matter of law "strange doctrine," and there seems to be no authority for it in the precedents. Another fact which this interesting pamphlet recalls is, that Washington in 1793 tried to introduce the English usage with the judges of the Supreme Court, but they saw the danger of their being dragged into politics, and declined to answer.

—Except for a brief after-word, J. ten Doornkaat Koolman's laborious 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' has now reached its conclusion in Part 22 (Norden: H. Braams). The first number was issued in 1877, and the publication has since continued without haste but also without rest. The thoroughness of the etymological scheme may be partly judged from the fact that the index to cognate words in German fills 27 columns, in Dutch 34, in English 23, in Swedish 17, in Norwegian 12, in Danish 16, in Italian 6, in French 8. But the derivations are in fact carried back to as ultimate a root as possible in the Aryan chain; so that each member of the Teutonic group is served by this Dictionary of a special dialect, and all by comparison one with another. We have in our notices of the successive issues often remarked upon the close resemblance of the Frisian vocables to English. Such sentences (to borrow a few more examples from the number before us) as "Stille waters hebben de dêpste grunden," or "Dat was 'n wîs wôrd, wat he dâr sprak," or "Brau good beer, bakk good brood," hardly need interpreting, to our *eyes* at least. The work is a thesaurus of proverbs and proverbial expressions, and when the author takes a fancy to one he is not above repeating it. For the third time at least he quotes, under *waren*, the saying, "Môi gan un waren: sat ëten un sparen," and dismisses it with the remark—"a golden rule of life, which has unfortunately fallen far too much into oblivion and neglect." Such an *obiter dictum* throws a flood of light on the spirit which has endured the steady toil of eight years (and how many more?) in the dry pastures of etymology.

— Some of the most important bibliographies are those which record the literary work of the monastic orders of the Roman Church. The Benedictines have at least ten, of which the best known is St. Maur's; the Franciscans almost as many; the Dominicans and Cistercians two or three apiece (a bibliography of the Spanish Dominicans is now in the press), and the Jesuits as many as all the rest put together, as might be expected from their great literary activity. Even the Jesuit bibliography of the Brothers Bakker appears not to have exhausted the field. Father Sommervogel is promising an elucidation of the anonymous and pseudonymous writings of the society. Till now, the Premonstratensians had been neglected, but Father Louis de Gonzaga, prior of Storrington, a religious house founded by members of the order expelled from Frigolet, who has spent twenty years in the compilation of materials, promises shortly a list of the works of the 1,500 writers which his order has produced from 1280 to 1884. A preliminary pamphlet published by Palmé details his plans, gives a bare list of names of the writers, calls for additions,

and speaks of the difficulties in the way of completeness. The archives and libraries of over 3,000 Premonstratensian houses existing in the Middle Ages have nearly all disappeared.

— The eleventh issue of 'Norges Statskalender,' for the year 1885, is published with commendable promptness. This is what we should call the Blue Book of Norway, *i. e.*, a volume containing the *personnel* of the Norwegian Government; but it is by no means merely a barren list of names, like our own 'Official Register.' The volume contains, however, the usual lists of the officers and employees of the different departments of the Government, the members of the Storthing (Parliament) and of the High Court of Justice, the Norwegian and Swedish diplomatic agents and consuls, the members of the Norwegian Order of Saint Olaf, and the names of all persons who have earned medals for meritorious services. All these details are given with careful fulness, and supplemented with accurate statements as to date of birth, time of service, salary, official and honorary titles, etc., of each person. Brief, but concise, notes contain valuable information as to the functions of the different departments and bureaux; generally, also, the dates of organization are stated, in which cases there are careful citations of the laws creating each office. We have, besides, useful knowledge concerning all the public schools and the university, with the rolls of teachers and professors, together with information as to the various religious, philanthropic, scientific, and artistic societies or associations, the various museums, libraries, and hospitals. To a résumé of the contents of the budget for the last finance year is prefixed the usual introduction to European books of this class, viz.: a list of the reigning monarchs and their families. All this store of knowledge is made readily accessible by good indexes of subjects, places, and persons. The painstaking care of the editor, Mr. N. R. Bull, is shown in a hundred particulars, and the whole work reflects credit upon his industry and intelligence. It would be of interest, we think, were he to add a list of the persons who are paid pensions by the Government, at least those who receive their stipends upon the ground of distinguished literary activity. The list of fifty-one officers who have died since the issue of the volume for the previous year contains but one name of literary note, that of the poet Andreas Munch, which is included by virtue of the position he had held since 1866, as emeritus-professor at the University of Norway. He was a cousin of Norway's most famous historian, Peter Andreas Munch, and was born October 19, 1811, and died on June 24, 1884, leaving to posterity a long list of thin volumes of poems and dramas. During the year the University suffered the loss, also, of two active professors, one of zoölogy and one of philosophy. The list of deaths otherwise includes, as worthy of mention here, a member of Parliament, representing one of the southern seaport towns of Norway, an ex-Minister of State, and the Bishop of Christianssand, who was the successor of the late well-known Jörgen Moe.

—'Sveriges Statskalender,' issued under the auspices of the Scientific Society, of Sweden, contains nearly twice the quantity of matter, but in general arrangement does not differ much from the similar volume for Norway. We miss, however, the head-notes, which go far to add not only value, but interest, to the latter book. The salaries paid officials are also omitted; but, as added matter, this volume contains lists of all the post-offices and telegraph stations throughout Sweden. We notice that of the 368 persons employed by the State in its telegraph offices, 159 are women. Of these, 154 are operators, as against 7 men similarly employed, and the other 5 are office officials. On the other hand, no women seem to be employed in the post-offices, the only exception being the case of a telegraph operator who also acts as postmistress. The long lists of members of the various societies and orders of knights occupy 143 pages, and we note among them the names of twenty-four Americans. Number eleven of the eighteen places in the famous Swedish Academy, left vacant by the death, last August, of the archæologist Bror Emil Hildebrand, who was elected in 1866, and was for some time the Secretary of the Academy, is not yet filled. The index of persons contains the astonishing number of nearly 14,000 names, although it includes no foreigner not actually in the service of the Swedish Government. Both volumes are excellently printed, and are furnished in substantial cloth bindings for the reasonable price of five crowns ($1 35) each.

HARRIET MARTINEAU.

Harriet Martineau. By Mrs. F. Fenwick Miller. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

One feels some instinctive distrust of a biographer who finds it necessary to begin proceedings by a studied attack on the last person who treated the same theme; and this especially where that predecessor was selected by the author who happens to be the subject of both works. Near the very beginning of Mrs. Miller's preface occurs the following passage:

"Mrs. Chapman of Boston, U. S. A., has written a volume in completion of the Autobiography, which should have covered the later period. . . . But it is to be remembered that when Miss Martineau committed to Mrs. Chapman the task of writing a memorial sketch, and when the latter accepted the undertaking, both of them believed that the life and work of the subject were practically over. I have reason to know that if Harriet Martineau had supposed it to be even remotely possible that so much of her life remained to be spent and recorded, she would have chosen some one more skilled in literature, and more closely acquainted with English literary and political affairs, to complete her 'Life.' Having once asked Mrs. Chapman to fulfil the task, however, Harriet Martineau was too loyal and generous a friend to remove it from her charge; and Mrs. Chapman, on her side, while continually begging instructions from her subject as to what she was to say, and while doubtless aware that she would not be adequate to the undertaking which had grown so since she accepted it, *yet would not throw it off her hands*" (pp. vi-vii).

The italics are our own; and a more malignant sting than they designate has seldom, in our judgment, been directed by one woman against another. What are the facts of the case? Mrs. Maria Weston Chapman, a lady who still lives esteemed and respected, was the honored associate of Miss Martineau in the anti-slavery movement, of which Mrs. Chapman, more than any other woman, was the American head. She, being also highly educated and sufficiently "skilled in literature" to wield an uncommonly keen and vigorous pen, was requested by Miss Martineau to edit her autobiography and write a supplement. She accordingly did so, in her own way. Her memoir had some undoubted faults both of omission and commission; and these were frankly pointed out in this journal at the time (see *Nation*, April 12, 19, 1877). We also asserted that Mrs. Chapman's memoir put Miss Martineau in a far more attractive light than did the autobiography itself; and we praised the work as showing, on the whole, "careful and accurate execution." But had it been the poorest book ever written, the tone of the later biographer would have been equally ungenerous. Mrs. Chapman tells us in her opening chapter that she undertook the work with the greatest feeling of "sorrow and inadequacy for the service demanded"; and that she combated her friend's wish with all the arguments she possessed ('Autobiography,' ii, 140). These remonstrances were unavailing. We also have reason to know that Mrs. Chapman, instead of being unwilling, as Mrs. Miller ungenerously intimates, to "throw it off her hands," repeatedly expressed a desire to do so, and was always met by a firm refusal. Mrs. Miller is therefore left to the painful alternative of either assuming to know Miss Martineau's mind better than that very vigorous lady knew it for herself, or of having disclosed an instance of duplicity in Miss Martineau which would add another to the recent instances of unfortunate biographical revelations. Mrs. Chapman, at any rate, did not suspect any such duplicity, but went on to fulfil what she regarded as a sacred trust of friendship. To say that she did it, to all appearance, as well as Mrs. Fenwick Miller would have done it, is not a very strong expression; but she did it faithfully and sincerely, and it may be assumed that she did it truthfully, as the later biographer finds no error to correct except the extremely venial one—which Mrs. Miller calls "absurd"—of supposing that a certain letter from Charlotte Brontë, quoted in Mrs. Gaskell's life of that lady and beginning "My Dear E——," was written to her sister Emily, whereas it was written to some one else. It was, of course, an error, as Emily Brontë had already died; but the phrase is as unreasonable as if we should call it "absurd" in Mrs. Miller to speak of "Errina the Greek poetess" (p. 27) when she means Erinna. In more important points, the views of the two biographers essentially coincide, except that Mrs. Chapman's, as became the work of a first biographer, was a little more eulogistic; while she did not, like Mrs. Miller, make the mistake of so attacking Miss Martineau's mother as to bring on an immediate controversy with the most eminent living member of the Martineau race.

This stumbling-block of offence being once passed, it is a satisfaction to be able to say that the biography by Mrs. Miller is a good, compact, unambitious summary of the career of a remarkable woman. The biographer's original remarks are almost always commonplace; she sometimes strays into political economy, and her mild platitudes are in great contrast to the vigorous summaries of Miss Martineau. When she begins, "Political Economy treats of the production, distribution, and consumption, or use, of all the material objects of human desire, which are called by the general name of wealth," the treatment seems very elementary indeed. In dealing with the difficult question of Miss Martineau's relations with Mr. Atkinson, she gives some additional correspondence between them; but as the correspondence already published was generally found too dull to be fully read, an enlargement of it hardly seems welcome; nor does she attempt the slightest explanation of the lifelong separation of Miss Martineau from her brother, after his review of the book, except to say that the criticism was aimed at Mr. Atkinson, and that the sister was loyal to her friend. On the secret of Miss Martineau's deference to a man by whom other people were not much impressed, Mrs. Miller gives no new light; but she quotes a passage from one of Margaret Fuller's letters (p. 172) giving a favorable impression of this gentleman, which nee is, however, to be read in connection with another passage printed by Madame Ossoli's latest biographer, where she describes Mr. Atkinson more lightly, as "the professed magnetizer, with his *beaux yeux* and extreme sensibility, unable to confer benefit without receiving injury" (Higginson's 'Ossoli,' p. 224). The world has never been able to take Miss Martineau's mesmeric experiences quite seriously,

but Mrs. Miller evidently does, even to stating, without the slightest apparent consciousness of the ludicrous, that "seven mesmerized patients were sometimes asleep at one time in her drawing-room" (p. 196).

The book has no index and no bibliography, though much detailed information is given in the text as to the successive publications of Miss Martineau. The author shows a good deal of moral courage at certain points, especially in dealing with that stone of offending, the 'Autobiography.' The faults of this unfortunate book are frankly conceded by Mrs. Miller; she calls it "interesting but misleading," "hard and censorious"; says that it "displays vanity," that it does no justice to "either the finer or the softer qualities of her nature," and that it is "the least worthy of her true self of all the writings of her life" (pp. 233-4). It requires courage for a friendly biographer to say this, and it is after all a destructive admission. It is a perilous thing to write one's own memoirs. As, after all that we may have heard or read of an unseen person, we instinctively base our final judgment of him on the first glance at his face, so, no matter though a great writer have put forth a hundred books, that by which he or she will inevitably be judged by the world at large is the volume which contains an autobiography. "Beware," said Wendell Phillips, "if your sixpenny neighbor keeps a diary." But the neighbor, be he sixpenny or otherwise, has far more reason to beware of those who may live to publish it.

PREHISTORIC AMERICA.

Prehistoric America. By the Marquis de Nadaillac. Translated by N. D'Anvers. Edited by W. H. Dall. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884. 8vo, pp. 566, with 219 illustrations.

TAKE it all in all, this is the best book on this subject that has yet been published—not that it contains anything especially new, or that it is entirely free from carelessness and error, but for the reason that, as a record of facts, it is unusually full, and because it is the first comprehensive work in which, discarding all the old and worn-out notions about the existence on this continent of an extinct civilization, we are brought face to face with conclusions that are based upon a careful comparison of architectural and other prehistoric remains with the arts and industries, the manners and customs, of "the only people, except the whites, who, so far as we know, have ever held the regions in which these remains are found." That this is the only safe method of investigating many of the questions to which a study of American archæology has given rise, we have repeatedly declared; and hence the satisfaction with which we greet the appearance of this volume and the importance we attach to its conclusions.

Summing up the results, as here given, it will be found that the Mound-builders of the Mississippi Valley (chaps. iii and iv) disappear as a separate and distinct people, and in their place we have the "red Indians of historic times," such as they were when the Spanish adventurers first landed on these shores. The buried cities, too, of Mexico and Central America, are made to give up their secrets (chaps. vi and vii), and, instead of the ruined temples and deserted palaces of a mythical people of high civilization and fabulous antiquity, we have the communal houses, often but recently abandoned, of tribes which differed but little in their mode of life and in their social and political organization from the Pueblo Indians of to-day. So, also, may it be said of the ruins which dot the shores and guard the mountain valleys of Peru. Great and wonderful as they are when contrasted with the means at the command of the aboriginal workmen, they are, after all, but the evidences of barbaric magnificence, and, when viewed in the white light of history, do not indicate a higher stage of development than the Spanish conquerors found and partially destroyed.

Exactly who the people were who erected these mounds and built these cities, and what their origin, are problems which, wisely enough, our author-editor, except in a general way, does not attempt to solve. To us they are known as Indians, and if they are of Asiatic descent, as our author intimates, there can be no question that their ancestors must have arrived here at a time when the flora and fauna were very different from what they now are, and when they themselves were living in that stage of progress which we are accustomed to characterize as the age of stone. From this condition, low as it undoubtedly was, it was certainly possible for them to have raised themselves to the level of the most favored tribes of Mexico and Peru; and it is also possible that they might have been aided in this upward movement by "the successive waves of migration," which, it is said, may have rolled in by way of the Polynesian Islands, as well as across Behring Straits. Be this as it may, the subject is one which we do not now propose to discuss. As has been said in a former number of this journal, the Indians, so far as we know anything about the matter, may have started from different centres, travelled by different routes, and arrived at different times and at different places on the same or opposite sides of the continent. At best, it is but a question of probabilities, and our object in referring to it at this time is not for the purpose of discussing the feasibility of any particular route from the Old World to the New, but of calling attention to the wide extent and varied character of the intercourse which prevailed everywhere, in early times, between the tribes of our continent; and of insisting upon the necessity of recognizing this condition of affairs as a probable element in the growth and spread of aboriginal civilization in America.

In the above sketch it will be noticed that we have merely outlined some of the conclusions that have been reached, and have not attempted to give any account of the long and formidable array of facts upon which these conclusions are based. To do this, would require more space than we can command, and hence we content ourselves with saying that some idea of the amount of labor necessary to the preparation of this portion of the volume, may be gained from the fact not only that it embraces the whole field of American archæology, but that it also includes an account of the manners and customs, arts and industries of all the tribes that were found here. Of course, in a work of this character, covering such a wide range of subjects, and involving a familiar acquaintance with several languages, and requiring numerous references to many authors of various degrees of credibility, errors of omission and commission are sure to occur. From the very nature of the case it was almost inevitable; and however thankless may be the office of noting these shortcomings, it is, in the present instance, made unavoidable by the promptness with which we have recognized the merits of this work, and the importance we have attached to its conclusions.

Before, however, beginning this part of our task, it may be well to premise that, in its present shape, this volume differs very materially from that in which it originally appeared. Availing himself of the liberty judiciously allowed him as editor, Mr. Dall has not only rewritten the chapter (x) on the origin of man in America, but he has so "modified and revised" other portions of the work as to lead to conclusions that were but little dreamed of in the original publication. Especially is this true of the chapters on mounds and mound-builders, in which a series of facts, owing to a difference in the light in which it is regarded, is made to produce results essentially at variance with those it had previously yielded. For these changes, or rather improvements, Mr. Dall is entitled to the credit, and were it always possible thus easily to apportion the award of praise or censure, our task would be much simplified. Unfortunately, however, this cannot be done, for the subject-matter of the volume is so mixed that it is impossible to distinguish between what belongs to the author and what to the editor, without an amount of labor that the average reader will not care to undertake. Hence it is, that while giving Mr. Dall credit for bringing this work "into harmony with the results of recent investigations and the conclusions of the best authorities on the archæology of the United States," we can hardly help holding him responsible for the shortcomings of which this portion of the volume is only too full. That many, perhaps a large majority, of these mistakes can be traced to the original French edition, is true, and if we were dealing with that alone we might pass them by, as they do not affect the validity of the conclusions, and are, at times, of such a character that it must have been difficult for the author to guard against them. In the case of Mr. Dall, however, no such forbearance is possible. He is altogether too strong to ask or receive favor.

Turning now to the volume itself, and examining it somewhat in detail, we are struck first of all with the want of accuracy in the quotations and references. One or two mistakes of this kind, in a volume of this size, might be pardoned; but when they are so numerous as to cast suspicion over the whole of one portion of the work, the affair becomes too serious to be passed over lightly. To show that we do not exaggerate the carelessness with which this part of the work is done, it is only necessary to open the volume, we had almost said, at random. Thus, for instance, the figures Nos. 15 and 23 are not only imperfectly copied, but they are assigned to wrong localities; and the shovel, described (p. 171) as being "of stone with a horn handle," is really of horn with a wooden handle, and the account of it was given by Dr. Edward Palmer, who found it, and not by Schumacher. Of a somewhat different character, but none the less erroneous, is the reference (Note I., p. 103) in which Brackenridge, not "Breckenridge," is said to have "located by mistake a Trappist convent" on Cahokia Mound, when he expressly tells us ('Recollections of the West') that "the dwelling of the monks was on a mound a hundred yards west of the great mound." So, too, Dr (Joseph) Jones (p. 48) is mistaken for Colonel (Charles C.) Jones; Putnam (p. 166) and Carr (p. 188) are made to say things which we are very sure never entered their heads, and Morgan (p. 386) is credited with a statement which he could hardly have made, at least not in the shape in which it is given. These are fair samples of the class of errors of which we are now speaking. They are numerous, but fortunately not of much importance, and though they detract from the value of the book as a work of reference, yet they do not materially affect the conclusions. Paradoxical as this may seem, its truth will be apparent to any one who will reflect that it is the existence of these archæological remains that interests us, and not the particular localities in which they were found; and that it is with the truth of a statement, and not the name of its author, that we are chiefly concerned.

Other errors there are of a more serious nature, which may be classed under the head of incorrect or doubtful and ambiguous statements as to facts. Many of them are, no doubt, "slips of the pen," though there are others which we should not hesitate to characterize by

a harsher term if uttered by a writer of less eminence than Mr. Dall. Of this character are the assertions (p. 57) that "the Indians rejected with disdain" the fresh-water mollusks—*Ampullaria* and *Paludina*—of which the shell-heaps of the St. John's River are partly composed, and secondly the one (pp. 180-181) in which we are given to understand that, except the meteoric iron found by Putnam and Metz in the Little Miami mounds, "previous statements with regard to the discovery of iron in the mounds are, without exception, unsatisfactory, ... not a scrap of it having been found in numerous excavations made at many different points and in many different regions." In regard to the first of these statements we prefer to let Wyman speak. The account of those shell-heaps is taken from him, and it is but fair that he should be heard in answer to what seems to be a most unwarrantable inference from anything that he ever said. Referring to his publication on the 'Shell Mounds of the St. John's River,' we find (p. 11) that "there need be no doubt as to the suitableness of these shells for food, as the Indian is nowhere very fastidious as to what he eats, and the 'cracker' of the present day does not hesitate to use them." In regard to the second statement—that relating to iron in the mounds—we are in something of a quandary. The denial is certainly as broad as language can well make it, and in this sense it is clearly an oversight. What Mr. Dall probably intended, was to limit his denial to the mounds of Ohio. Here he is on firmer ground, though even here we take issue with him, and willingly rest our case upon Atwater's statement (omitted in this edition) that "oxydes" of iron of the shape of a sword or knife-blade and of a plate were taken from the Circleville mound. The truth is, that, if the testimony of a competent witness backed by evidence that is believed to be decisive as to the recent occupancy of the earthwork which enclosed this mound, can be held to prove anything, we shall have to admit that the people who built and buried in this mound were acquainted with the use of iron. There is no escape from the conclusion except by showing either that iron will not oxidize, or that Atwater was mistaken in what he says he saw. Until this is done his statement must stand.

There are some other matters that we had marked for comment, but we are admonished to be brief. In fact, we fear that in dwelling as we have done upon the defects of this volume when there is so much that ought to be said of its merits, we have not kept within the limits of just and fair criticism. In defence, we can only plead our interest in the success of the work, and our desire to have the future editions, to which we trust it is happily destined, freed from the blunders which we have indicated. In conclusion, we must be permitted a word of commendation for the translator. Solecisms there are, and occasionally an obscure sentence, but these may be forgiven in consideration of the fidelity with which the text is preserved. Technical terms, too, are not always judiciously rendered. For instance, "*excavations*" and "*rampe*," we think, used as they are here, mean something different from a "trench" and a "flight of steps"; and a singular mistake may be found on page 133, where the omission of a proper name, and the translation of the word "*aïeul*" by "grandson," makes nonsense of a classical allusion. With these exceptions the work is well done, far better than usually falls to the lot of authors who have to pass through a similar ordeal.

A NEW DEPARTURE IN ORIENTAL LITERATURE.

The Repentance of Nussooh. Translated from the Original Hindustani by M. Kempson. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1884.

Of few languages is the literature, where there is any at all, so strikingly insignificant in value as is that of the Urdû or Hindûstânî. Quantity it certainly does not want, as thousands of volumes, mostly unprinted, and destined to remain so, suffice to testify. Out of the entire mass of it, however only a small fraction, translations apart, is found to rise above the most pitiful mediocrity. And this is not the worst. In point of profligacy, as are the Muhammadans of Persia, so are their Indian co-religionists, whose minds and lives their books reflect but too faithfully. The great aim with them (especially in what is, by a violent stretch of courtesy, called their poetry) being to give expression to what should never be expressed, and never conceived, any novel fashion that is set on foot among them, by a rhymester, in ringing the changes on impurity, is enough to secure for its originator a pedestal of uncleanly fame. Bitter as is the disdain with which the Indian Islamite regards his Hindu neighbors, as being idolaters, it would be well if he were to imitate them in their comparative pudicity of thought and conduct. Account for the fact how we may, it greatly redounds to the credit of the Hindu, that, so far as appears, centuries of evil communication with the followers of Muhammad have not operated to deteriorate him, in the matter of decency, below the level of his old-time ancestors.

To influence and encouragement on the part of the English in India it is well-nigh wholly owing that there is such a thing as methodical Urdû prose. Prior to 1800, at least as a literary vehicle, it scarcely existed. During forty years, or thereabouts, onward from that period, a considerable number of Urdû prose translations, all of them from Persian or Arabic, were prepared, for the special use of its students, under the auspices of the College of Fort William. With few exceptions, each of these evinces an advance in style on those to which it succeeded. And then followed translations from the English, several of which are of superior excellence. Concurrently with the latter, the establishment of a vernacular newspaper press, which, year by year, exhibits rapid expansion and growing importance, has served to stimulate the cultivation of the Urdû, until it has now become a language in comparison with which its crude germ of a few generations back was but a jejune and incondite jargon. Something of its popularity, if not of its development and polish, is, however, undoubtedly attributable to the substitution of it, in the civil and criminal courts, for Persian, which long held its own, in the conservative days of the East India Company, as the sole linguistic medium of judicial proceedings. That it will, at all events for some time to come, undergo much mutation is not obviously probable. For such mutation there is, indeed, no perceptible necessity, so diligent and apparently exhaustive has been the recent prosecution of its culture. Noteworthy, assuredly, is the fact that it has made more progress for the better within the last eighty years than it had previously made from the days when the contact of foreign invaders with the hapless populations of Northern India evoked its rudiments into being.

In these premises we see revealed the curious phenomenon of a language elaborated to a high state of perfection, but hitherto very rarely employed, for literary ends, to any recognizably commendable purpose, except in translations. Are, then, the Indian Muhammadans hopelessly sterile of intellect? By no means are they so. Indications of ability are far from wanting even in the countless pages of their nauseous verse. All that is needed in order to their creating a respectable indigenous literature is, that they should employ their mental abilities in a rational direction. Moved by this conviction, the Government of the Northwestern Provinces of India was induced a few years ago to offer prizes for "meritorious treatises in the vernacular." It would be interesting to know to what extent the prizes were competed for, and what was the nature of the compositions which failed of winning them. All that we are told is, that a prize of £100 was awarded for the 'Repentance of Nussooh.' This tale, in the original Urdû, has been repeatedly printed at Agra and Lucknow—a patent attestation that it has awakened curiosity, if it has not also met with acceptance, in quarters where its salutary lessons have long urgently required to be inculcated. Its author is Maulavî Hâjî Hâfiz Nazîr Ahmad, who, after tried service as a Deputy Collector of Revenue under the English Government, now holds an important office in the administration of Haidarabad, in the Deccan. Its language is of the purest type of that current at Delhi, where Urdû is acknowledged to obtain at its best. Accredited authority has certified that, for an Urdû composition, its vigor of expression, the chaste and simple beauty of its style, and the aptness and richness of its idiom are probably unsurpassed. Mr. Kempson, who was for many years Director of Public Instruction in Northern India, has further, as we have assurance for stating, discharged his function in translating it "faithfully and ably," as was, indeed, to be expected from his admitted accuracy of scholarship.

Rather than a tale, strictly so called, the 'Repentance of Nussooh,' which has no plot to speak of, is a series of chapters of domestic history. Its central character, a well-to-do Islamite gentleman, who has a wife, a married daughter, a son arrived at manhood, and several other children, is stricken down by a severe attack of cholera. He recovers from it, and, on his restoration to health, prompted by a dream which he had in his illness, resolves to amend his ways. The unsatisfactory condition in which he sees his family he lays to the account of his neglect of moral and religious duties, and his connivance at the neglect of them in those about him. As the result of his change of mind, he succeeds, what between precept and example, in reuniting his married daughter to her husband, from whom she had for some time been living apart. His eldest son, who is depicted as a graceless reprobate, and whom he at first treats as if incorrigible, returns home, after divers adventures, with the loss of a leg, and dies contrite. The younger children, under the reformed guidance of their father and mother, give promise of growing up models of propriety.

Nussooh's religious attitude is markedly peculiar for a Muhammadan, who ordinarily, if not like an every-day Christian, much of an indifferentist, is apt to be either a sanguinary fanatic awaiting with more or less impatience an opportunity to wreak his malice on "unbelievers," or else an incomprehensible but all-tolerant mystic. Of distinctive religious dogmatism Nussooh is represented as manifesting but slight traces, if any at all. Christianity he is made to speak of without the least aversion to it, though of course he could with no consistency abide its prevailing Athanasian phase; and his references to his Prophet are as though he held certain of his characteristic doctrines to be nowise essential. In short, he seems to be hardly distinguishable from a deist who believes in a future state of rewards and punishments.

A somewhat remarkable production, accordingly, considering whence it emanates, is the 'Repentance of Nussooh.' Of its linguistic merit

we have already adduced an estimate against which it would be hazardous to appeal. Whoever, therefore, may have occasion to take up the study of the Urdû has now, in it, as a text-book, something very different, alike as to subject-matter and as to tone, from the well-known *Totâ-kahânî*, *Bâgh-o-bahâr*, *Akhlâg-i-hindî*, and kindred repertories of flagrant filthiness or wearisome insipidity.

The Woodcutters of the Netherlands in the 15th Century. By William Martin Conway. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press.

Mr. Conway has made a most exhaustive monograph on the book-illustrations of the Netherlands during the period in which they may be said to have had a distinct existence—*i. e.*, distinct from the block books which preceded and the style of illustration which succeeded them. Of the woodcutters who are the nominal subjects of the essay nothing is known, and nothing can be said—we do not even know if they were the designers also; and without some internal evidence that this or the contrary was the case, there is no possibility of making a demonstration. It is a problem only for the highest expert knowledge to solve, and not for literary investigation, what were the relations of the cutters of these illustrations to the art of their time; and although Mr. Conway has greatly dared, it is impossible to admit that he has made the problem clearer to the reader. Thus, in the section on "the Haarlem wood-cutter," he says:

"Three of the four cuts in the *Four Last Things* of 1484 had already appeared in *der Sonderen troest*; a new one was required for the chapters on Hell. This cut is remarkable because it differs from the usual Dutch type. . . . In those the mouth of Hell is seen open on one side, and devils are casting the condemned into it. . . . The Haarlem artist, however, discards all these adjuncts, and simply draws the gaping mouth of a hideous beast and a few flame-clouds floating about it. The reason for this change is not evident, and I do not know of its having been *followed by any other woodcutter*; but it is interesting as showing that about this date the restraints of precedent were being thrown off, and *woodcutters were trying to stand on their own resources*—with but little credit, however, as the result proved."

Now what evidence is there (certainly Mr. Conway gives none) to authorize the conclusion that the *woodcutter* had anything to do with the change alleged? And in his general analysis he deals with technical qualities for the satisfactory elucidation of which, to his readers, he should have given facsimiles of the cuts, for no verbal description can convey an idea of subtle technical differences. In default of facsimiles it is impossible to say whether the distinctions made by the author can be maintained, except by those who have access to the collection containing the originals. What we should have in such a study is the clearest distinction between the qualities of design and those which become conditional on the technical difficulties involved in cutting out with a knife lines drawn on a board; and if the data given do not contain the material for such a distinction, then nothing beyond guesswork is possible. This classification of the book-illustrations in question is clearly, from all the data we possess thus far, only matter of the most filmy conjecture.

The utter want of consideration given to the woodcutter of those days is indicated not only by the analogies afforded by other handicrafts, but by the absence of any contemporary notice of the workmen: their work was not even worth marking with their own names. It is, indeed, a curious fact in the history of all art that in the epoch when it is soundest and most masterly in general method—when the general quality of the school is at its highest level—the artist should always be regarded merely as a craftsman, not entitled to the personal consideration which by a modern fiction genius receives from authority. The Netherlandish woodcutters, like artists in other walks and places, were personally of no account whatever; and indeed it may be doubted if, even in the few and short periods when the artist won respect apart from his work, the consideration accorded exceptionally was not due to personal and intellectual qualities quite independent of art. We know no more, therefore, of the subjects of Mr. Conway's book than we do of the cave-dwelling artists whose engraved fragments of bone or bone utensils we have, or than another generation will of the men who work the press for the illustrated magazines of to-day.

Mr. Conway has been indefatigable in research, and most careful and comprehensive in the cataloguing of the work attributable to his chosen epoch, the last quarter of the 15th century; and in the bibliography of this period his book fills its place, as an admirable and admirably arranged compendium of what remains and is to be found in the various collections to which the student has or may have access. It gives, besides an elaborate analysis of the entire series of cuts, not only a minute and well-classified descriptive catalogue of the cuts with their printers and localities of printing, but another of the books containing woodcuts—a masterly piece of literary condensation and arrangement.

Among the passages which particularly merit attention as an example of the author's ability as an analyst is his study on the *Chevalier délibéré*, in which he remarks with subtlety the qualities due to the designer and the deficiencies in the achieved result due to the low abilities of the cutter; but even here, in his attempt to trace the personality of the latter, he encounters the same difficulty which stood in his way in the analysis of the earlier workers—that of identifying the unknown workman purely by his treatment of a line in face of the probabilities of the shortcomings being due to impersonal technical difficulties on one side, or deliberate imitation on the other. It seems to us that there is not sufficient internal evidence to justify so rigid conclusions

The make-up of the book is such as is to be expected of the Cambridge press; but its solidity and the excellence of its typography make one regret the more the absence of the facsimiles which are really indispensable to the wide usefulness of the book.

Atheism in Philosophy, and Other Essays. By Frederic Henry Hedge. Boston: Roberts Bros. Pp. 390.

Dr. Hedge explains, in the introduction to this volume, that by philosophic atheism he means "speculative denial of a supermundane, conscious intelligence"—"not to be confounded with the scientific atheism of the Positivists," he adds in a foot-note, although the Positivists reject atheism on the ground of its being, no less than theism, a dogmatic theological doctrine. As representatives of ancient and modern atheism Dr. Hedge chooses Epicurus and Schopenhauer, in order "to show the range of the atheistic mind":

"The contrast is striking. Epicurus was a flat materialist; Schopenhauer an out-and-out idealist. Epicurus was an optimist; Schopenhauer a pessimist. Epicurus was sunny-tempered, bland, humane; Schopenhauer was a cynic and malcontent. Epicurus gathered his followers around him in a garden, and invited the world to partake of his cheer; Schopenhauer shut himself up in a German *Studirzimmer*, and wreaked, with curses on the world, his spite at the world's neglect of his wisdom. Epicurus despised and decried all learning; Schopenhauer was richly, widely, profoundly learned. Epicurus exhorts us to make the most of life; Schopenhauer teaches that renunciation of the will to live is the true wisdom. Epicurus lived abstemiously, and taught that pleasure is man's chief end; Schopenhauer lived daintily, and taught that the end of man is suffering."

We quote this batch of antitheses because it is the best thing in the book, which as a whole is not entertaining, the function of the essayist being too often overshadowed by that of the homilist. Dr. Hedge fails to grasp the significance of the ethical doctrines of Epicurus, and he goes so far as to approve of the popular judgment which, when it uses the word epicurean, means "something soft, luxurious, effeminate, timid, otiose." But this is a complete misconception of epicureanism, distorted by the Puritan mind. There is no scientific fact better established than this, that pleasure promotes vitality and pain lowers it. The Hedonists set up pleasure as the chief end of life, but it remained for Epicurus to point out that not all pleasures are to be aimed at, but only those which have no injurious consequences, thus implying moderation in everything. But his greatest achievement was the *aperçu*—a true flash of genius—that psychic pleasure is superior to physical pleasure; a doctrine which is neatly proved in Stendhal's aphorism, that duration diminishes the pleasures of the body and augments the pains, whereas the pleasures of the mind are intensified by time, and the sorrows weakened. Dr. Hedge is annoyed by such evidences of epicureanism in modern life as the "universal relaxation of discipline, abolition of all pain, retribution ignored, all strengths and austerities ruled out of life, softness in legislation and education," etc. But we are far from the good old times when mortification of the flesh and the scientific pursuit of unhappiness were regarded as the chief aim of life.

The essay on Schopenhauer gives a clear view of some of his leading doctrines, but makes no mention of his æsthetic speculations, which constitute an essential part of his philosophy; nor is anything said of the important rôle which Schopenhauer played in calling attention to the treasures of old Indian thought. Dr. Hedge ridicules with an exclamation point the belief of Schopenhauer "that the university professors were afraid of him—were afraid that if he came to be known they would fall at once into hopeless neglect, and therefore had combined to suppress him!" Perhaps there was no such conspiracy, but it is a fact that the doctrines taught by these professors did fall into "hopeless neglect" as soon as Schopenhauer became known, and the neo-Kantian movement, which he initiated began to spread. Dr. Hedge does not fail to acknowledge the superiority of Schopenhauer's literary art over that of other German philosophers, but it is difficult to understand what he means by saying that he has "a crystalline, *colorless*, and yet singularly vivid and commanding style." To characterize as "colorless" writings which abound in wit, grim humor, sarcasm, exquisite imagery, and every other form of literary spice, is surely to use a word contrary to its sense.

The "other essays" referred to in the title to this work are concerned with St. Augustine, Leibnitz, Kant, Irony, Fetishism, Genius, "The Lords of Life." Of these the best is that on St. Augustine, a spiritual contemporary of our author.

On page 334 a statement is made, regarding the relations between pain and pleasure, which calls for correction. After pointing out that pleasure, if it reaches a high pitch, is apt to turn to pain, Dr. Hedge asserts that "Bodily pain, on the contrary, never breaks into any falsetto of pleasure, but keeps 'due on' its dolorous road, till anguish deepens into death." The old school of psychology pays no attention to the

study of morbid cerebral states, and therefore abounds in errors and misrepresentations. We will quote a single sentence from Dr. Emminghaus's 'Psychopathologie': "Convalescents from mania often assure us that they never felt so indescribably happy as during the maniacal attack."

A History of the United States of America. For the Use of Schools and Academies. By Horace E. Scudder. With Maps and Illustrations. Philadelphia: J. H. Butler.

We have delayed our notice of Mr. Scudder's history unpardonably long; but our readers will thank us, even at this late hour, for calling their attention to one of the freshest and most thoughtful books on the perennial subject that have ever been offered to them; for it is one whose vitality many times six months will not drain. Mr. Scudder has equipped his book with all proper appliances for its use as a text-book—sections large and small, a very full index, chronological tables, questions, maps, small pronouncing vocabularies, and the inevitable illustrations. We must pronounce these last the least valuable part of the book. The pictures of the Presidents are enough to rejoice the hearts of all who voted against them; and some of the better pictures—the monk in the Scriptorium, the ship of the Vikings, the Indian and pioneer, etc., are either absolutely out of place, or at best thoroughly unreal. They are a sacrifice to a taste cherished much more by those who negotiate the purchase of the book than by those who use it. The appendix contains Mr. Lincoln's farewell address, the "Declaration," and the Constitution. In the last Mr. Scudder takes the astounding liberty of removing five important clauses out of Article II. and inserting them in Amendment XII., suppressing wholly the original clause on the choice of electors. We can see no advantage in this over the original order, with a reference to Amendment XII. in a note. In the pages of examination questions at the end are named a variety of books for parallel reading likely to interest young people. The maps, whether on a large or a small scale, are very attractive, and not at all too many. Of the pronouncing vocabularies we cannot speak so highly.

The history is obviously the work of a man who, with strong opinions of his own, is yet no unfair or unkindly partisan. It is very plainly a labor of love, as well as work done for honorable compensation. Moreover, it has in it what many writers are wholly wanting in—an intellectual and literary conscience. Mr. Scudder seems carefully to have kept the laws of proportion, not only in the amount of time he gives to each period, but in the stress he lays on the conscious and the unconscious in our development, one or other of which is generally neglected. We would commend chapters iii. and vi. in Part 3 as admirable instances of accurate *perspective* in writing. We think the book would have been improved by clearing away a certain unreal tone, which has clung to all the author's writing ever since his original delicate fictions. There is, not perhaps throughout the book, but often recurring, an air as if it had all been told, as Hawthorne's 'Grandfather's Chair' was supposed to be, to children round the fire at twilight, and as if these had been some of Mr. Scudder's own "dream children." There are signs of a tendency to become that most unnatural and weakening of literary productions, a "prose poem"; and of what for a school history is perhaps worse, talking down. Mr. Scudder is very properly not afraid of introducing hard subjects like Jay's treaty and the early tariff; he is right in thinking that school children can understand them. They can—and they can understand them in the natural language, without turning them into words of one syllable. We do not feel quite sure that Mr. Scudder would not like to draw a protective tariff on the board, and explain the removal of the deposits by colored balls in the true spirit of Froebelism. The history of the United States is preëminently the history of men and women. We sprang full-armed into life, and nothing that savors of the nursery or the infant school has any place in the way our history is told. It is brimful of sentiment; but any sentimentality it may have has been put into it by writers who looked back on events through the spectacles of drawing-room philosophy. We trust that this criticism, even if Mr. Scudder does not see the justice of it, will not cause him to doubt our warm and friendly appreciation of his good work.

John Howard Payne, Dramatist, Poet, Actor, and Author of "Home, Sweet Home!" His Life and Writings. By Gabriel Harrison. With Illustrations. Revised Edition. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 404.

Nearly ten years ago, just after the Faust Club, of Brooklyn, had put up a bust of Payne in Prospect Park, Mr. Harrison issued a bulky work devoted to the 'Life and Writings of John Howard Payne.' It was padded with much irrelevant matter, most of which is omitted in the new and revised edition before us. It was privately published—if one may use this phrase—by the late Joel Munsell, of Albany, in an edition limited to 265 copies. In the years which have elapsed since the book first appeared Mr. Harrison has collected much new material, but neither has his style improved nor has his appreciation of the duty of a biographer. A quotation of the second sentence of the first chapter will suffice to show the quality of his style: "His varied talents, and his constantly changing disposition to follow this object and the other, causes (*sic*) the writer some difficulty in finding a climax to any of the many vocations which Mr. Payne attempted throughout his life." But no quotation can show the slip-shod carelessness and complete lack of proportion which characterize Mr. Harrison's biographic work. Nowhere is there any succinct sketch of Payne's career or any distinct outline of his character; all sorts of letters from all sorts of persons are reprinted for little or no reason; matter which ought to be in the text appears in the notes, and matter which had better be relegated to notes encumbers the text. As typical as anything of the author's negligence is the fact that no mention is made of the highly interesting letters of Charles Lamb to Payne, recently printed in the *Century*. These letters showed that Lamb was intimate with Payne, and acted as his agent in dealings with the London managers; but Mr. Harrison makes no reference anywhere to Lamb—except a chance comparison (wholly absurd) to the likeness of Payne's style as a critic to Lamb's. In fact, one does not get as clear an idea of Payne's life and works from Mr. Harrison's 400 pages as from the brief sketch contributed a year or so ago to the *Magazine of American History* by Mr. Laurence Hatton. We have here an ample account of the ceremonies at the dedication of the Prospect Park bust, and at the reinterment of the remains of the poet at Mr. Corcoran's expense somewhat more than a year ago. Nearly fifty pages of Payne's verse are reprinted, though it is now of no great value. So is Payne's paper in the *Democratic Review* on "Our Neglected Poets." The list of Payne's plays is wholly destitute of bibliographical exactness, as it is a mere list, without any date or place of first performance, or indication whether the play is published or not. There is no list of the parts performed by Payne as an actor—an absolutely indispensable adjunct of every histrionic biography, and one which the books of playbills consulted by Mr. Harrison would have made easy to compile. There is an index, which, so far as we have been able to verify it, seems very good. Of the illustrations, the most interesting is a facsimile of a letter of Edmund Kean's, recommending Payne to the manager of the Theatre Royal, Birmingham. The frontispiece is a portrait of Payne, engraved by Mr. G. R. Hall, after a photograph.

The Author of Beltraffio, Pandora, Georgina's Reasons, The Path of Duty, Four Meetings. By Henry James. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1885.

In this collection of short stories Mr. James shows his usual fertility of invention and his remarkable powers of description to great advantage. With one or two, perhaps more of them, the American reading public were already familiar. "Four Meetings" is, to our taste, the most pleasing of them; "The Author of Beltraffio" has most of what the young ladies call "weirdness." The weirdness consists—we may say as much as this without revealing the plot—in the situation, being that of a man who writes books to the last degree artistic, but which are so repulsive to his wife, for what she is pleased to consider moral reasons, as to cause a tragic breach between them. The author of 'Beltraffio,' we are asked to believe, is the greatest English novelist of his time. His style is the purest, his imagination the loftiest, his fancy and humor the most delicate, his books the most profoundly interesting; but he is a devotee of Art for Art—that is, he writes in the way that Art calls upon him to write about what Life shows him, no matter whether the sights are such as Morality thinks ought to be revealed or not—for Morality, according to this theory, cannot impose limits upon Art. It is difficult to imagine a more unpleasant relation than that between a man who writes books like 'Beltraffio' and his wife, who thinks they offend against the laws of God and man, and who dreads them most on account of their probable pernicious effect on her child. Does not the situation throw some light upon the problem itself? In the English race the individual conscience plays a prominent part, and one marked effect of this is seen in the purity of its literature. It has developed pure fiction, as distinguished from the impure sort which furnished people with amusement in the middle ages, and even much later, and which has lingered on in France down to our own time. What the devotees of Art for Art want, of course, is not necessarily impurity, but fiction untrammelled by any moral law debarring it, as in England, from dealing with or treating certain departments of human life. But for English-speaking people, would not the adoption of any such theory imply a reversal of their whole historical development, the effacement of the strong Puritanism which for three centuries has helped to make them what they are, and, in fact, a change of race-characteristics? Rightly or wrongly, fiction with us must be *virginibus puerisque*, and we fear that we are still so profoundly moral, at any rate in this respect, that ninety-nine out of a hundred English or American readers will have less sympathy for the author of 'Beltraffio' than for his wife.

Dickens's Dictionary of Oxford and Cambridge. Macmillan & Co.

This dictionary, on the plan of the same editor's 'Dictionary of London,' is certainly the best guide-book extant to those famous and self-contained seats of learning. The use of the singular form in the title of the book is only justified by the circumstance of the two dictionaries being bound within one cover, for they are in all other ré-

spects two separate books. Considered as one book, the two are mutually helpful to some extent, the one sometimes giving information which applies equally to the other. But on the other hand, whole pages of matter are printed word for word alike in both—an extravagance in the use of space which is by no means justified, since the common matter is just what could and should have been spared from both books, namely, full details of the inter-university sports of various kinds in 1884.

The dictionary is by no means perfect, although the compilation has evidently been intrusted to persons familiar as well with the inner life of the universities as with that part of their organization which is accessible to any diligent inquirer on the spot. The long articles on expenses, reading, and undergraduate life clearly show the hand of one who is, or lately was, at home within college walls. How far the editor is responsible for omissions and trivialities and inconsistencies, it is difficult to judge, but, whosever the fault, it may fairly be asked why a reference-heading should be given to cabs and not to hotels; why to "the tavern" (a nickname of New Inn Hall) and not to "Teddy" Hall (St. Edmund Hall); and why, indeed, to either? Why should we be told the stipends of nearly all the professors and readers, and yet be suffered to remain in ignorance of how much a regius professorship with a canonry of Christ Church attached is worth? The emolument of one of these comfortable chairs is from twelve hundred to fifteen hundred pounds a year, with a handsome and spacious residence. In the Cambridge book a definition is given of that unique organization a university, as the term is understood in England; but the stranger who may visit or feel curious about Oxford alone is left in ignorance as to the constitution and powers of a body the functions of which many an Oxford graduate imperfectly apprehends. Lastly, why are the famous Clarendon Press at Oxford, and the corresponding establishment at Cambridge, totally ignored as if they were mere independent printing offices, where academical authors might have their books printed "on the usual terms," whereas they are as distinctly university institutions as are the Bodleian Library and the Fitzwilliam Museum, and in their way as important as either of these, and certainly more widely known than one of them?

These are the most conspicuous omissions from a book that is in the main full, judicious, and accurate, and they are in some degree made up to the fortunate reader who shall come upon the comical anachronism contained in the statement (under "New Inn Hall") that Keble College sent its plate to the melting-pot for the benefit of King Charles I. Keble College was founded in 1868, and Exeter is probably the society whose loyalty the writer intended to refer to.

Wensley, and Other Stories. By Edmund Quincy. Edited by his son, Edmund Quincy. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1885.

MR. QUINCY'S name is well known to most readers of the *Nation*, and has been immortalized for them by some beautiful lines of Mr. Lowell's, which originally appeared in its columns, and are reproduced in this collection of his stories. His life was devoted to the anti-slavery cause; for, though his original bent was rather to literature, he found, as so many Americans do, that in our practical life a purely literary career falls short of satisfying that longing to take an active part in the great struggle of humanity which is part of the inheritance of every educated American. No one can read such a novel as 'Wensley,' however, without perceiving that had he devoted himself to fiction, Mr. Quincy would have easily obtained a high rank as a novelist. The style is not that of our day, and the humor has an antique but perfectly genuine flavor, which will recall to those who knew him something of the nameless charm and attractiveness of Mr. Quincy's conversation—a humor not as shy or subtle as Hawthorne's, but colored by the same conciliatory modesty which characterizes what used to be known as the manners of the old school. 'Wensley' is a novel of the old school. The scene is laid in post-Revolutionary New England. The hero is a "rusticated" Harvard student, the heroine the daughter of a Massachusetts Tory, and one of the principal figures a New England clergyman of the period when New England was still a theocracy, and Sunday began at sundown on Saturday. The figures of Mr. Bulkley and his old negro servant are well drawn; and if the villain is a little conventional, his connection with the plot is well worked out, and the termination is thoroughly satisfactory. The effect in heightening the interest of a story of "suspense," which all the old novelists so sedulously cultivated, and which so many of those of our day seem to know nothing about, was evidently appreciated by Mr. Quincy. 'Wensley' is certainly not in the taste of our day; yet no one who is at all familiar with New England could read it without a great deal of pleasure—a pleasure partly derived from the interest of the story, and partly from the insight it gives us into bygone times and feelings.

"Who Paid for the Prima Donna?" is a short story of the days of the "Old Park" Theatre (Mr. Quincy was an inveterate theatre-goer) when Malibran was in her prime—so much in her prime as to lead a couple of ingenious rascals to make her the medium, and victim, of an elaborate swindle, by which the singer, the daughter of one of them, was transferred in marriage to the other, the price paid for his wife being a cargo of linen out of which he swindled a third person. The subsequent history of the adventures of the father (Garcia), as given by Mr. Quincy, is very amusing, and the tale contains an original apothegm with regard to foreign travel that will do for any system of philosophy, Stoic, Cynic, or Epicurean, viz., that its chief advantage is that it teaches you that one place is as good to live in as another. The author himself, we believe, lived up to this by never going abroad. Mr. Quincy's minor writings, including his anti-slavery publications, would, his son says, fill many volumes, and we trust that the time may soon come for a selection from these also, under his name. He was a most careful writer, and what he wrote, even controversially, was done with the same conscientiousness that marks his essays in fiction. Every one who knew Mr. Quincy will be glad, at any rate, to possess this selection. The regard for his memory and character which we have, most inadequately, expressed in this brief notice, the reader will, as we have said, find beautifully preserved for generations to come in "Bankside," a poem that is a perfect portrait, such as only the sympathetic insight of friendship could have produced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, E. The Secret of Death. From the Sanskrit. With some selected poems. Boston: Roberts Brothers.
Bliss, P. Of Sovereignty. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Battershall, J. P. Legal Chemistry. Translated from the French of A. Naquet. 2d ed. D. Van Nostrand.
Blunt, Capt. S. E. Instructions in Rifle and Carbine Firing for the United States Army. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Bolton, Mrs. Sarah K. How Success is Won. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Bohn, H. G. A Dictionary of Quotations from the English Poets. Fourth Edition. Scribner & Welford.
Boddy, A. A. To Kairwân the Holy: Scenes in Muhammadan Africa. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Bryant, W. C. The Unknown Way. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Buchanan, W. M. The Dictionary of Science and Technical Terms used in Philosophy, Literature, Professions, Commerce, Arts, and Trades. Scribner & Welford.
Codman, J. A Solution of the Mormon Problem. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Coleridge, S. T. Table Talk and Omniana. Scribner & Welford.
Colquhoun, A. R. Amongst the Shans. With an Historical Sketch of the Shans, by H. S. Hallet, and an Introduction on the Cradle of the Shan Race, by Terrien de Lacouperie. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Croker, B. M. Some One Else. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Cunningham, W. Politics and Economics. An Essay on the Nature of the Principles of Political Economy, together with a Survey of Recent Legislation. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Dalton, J. G. Lyra Bicyclica: Sixty Poets on the Wheel. Boston: E. A. Hodges & Co. $1.

GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLOpædia for Housekeepers. $2.50.
HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 19, 1885.

The Week.

We extend our deepest sympathies to those Republican journals which started out a few weeks ago with the assurance to their readers that President Cleveland's civil-service-reform professions were all humbug. They are having a very hard time in explaining what is happening, or rather failing to happen, at Washington. When the office-holders turned up in great numbers after the inauguration, they were sure that after a few days of resistance the President would surrender. Now they have to admit that he has not done this, and that "the boys" are one by one going home in despair. Some explanation must be found, and it has been put forth on the theory that the President is going to wait till the Senate adjourns, when he will be able to make appointments without the rigid scrutiny to which they are now subjected. Another point which needed explanation was the charge that "Hubert O. Thompson had the inside track for the Collectorship of New York." This has been made nearly every day since the election in November, but it is abandoned now, and the reason given is that the President fears that the Senate would refuse confirmation. In this way any sort of disgraceful design may be attributed to the President, and when he fails to fulfil the prediction, the failure can be charged to his fear of the Senate.

There are three kinds of people who are very anxious for the President to make the mistake of not reappointing Mr. Pearson as Postmaster of this city, and they are combining their energies in a final effort to accomplish their purpose. The office-seekers do not want him reappointed because the precedent would be an ominous one for them, and because they want the patronage of the place. The Blaine extremists, who are hoping and praying for a failure of Cleveland's Administration, do not want him reappointed for obvious reasons. The late Butler organ, the *Sun*, does not want him reappointed for precisely similar reasons. In fact, the "enemies he has made" are unanimous in desiring to see the President make a slip in this very important matter. So eager are they that they are supplying him with reasons for making it. The Blaine organ tells him it is really not worth his while to keep Mr. Pearson in office, because to do so will be taken by the public as a "blind." The Butler organ tells him that the reappointment may please a few Independents, but "may fail to please a good many Democrats," and that while Mr. Pearson has been a good Postmaster there are not wanting Democrats who could run the office just as well. The spoilsmen do their part by reproducing an old and exploded charge that Mr. Pearson was at one time interested in some express contracts for carrying letters, and ought to be removed as an unfit person.

The objection has been raised against the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson that since it is to be made (if at all) at the instance of the Independents, it will be in the nature of a political *quid pro quo*, and, therefore, not in the interest of civil-service reform. It is rather freely assumed that President Cleveland would not make such an appointment of his own motion, but only in obedience to pressure from a certain number of his supporters in the late campaign, and that therefore it would be as much in harmony with the spoils system as though the office were given to Tammany Hall, as an offset to some other office given to the County Democracy. The fact that Mr. Pearson is himself not an Independent makes this reasoning a trifle obscure to the common understanding, which has somehow coupled the spoils system with the instinct of human selfishness. A spoils system grounded upon principles of self-denial is something of a puzzle. It is so much at variance with prevailing ideas that it requires elucidation. Yet there is a substratum of truth in the particular objection made to Mr. Pearson's reappointment. If the Independents had asked for it as a return for their votes, and as a recognition of themselves as a distinct body of Mr. Cleveland's supporters, an appointment thus made would not be in the line of what we understand by civil-service reform. What really detracts from the force of this objection is, that the Independents have made no such request. They have never thought of hiring Mr. Cleveland to do anything. They did not support him in order to secure the appointment or the reappointment of anybody to any place, but to establish the principle that "public office is a public trust." They conceive that Mr. Pearson has illustrated this principle in a conspicuous manner, against heavy odds of party pressure, and that his reappointment would signalize the President's adherence to the same principle as perhaps no other act could do. They are not unmindful of the fact that in reappointing Mr. Pearson the President would go a step further than he has ever gone, or promised to go, in this direction. Nevertheless, they indulge the hope that so favorable an opportunity of stamping purely business methods upon purely business administration will not be neglected.

Secretary Whitney has performed a simple act of justice in restoring Commander Evans, of the navy, to his former position of Inspector of the Fifth Light-house District. He was removed last July by Secretary Chandler and put on waiting orders at half-pay, simply because he would not allow political interference by Mahone in the affairs of his department. There was no other complaint made of his conduct. He had been in the naval service twenty-three years, twelve of which he had passed at sea. He was a faithful and efficient officer, but he would not consent to Mahone's wishes in regard to the selection of subordinates. His chief offence was in refusing to retain an incompetent colored man as a lighthouse-keeper. Pressure of all kinds was brought to bear upon him both in Virginia and at Washington, but he resisted it all, and at Mahone's instigation Secretary Chandler removed him. A Democrat was put in the place, and he now retires in the interest of justice and civil-service reform.

The evidence that Mr. Manning was grossly imposed upon in the matter of Higgins, the Appointment Clerk, by Senator Gorman, is very strong, and we are quite ready to believe it. But the plea which comes from Washington, that "it will not happen again," hardly meets the occasion. There is only one way for Mr. Manning to set himself and the Administration right with the public, and that is to get rid of Higgins. We are not consoled for having one Higgins by the assurance that we shall not have two, because one is too many. The appointment has nowhere excited more surprise and regret than in Baltimore, where Higgins is well known as a bad specimen of the ward politician, and we believe steps are being taken to put his personal and political record before the world, in a way which will make his retention not only a mistake but a great scandal. We trust that Mr. Manning will anticipate all this by removing him. It would be absurd, it seems to us, to shake the daily and rapidly-growing confidence of men of *all* parties in the Administration, in order to oblige Senator Gorman or give a man like Higgins $2,500 a year. Besides, if there was one thing more than another in which Mr. Manning was supposed to be strong, it was his shrewdness as a politician—that is, his capacity for detecting attempts to humbug him. He ought not to sacrifice this for the sake of one small place.

Notwithstanding reports which have come from Washington implying that the contest between Mr. "Phil" Thompson, of Kentucky, and Mr. Miller, of West Virginia, for the appointment of Commissioner of Internal Revenue was a trial of strength between Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Randall, or more broadly between the friends and opponents of revenue reform, we can perceive no reason why it should bear any strange complexion, or rise to the dignity of a national episode. Mr. Phil Thompson made himself notorious a few years ago by murdering an unarmed man in cold blood on a railway train, for alleged corruption of his wife through her unfortunate propensity for drink. He had previously shot two other men in a court-room. It was said, and we believe truly, that in this affair he was defending his father against a personal assault. He was acquitted in both cases, and afterward elected to Congress. The view taken by President Cleveland of his fitness for a bureau appointment would naturally be different from that taken by a Kentucky jury, or a constituency among whom the carrying of deadly weapons in court-rooms and on railway trains is considered consistent with high civilization. It is altogether fitting that Mr. Thompson's civic honors should be left wholly to the determination of his friends and neighbors, and it is not necessary to import into President Cleveland's decision of

the contest between him and his competitor any deep-laid scheme to decide weighty questions affecting the public revenue or the next Speakership contest. There are plenty of Democrats to hold all the offices who have never shot anybody on sight, and probably Kentucky can furnish her quota without encroaching upon the ranks of those who have been tried at one time or another for homicide.

The sentence of two years' imprisonment in the penitentiary and a fine of $5,000 each, passed upon the professors of "fine work" in the Chicago election cases, will be a wholesome lesson to ballot-box stuffers in all parts of the country, since the law under which the conviction took place is a statute of the United States, applicable to every precinct where a member of Congress is voted for. It may be said that this proceeding in Judge Blodgett's court is a new encroachment of the Federal judiciary upon State jurisdiction. The fraud actually committed was a fraud in the election of members of the State Legislature. In order to commit it the ballots cast for Congressman in the district were unlawfully tampered with, although the result was not changed. The transaction brought it within the purview of the United States statute governing the election of members of the House of Representatives. It is contended by the counsel for the prisoners that a jurisdiction acquired by mere technicality should not operate to deprive citizens of their liberty. But it is difficult to see how a court is to draw a line between excusable and non-excusable ballot-stuffing. It is true that Mackin and his pals did not intend to cheat the voters out of the Congressman of their choice, but the law does not confine itself to frauds which change the result of an election. It prohibits and punishes any meddling with the ballots at all. If the jurisdiction is technical, the crime was real enough to warrant the heaviest punishment that the law allows.

Senator Sherman's refusal to serve on the Committee on Finance has drawn attention to the composition of that committee as regards the silver question. It appears to have been made up, as the previous one was, with a bare majority in favor of a suspension, sooner or later, of the compulsory coinage of silver. Senators Morrill, Sherman, Allison, Aldrich, Miller (of N. Y.), and McPherson, are counted as favorable to the bill reported by the Committee at the recent session, while Senators Jones (of Nevada), Voorhees, Beck, Harris, and Vance are supposed to be on the other side. The retirement of Mr. Sherman will not change the complexion of the Committee in this regard, as the vacancy will be filled by an anti-silver man. Mr. Sherman's action is said to have been prompted by personal pique, because he was not given the chairmanship of the Committee, which he held before he became Secretary of the Treasury under the Hayes Administration. It is not presumable that this was the real cause, since Mr. Sherman has found no difficulty in serving on that Committee under Mr. Morrill's chairmanship for the past four years. Looking over the list of committees, we observe that the only chairmanship accorded to Mr. Sherman is that of the Committee on the Library, which is rather an ornamental than a distinguished position. In contrast with this assignment, Senator Plumb is made Chairman of Public Lands, Senator Cameron of Naval Affairs, Senator Miller (of California) of Foreign Relations, Senator Pike of Claims, and Senator McMillan of Commerce. All of these Senators are by a long distance the juniors of Mr. Sherman in terms of service, and still more so in experience and reputation. While Mr. Sherman would not be justified in making an issue with his fellow-Senators on the chairmanship of the Finance Committee, he is clearly entitled to a leading position in the organization of the Senate, and this has not been accorded to him. Both Mahone and Riddleberger have received more consideration from the Republican caucus, the former being Chairman of Public Buildings and the latter of Manufactures.

The drift of public sentiment in the countries of the Latin Monetary Union appears to be in favor of the coinage of silver on the basis of its actual value in gold. The Union expires at the end of the present year unless renewed, and the terms of its renewal are now under consideration. If a new arrangement is not made, each country will be bound to take care of its own silver, and the circulation of Italian pieces in France, and vice versa, will come to an end. Events have long outgrown the Union. It ceased to have any real vitality when France, Belgium, and Switzerland closed their mints to free coinage. Its operation since that time has been conservative and useful, but the original purpose has been superseded by the introduction of the single gold standard. Speculation is rife on the other side of the water on the question whether the United States will join in a movement to establish the double standard on an entirely new ratio—that is, the ratio of the market value of the two metals. This is a question not easy to answer, since the political supporters of silver are committed to the "dollar of the fathers," the ratio of 16 to 1, and have as large a contempt for "abroad" as they had when the Silver Bill was passed, while the commercial classes do not believe that any ratio can be maintained by law or treaty which will hold good against changes in market value caused by the variations of supply and demand. Inasmuch, however, as President Cleveland has expressed the hope that measures may be taken to prevent the two metals from "parting company," we presume there would be a general acquiescence in the adoption of the market-value ratio as an experiment, unless the Bland faction should oppose it. One of the consequences of the adoption of this ratio would be the retirement and recoinage of our existing stock of silver dollars, and the wiping out of the imaginary profit which the Government has made by the coinage of the eighty-five-cent dollars, and the acknowledgment of the actual loss incurred in the operation.

In the proceedings before the Hazen court-martial on Monday, the defendant tried to show that the Secretary of War had no jurisdiction in the matter of the Arctic expeditions, but this the Court ruled out. His counsel then made a vigorous attack on the Secretary's motives, maintaining that he was actuated by such deep-seated hatred of the Chief Signal Officer, that he procured the theft of certain letters from General Hazen's desk, and rewarded the thief with a special appointment. Indeed, this hatred reached such a point that the Secretary's "body exhaled malice whenever the Chief Signal Officer was named." This was certainly a most extraordinary phenomenon, because physical exhalations can only be detected by the smell, and the precise odor of malice is, we think, generally unknown even to medical men. This reliance on physical indications of a man's state of mind, by counsel before courts-martial, is, however, not new. One of the witnesses before the Fitz-John Porter court-martial, Col. T. C. H. Smith, swore that he was so satisfied by the expression of Porter's countenance, although he had never seen him before, that he was going to betray the army the day before the celebrated march from Bristow Station, that he would have felt justified "before God" in shooting him on the spot. Judge-Advocate Holt, in summing up, dwelt strongly on this testimony, alleging that "the tone of the voice, the expression of the eye, and the play of the features" of the accused, as remembered by a witness, though he could not reproduce them, "afforded a language more to be relied on than that of the lips." In fact, he came very near enunciating the great doctrine that mental conditions may be inferred, for judicial purposes, from bodily odors, by declaring that "great crimes, like great virtues, often reveal themselves to close observers of character and conduct as unmistakably as a flower-garden announces its presence by the odors it breathes in the air."

Three important changes in postal rates will go into effect on the first of July next. The postage on letters after that date will be two cents an ounce instead of two cents a half-ounce as at present. The postage on newspapers sent to regular subscribers, and on sample copies sent out by publishers, will be reduced one-half. All cities having more than 4,000 inhabitants will be authorized to establish a special ten-cent. stamp delivery service, by which letters can be hastened to their destination. All these changes were recommended in the last annual report of the Postmaster-General. About the wisdom of the first two there is very little doubt. The ten-cent-stamp project is an experiment, and its wisdom is still to be tested. Provision is made for establishing this service on a separate basis from the regular delivery, and specification is made that it shall not be permitted to interfere in any way with the latter. There is no apparent reason why it should interfere. The argument that if more prompt delivery can be secured for ten cents than for two, it follows that the present system is very defective, does not bear examination. A special messenger with ten or a dozen letters can, of course, make better time than a regular delivery agent with a bagful of letters and papers.

An investigation of wage reductions is furnished by *Bradstreet's* as an appendix to its re-

cent compilation of the statistics of unemployed labor in the United States. The conclusion reached upon the latter point was, that there were at that time (December, 1884) 350,000 fewer operatives at work than were employed in 1882, a loss of 14 per cent. The tables of wage reductions embrace thirty-eight leading industries, which are included under six principal heads, viz.: food products, textiles, metals, lumber, building, and leather and minor manufactures. The rates of wages are compared with those of July, 1882. The singular result is reached that the industries protected by tariff duties are those in which the heaviest reductions in wages have been made, and that these reductions are generally in proportion to the amount of protection accorded to them. In woollen and cotton mills the reduction has been 25 to 30 per cent., while there has been no reduction in the wages of the unprotected house-builders, carpenters, stone-cutters, and brickmakers. The reduction in wages of iron-mill workers has been 15 to 22 per cent., while the pay of butchers, millers, bakers, tanners, and printers has not declined at all. Wages in the silk trade have fallen 15 to 25 per cent. Those of agricultural-implement makers remain substantially unchanged. The reductions in wages, however, are not in any case equal to the fall in prices of the articles produced, and this signifies that the loss has been mainly borne by capital in the shape of diminished profits.

The action of the Union League Club last week, reversing the policy of the Committee on Admissions, who had adopted a political test for new membership not prescribed in the charter or by-laws, carries two plain implications. One of these is, that President Cleveland's Administration has gained ground in the estimation of Republicans since it came into power. The other is, that an increasing number of Republicans are now willing to admit that the nomination of Blaine gave an exceptional character to the recent Presidential campaign, and did really, in some sort, justify Republicans in voting for Cleveland. Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, who has lost none of his habit of telling unpleasant truths, declared very distinctly his opinion that the last election was "peculiar." It was not necessary to state what the peculiarities were — everybody understood them. The only peculiarity appropriate to the discussion was, that something had occurred which made it excusable for Republicans to vote the Democratic ticket. Directly upon this hint the Club voted, by a majority of two in a total vote of 324, to overrule a decision of the chair which was adverse to the Griswold-Roosevelt resolution. The Mugwumps thereafter had it all their own way and passed the resolution, in a form modified so as to spare the feelings of the Committee on Admissions, but still sufficiently precise to abolish the test.

The movement in Harvard College against compulsory attendance at morning prayers has again failed, the petition of the remonstrants having been rejected by the Corporation. The petition asked simply that undergraduates over twenty-one years of age should be allowed to exercise their option in the matter, and that those under that age should be governed by the option of their parents. The decision is very curious when taken in connection with the yearly extension which is given to the elective system in the choice of studies. One would think that there was nothing in a young man's life on which he himself or his parents should be so competent to form an opinion as the time and place at which he should pray to Almighty God, and that there was no duty to which it was more absurd to drive him by law under defined penalties. And yet this is what the college authorities, who are steadily converting Harvard into a university in the large sense, insist on doing. The President and Fellows unluckily do not give their reasons, but the only creditable reasons must be either the belief that God is pleased with the presence in a chapel or church of unwilling, irritated, and irreverent worshippers, brought thither by the fear of temporal punishment, and does not mind the set against all religion which such a process is very apt to give young men; or the belief that a man is benefited by being present in any place in which prayers are being offered, no matter in what state of mind he may be, and no matter what agency has brought him there. But neither of these reasons is modern, or, if we may make a bull, rational.

The Crown Solicitors, who have discovered treason in Parnell's advice to treat the Prince of Wales with cold neutrality, and his visit inopportune, may be good judges of the law, but it is to be hoped that "the Castle" will not commit the egregious folly of prosecuting him. No conviction could, of course, be obtained without packing a jury, and the excitement and fury the affair would create throughout Ireland would be a very undesirable accompaniment to the Prince's tour. Mr. Gladstone's proposal that Earl Spencer should receive some signal mark of royal favor for the conspicuous ability he has displayed in the management of Irish affairs, is another illustration of the muddled condition of the mind of even the ablest Englishmen about Ireland. The theory which is preached to the Irish by English statesmen is, that Ireland is a portion of the Empire in all respects enjoying full equality of rights with England. If this were true, of course the Minister would not venture to recommend the Crown to reward an officer whose conduct in office was condemned, whether justly or unjustly, by the vast majority of the people within his jurisdiction. That it is not true, is shown by the fact that the Prime Minister does not care one cent what the bulk of the Irish people think about Earl Spencer, and, in fact, probably considers the hostility he has excited as one of his strong claims to reward. Earl Spencer is honored in virtue of what Englishmen think about him, and in spite of what Irishmen think about him, and largely, too, in virtue of that English superstition which Matthew Arnold so pleasantly ridiculed in his late article in the *Nineteenth Century*—the belief that an "English gentleman" is a governor under whom any race or tribe on earth ought to be glad to live. Even so open-minded a journal as the *Spectator* has often marvelled over the perversity of the Irish in not enjoying the rule of such a thoroughly good specimen of the English gentleman as Earl Spencer undoubtedly is.

There is really no essential change, as far as we can make out from the telegrams, in the Afghan trouble. There appears to be, as usual, a strong desire at St. Petersburg to avoid hostilities, combined with a strong belief in Central Asia that there is going to be war. Certainly both parties on the ground seem to be getting ready for it. The British are hurrying troops up to Quetta, and the Russians are reinforcing General Komaroff, and the Afghans are fortifying, probably under the advice of Sir Peter Lumsden, who is on the ground as the British member of the Boundary Commission. The talk of the Russian agents both in London and St. Petersburg appears to be very moderate. Unfortunately the dispute is one in which it is as easy as possible for both parties to be in the right, and this is always the hardest kind of dispute to settle. The Afghans have undoubtedly often exercised jurisdiction over the territory claimed by Russia, but no boundary line was ever traced because outside was the desert and the wandering Turkomans. Russia now claims all that the Turkomans wandered over, which would—not to go into particulars—carry their line not along the base, but along the crest of the mountains.

The arrest of Zebehr Pasha on suspicion of treasonable relations with the Mahdi is one of the most curious incidents of the ever-changing Egyptian drama. Zebehr Pasha was once Governor of the Sudan, and while there an active and hardened slave-trader. Gordon, who came after him, held one of his sons as a hostage, and hanged him for some breach of faith on the father's part. Subsequently Zebehr seems to have overlooked this little slight, and become good friends with Gordon, who, when he found his own pacificatory mission was a failure, advocated Zebehr's restoration to his old place —a measure which, however, the Government at home would not sanction. Zebehr is now in jail on the charge of secretly corresponding with and aiding the Mahdi, of which he is doubtless quite capable.

An article in the March *Macmillan's Magazine* on "Irresponsible Opinion" has some excellent remarks addressed to newspaper strategists in particular, and people generally who keep talking with positiveness about things which they cannot by any possibility understand even one-fiftieth part as well as those whom they criticise. The writer says:

"There is a familiar provincialism used in deprecation of such self-praise as is felt to be inevitable, 'Though I say it as shouldn't.' Might not this formula be extended to all such enforced judgments as I am contemplating? As thus, 'I am decidedly of the opinion that the attack at Tel-el-Kebir should have begun an hour earlier than it did, but seeing that I have been engaged all my life in the manufacture of small-clothes, and that although a volunteer I have never seen active service, 'I say it as shouldn't'—Sir Garnet being so much more likely to be right than I.'"

And also:

"We cannot all be expected to emulate the sobriety of that Parisian bootmaker, a hero of fable—I am afraid—who, on being asked his opinion of the respective merits of Turenne and the Grand Condé on the same stricken field, replied: 'I made the boots of both gentlemen; as far as boots go there is not a pin to choose between them; beyond that I cannot go, for it lies outside my profession.'"

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 11, to TUESDAY, March 17, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THROUGHOUT the week the office-seekers at Washington have been given little encouragement. President Cleveland's policy of going slowly in all changes is, it appears, to be rigidly enforced. Only a few nominations were sent to the Senate on Monday; among them Edward D. Clark, of Mississippi, to be Assistant Secretary of the Interior. He is a young and active lawyer and is well spoken of.

President Cleveland on Monday nominated Joseph S. Miller, of West Virginia, to be Commissioner of Internal Revenue. Senators Beck and Blackburn, of Kentucky, and Speaker Carlisle, who were urging Congressman Phil Thompson, were very much disappointed. Mr. Randall favored Miller, who is State Auditor of West Virginia.

It is believed that the President has requested Mr. Foster, Minister of Spain, to remain in office. The Administration is understood to be of opinion that modifications of the Spanish treaty can be secured which will be advantageous to the United States, and that Minister Foster, in view of his experience, can be of more service than a new Minister. Mr. Foster is making arrangements to return to Madrid within a short time.

Senator Bayard has informed the State Department clerks that they will not be removed except for inefficiency.

Eugene Higgins, of Baltimore, was on Wednesday made Appointment Clerk in the Treasury Department by Secretary Manning, in place of Constant S. Trevitt, of New York, who was recently promoted to fill the vacancy created by the resignation of Mr. Butler, and who had been in the service more than twenty years. The appointment has elicited severe criticism. Mr. Higgins is a Maryland politician, appointed on the recommendation of Senator Gorman.

Civil-service reformers from New York and Maryland, now in Washington, say they have received assurances from the President and from Assistant-Secretary Fairchild that the selection of Mr. Higgins as Appointment Clerk of the Treasury Department was a surprise to them, and that the mistake made in that appointment is not likely to be repeated.

On Friday morning Secretary Manning made a material reduction in the force of the Special Agents' Division of the Treasury Department, by which it is expected that $40,000 will annually be saved. The services of forty persons in all have been dispensed with. The list includes six special agents, twenty-six special inspectors of customs, and ten employees whose names are borne on the so-called "Fraud Roll." This action reduces the number of agents to twenty-two, the number of inspectors to twenty-five, and the fraud-roll employees to fifteen. It is stated at the Department that these changes are made solely in the interest of economy, and that no new appointments will be made to fill the vacancies created.

Commander R. D. Evans, who was removed from the Inspectorship of the Fifth Lighthouse District by ex-Secretary Chandler, has been reinstated by Secretary Whitney. Commander Silas Casey, who was appointed to succeed Evans, has been ordered to settle his accounts. The removal of Commander Evans, it is alleged by his friends, was for political reasons.

A written message from President Cleveland was sent to the Senate on Thursday for the purpose of withdrawing the Nicaragua Canal treaty and the Spanish reciprocity treaty, in order that they may be considered by the new Administration. They were returned to him on Friday.

President Cleveland on Friday issued a proclamation, warning the Oklohoma invaders that the military power will be used against them if they persist in unlawfully entering the Territory.

Some of the bad results of hasty legislation in the closing days of Congress have already been discovered. In the Naval Appropriation Bill the section which appropriated $500,000 for the armament of the new cruisers is omitted, and in the Sundry Civil Bill the item appropriating $5,500 for telegraph poles and material to aid in extending the life-saving service is omitted.

The Post-office Appropriation Bill, as passed by the recent Congress, provides for the following important changes, which will take effect on July 1: The weight of all single-rate letters is increased from one-half an ounce each or fraction thereof to one ounce each or fraction thereof. The same increase of weight is allowed for drop letters, whether mailed at stations where there is a free delivery or where carrier service is not established. All newspapers sent from the office of publication, including sample copies, or when sent from a news agency to actual subscribers thereto, or to other news agents, shall be entitled to transmission at the rate of 1 cent per pound or fraction thereof, the postage to be prepaid. This is a reduction of one-half from existing rates. A special stamp of the value of 10 cents may be issued, which, when attached to a letter, in addition to the lawful postage, shall entitle the letter to immediate delivery at any place containing 4,000 population or over, within the carrier limit of any free-delivery office, or within one mile of the post-office; and such specially stamped letters shall be delivered between 7 o'clock A. M. and midnight.

The Republicans in the Senate have seated Senator Blair, appointed by the Governor of New Hampshire, thus establishing the precedent that a Governor may appoint at the beginning of a new Senatorial term, if the State Legislature adjourns without an election. The opposition held that such a case was not a "vacancy" in the meaning of the Federal law, which was held to apply only to unexpired terms.

The Delaware Legislature on Tuesday elected Attorney-General George Gray (Dem.) to succeed Mr. Bayard in the United States Senate.

At the regular monthly meeting of the Union League Club of this city on Thursday the following resolution, offered by Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, was adopted: "That it is unadvisable for the Committee on Admissions to question the proposers of candidates for admission to the club as to how they (the candidates) voted at the last Presidential election, and said committee is hereby requested to omit any such questions in the future." This action grew out of the fact that the Committee on Admissions had recently made such requests.

General Husted reported his Supply Bill to the Assembly at Albany on Wednesday. Its total amount is $809,885 97. The amount of last year's bill was $606,421 15. The increase is due to the necessities of the prisons and penitentiaries, and to precautions to be taken to prevent a cholera epidemic. At least $100,000 of this increase Mr. Husted attributes directly to the abolition of contract labor in the prisons.

In the State Senate at Albany, on Monday, the Gibbs bill for freedom of worship in State institutions was debated in Committee of the Whole. Mr. Gibbs proposed the following amendments: First, that the religious services allowed should be only on Sundays; second, that religious ministrations be permitted only on two week days; and third, that the managers may pay for the religious services if they see fit. The debate was adjourned without any vote being reached.

The New York Assembly on Wednesday afternoon passed a resolution for final adjournment on April 23.

The Connecticut House on Friday, by a vote of 94 to 63, passed a bill allowing women to vote at school elections.

Joseph Chesterfield Mackin and William J. Gallagher, the two Democratic ballot-box stuffers at Chicago, were on Thursday sentenced to the penitentiary for two years.

The railroad strike on the Gould Southwestern system ended on Sunday through the intervention of Governor Martin and the Kansas State Railroad Commissioners. As a result of a conference it was resolved to restore the rate of wages which prevailed prior to last September, and to give the men one and a half time for all extra work. This was more than they asked for, their request being that the railroad companies restore the rates which prevailed prior to the January cut.

A partial and annular eclipse of the sun was successfully observed in many parts of the United States on Monday.

General Grant is slowly but surely failing in strength, and his physicians say that life cannot be prolonged for many weeks.

Charles W. McCune, President of the Buffalo *Courier* Company, died on Saturday, at the age of 53. He was prominent in the Democratic politics of the State, and was a friend of President Cleveland.

Mr. Charles Tracy, a prominent lawyer of this city, died on Saturday at the age of 76.

FOREIGN.

The London *Times* on Wednesday announced that the Russians had advanced further into Afghan territory, and that a collision was imminent. It also announced that the British Government had ordered Gen. Sir Peter Lumsden to organize a system of defence. London financial circles were somewhat excited over these reports. British consols fell 11-16 of 1 per cent., and Russian securities 2 per cent. in consequence of the news.

The Afghan war alarm was somewhat abated in London on Wednesday night by the statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the House of Commons that the Government was uninformed of any further advance having been made by the Russians in Afghanistan, and that he believed there was no foundation for the report. The officials of the Russian Embassy at London denied that preparations for war were making by Russia on the Afghan frontier.

On Thursday the alarm was again renewed by a British Cabinet meeting at an unusual hour. It was reported that the Cabinet decided to address a serious representation to the Russian Government, that if through any Russian advance in Afghanistan a conflict results with the Amir's troops, Russia must accept the consequences, as England is bound to guard Afghan territory. In the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, Mr. Gladstone said that England's relation with Russia had not been improved during the past few days.

The war feeling was greatly allayed when, in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon, Mr. Gladstone announced that an agreement had been arrived at between Russia and England, by the terms of which neither the Russian nor Afghan forces would advance any further on either side of the frontier. A Conservative member asked whether the Amir of Afghanistan had accepted this agreement. To this question Mr. Gladstone made no reply. Sir Stafford Northcote asked whether the agreement was a permanent or temporary arrangement. Mr. Gladstone replied that the agreement was without any specific time limit. The best description he could give, he said, was that the agreement should last as long as there was occasion for it. It provides against a rupture of friendly relations between the two Governments in the event of a collision between the Afghan and Russian outposts, which might possibly occur while instructions are being conveyed to the opposing commanders. This announcement was heard with an almost general sense of relief by the House, as it afforded a reasonable hope of peace.

The British Cabinet do not insist upon the withdrawal of the Russian troops from the

outposts during the deliberations of the Joint Commission. Sir Peter Lumsden has received certain discretionary powers touching his course in the event of a dangerous Russian advance. The Marquis of Hartington, Secretary of State for War, stated on Friday evening, in the House of Commons, that it was impossible to deny that there was still cause for great anxiety regarding the relations between Great Britain and Russia.

M. Lessar, the Russian member of the Afghan Boundary Commission, in an interview in London on Sunday, stated that Russia desired a frontier boundary line starting at the Herirud, a little south of Zulfikar, thence running east to Tchemeni-baid, on the Kushk River, thence northeast, leaving Murghabi-bala to the Afghans, to a point a few miles south of Panjdeh, and thence in a direct line northeast to Khodja-salih. Russia, he said, had never admitted that the frontier line due east from Serakhs to Khodja-salih was the correct one. He declared that Russia had no designs on Herat.

It is reported that Sir Peter Lumsden has arrived at Herat, and that the Afghans are actively fortifying the city. The Russian forces occupying Merv consist of a battalion of infantry, a regiment of dragoons, and some Cossacks. At Askabad there are about 8,000 troops of all arms. It is reported that Russia has been sounding Turkey with reference to a Russia-Turkish alliance, and that the Porte has replied that Turkey will remain neutral.

Reports were current in Calcutta on Sunday of an actual collision between the Russians and Afghans. The Russian General, Komaroff, who is in the disputed territory, has been given peremptory orders to avoid provoking the Afghans.

Mr. Gladstone explained in the House of Commons on Monday that Earl Granville had telegraphed his (Mr. Gladstone's) exact words to St. Petersburg, asking whether M. de Giers, Russian Prime Minister, endorsed as correct the statement of the agreement reached with Russia on the Afghan question. Mr. Gladstone added that it was rather an arrangement than an agreement. In the evening the Government announced that a telegram had been received from St. Petersburg fully endorsing Mr. Gladstone's statement. The Marquis of Hartington explained that the Russians occupied Khatun and Akrabat, and that the Afghans still occupy Panjdeh. The London newspapers on Tuesday commented on the arrangement with Russia as very unsatisfactory. On Tuesday afternoon Mr. Gladstone read a despatch from St. Petersburg giving M. de Giers's assurance that the Russian troops will not advance from the positions now occupied by them, provided the Afghans do not advance, or unless some extraordinary reason be given, such as disturbances in Panjdeh.

It is announced that the total number of Russian troops at present in Asiatic Russia is but 30,000, and that these are not concentrated, but scattered over a very wide area.

In the course of a dispute in the House of Commons on Thursday night, Mr. Gladstone said he wished it distinctly understood that Prince Bismarck's despatch of May 5 had never been delivered to the English Government. Mr. Gladstone declared that he would stand behind no man in the value he attached to the friendship of Germany. He must say, however, that he was not prepared to admit that the friendship of any country in the world was now or ever had been necessary to enable England to maintain her position. He thought that where Germany's colonizing operations were bona fide and consistent with the rights of all parties, England, with due regard to the claims of her own colonists, ought to meet Germany in no grudging spirit, and should refrain from discussing the occupation of this or that spot after the manner of hucksters, showing a disposition to grudge what she is unable to hold. If Germany became a colonizing Power he would only say God-speed to her. He hoped that she would become England's partner and ally in the work of civilizing the world. This was the spirit in which he viewed the matter, and, regardless of this or that despatch, Germany would have the best and heartiest wishes of the English Government, and every encouragement that it was in their power to give.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) says there will be no further polemic between Germany and England. Earl Granville's statement in Parliament was perfectly correct. The result of Count Herbert Bismarck's special mission to England relative to German interests in West Africa is reported to be as follows: England concedes to Germany the whole of the Cameroons country, with the exception of the mission town Victoria, where the Germans are alleged to have hauled down the British flag. England further agrees not to interfere with any action Germany may take in the entire country from the south bank of the Rio del Rey, a small river emptying into the Bight of Biafra, some distance north of the Cameroons, to the Gaboon, which enters the sea very near the equator. Germany, on the other hand, recognizes the supremacy of England over the country lying between the north bank of the Rio del Rey and Lagos. This covers the basin of the Lower Niger.

The London Press Association denies that Earl Granville has conceded the Cameroons territory to Germany or abandoned any of the British claims in that country.

In the German Reichstag on Friday Prince Bismarck declared that there was a good prospect of building up a thriving mining industry at Angra Pequena, and of obtaining a supply of cotton from German producers in the Cameroons and New Guinea colonies. He stated that the negotiations with England regarding the Cameroons territory were making gratifying progress. In concluding his speech Prince Bismarck said that since God's blessing had crowned the policy of Germany for twenty years, and as the Germans had withstood the foe in 1870 as a nation of brothers, a spirit of party strife and confused dissension must not now be allowed to ruin the newly founded empire. This was received with great cheering.

In the election for Member of Parliament at West Gloucestershire, England, on Wednesday, the Tories scored a victory, Mr. Ackers, their candidate, being elected by 411 majority to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Mr. Robert N. F. Kingscote, a Liberal. The Liberal majority five years ago was 876.

Mr. Parnell, in the House of Commons on Monday evening, when the Government called for the vote on the civil-service supply, arrested the vote by demanding that the Government keep their promise to introduce a bill for a triennial redistribution of the Irish constabulary, according to the pledge given the Irish members last August. The Irish leader's guarded announcement took the House by surprise. It was the first authoritative announcement that a bargain had been made by the Government with the Nationalists during the franchise and redistribution contests last summer. The Chief Secretary for Ireland, while denying such an explicit agreement, deferred to Mr. Parnell's wishes, and promised such a bill. Mr. Parnell accepted the explanation as satisfactory.

A motion to grant the family of General Gordon the income of $100,000 was adopted by the House of Commons on Thursday.

The Gordon Memorial Committee, at a meeting in London on Saturday, the Prince of Wales presiding, decided that the memorial should be a great hospital and sanitarium, to be erected at Port Saïd and be open to the people of all the nations of the earth. The Khedive has already granted a site for the proposed memorial.

Zebehr Pasha, whom General Gordon trusted and wished to make Governor of the Sudan, has been arrested at Alexandria under charge of combining against the Khedive. Many documents were found at his residence proving that he is in secret league with El Mahdi. Zebehr's two sons and three other persons were arrested on Sunday at Cairo, and numerous papers were seized at their residences. Nubar Pasha, the Egyptian Prime Minister, refuses to believe in the guilt of either Zebehr or his sons. Zebehr and his two sons were taken to Malta on Monday, on a British despatch boat.

Osman Digna is concentrating a large force at Tamanieb to oppose the advance of General Graham toward Berber. Thousands of well-armed Arabs are gathering to assist Osman Digna. His forces repeatedly attack the British outposts.

It is said that Ollivier Pain, the French Communist and journalist with El Mahdi, has become frightened at the threats of British vengeance for the part he played in the betrayal of Gordon, has escaped from Khartum, and is drifting down the Nile. General Wolseley has offered $250 for Pain's body, dead or alive.

A sensation was caused in Paris on Thursday, in dynamite circles, by the arrest of the Fenians James Stephens, Eugene Davis, John Morrissey, and Mortimer Leroy. Other arrests were made on Friday, and on that day Stephens, Leroy, Davis, and two Anarchists were expelled from France into Belgium.

Admiral Lespès telegraphed on Thursday from Kelung, under date of March 8, that Colonel Duchesne, at the head of 1,300 French troops, began on March 4 an attack on the Chinese who were stationed along the hilly country bordering on the road to Tamsui. He succeeded in driving the Chinese from all these positions and cleared them from the line of the road, inflicting upon them heavy losses, and capturing from them many rifles and flags. The conduct of the French soldiers during this series of difficult engagements is described as admirable.

The Chinese Embassy in London deny that the French troops have occupied the heights of Kelung, as claimed in Paris. The members of the Embassy say that the French, after fighting several days and losing 500 men, succeeded in occupying two positions commanding the road across the island between Kelung and Tamsui, but that the Chinese still hold all the other forts.

War was formally declared on Wednesday by President Barrios, of Guatemala, who desires to unite the five Central American States into a confederacy. On the 5th of March President Barrios declared in the Assembly of that country that Central America should constitute one republic, and at the same time he made public announcement that he would assume the command of all the military forces of the various States. The declaration was accepted by Honduras, but was rejected by San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica. The forces of Guatemala began immediately to March against San Salvador. The people of the latter republic rose as one man to resist the invasion, and on Thursday Guatemala ceased hostilities. President Zaldivar, of San Salvador, appealed to President Diaz, of Mexico, and the latter telegraphed to Barrios as follows: "Your telegram of the 7th instant announcing your determination to declare Central America one republic, and to assume yourself the command of all the forces thereof, has been received. This declaration has been made by your Assembly only, and has been rejected energetically by your sister republics. These circumstances have created such antipathy to your course among Mexican citizens that my Government will be obliged to take immediate action to prevent the execution of your threat against the sister nationalities of this continent." Nicaragua and Costa Rica are preparing to resist Barrios, but it is believed the action of Mexico has prevented any further aggressions by him.

General Fernandez, President of Costa Rica, died suddenly on Friday.

MEMORANDA.

THE *Sun*, in its new rôle of adviser to President Cleveland, points out to him the danger that if he does such things as retain Mr. Pearson in the Post-office, he will please the Independents, while if he does such things as remove him, or rather not reappoint him in order to make way for a good Democrat, he will please the Democrats. In the former case, it is clear, says the *Sun*, "that he can hardly avoid a breach with the Democrats"; and "it is possible that such a breach would be fatal to him and his Administration," inasmuch as he would probably lose his influence with the House of Representatives, and would cause the loss of this State next fall.

To all this we have a ready answer. If it had not been expected by a considerable body of both Democrats and Independents that Mr. Cleveland would do just such things as keep Mr. Pearson in office, he could not have been elected President of the United States last fall. If he fails to do such things now, not only will it be fatal to his Administration, but this will be the last Democratic Administration this country will see for twenty years more. One great reason, we might almost say the greatest, why the Democrats have been excluded from power during the last twenty years, has been the fear of those who hold the balance of power between the two parties, that a Democratic President would do just what the rag-tag and bobtail of the party are now urging President Cleveland to do—that is, deliver over the public service to be the prey of needy adventurers from all parts of the country, who have not succeeded in getting a livelihood out of any calling in which a man has to be fit for his work. It is because the Democrats were able to nominate a man whose conduct in office gave promise of better things, that they have succeeded in getting hold of the Administration. It is for them to say now whether they will have a grand four years' debauch with the offices, and then go out once more into the cold for a whole generation, or carry out the reform which the best men of both parties demand, and to which the Republicans were found unequal, and stay in power indefinitely. If "pleasing the Democrats" means dividing the spoils in the old fashion, it means also the speedy loss of everything to divide. There must be no mistake about this. Any sign of returning to the old ways will bring defeat both in this State next fall and in the Union four years hence. The Republicans will never again nominate a charlatan and jobber, and if they put up an honest and able man, on a civil-service platform, against the candidate of a party fresh from a practical and striking exhibition of its faithlessness and imbecility, we know, and everybody knows, what the result will be. We know where the Independent vote will go; and happily, where this vote goes, as parties are now divided, victory goes also.

At the same time, we have no objection to offer to President Cleveland's plan of filling vacancies, properly made, preferably with Democrats until the public service is divided between the two parties with some degree of fairness. Some such process as this is necessary to redress the monstrous injustice worked by the spoils system during the past twenty-five years, in regularly excluding from office all who did not belong to the party in power. Nothing like it has ever been seen under a free government, and as long as it exists it is a flagrant abuse, but not one to be remedied at the cost of damage or interruption to the public business.

But we have no fear that the Administration will make any such mistake as "to please the Democrats," in the manner described by the *Sun*. President Cleveland knows very well the situation in which the election placed both him and his party. We do not expect a perfect Administration from him by any means, or an entire absence of mistakes or aberrations; but we do expect that his mistakes and aberrations shall not be conspicuous and deliberate, like President Arthur's dismissal of Colonel Burt, and that his sympathy with the reform of the civil service shall not find expression only in declarations on paper. Moreover, we do not believe that it would "please the Democrats," meaning by this phrase the better and more influential portion of the party, to go back to the old spoils system. We believe that the more thoughtful and intelligent members of the Democratic party, and above all its young men, are, like the same class in the Republican party, thoroughly convinced that this Government has reached a stage in which the conduct of public business by officers appointed after each election as rewards for electioneering activity is as antiquated and absurd as the extinction of fires in great cities by hand-engines and volunteer fire companies would be. There is something preposterous in trying to handle the revenues and execute the laws of a nation of 50,000,000 by such machinery. It is doomed, if not dead, and woe be to the party which deliberately refuses to be the instrument of the change. The Democratic party, which really had from the beginning a firmer grasp of American polity than any other that has arisen in the country, lost its footing in 1860, through failure to see that the country had outgrown the institution of slavery. It has now another chance of heading a forward movement by discarding the spoils system. It may use it or it may not. It may try to rule through office-jobbing or rule through ideas, but nothing is more certain than that the office-jobbing will only last four years. The displeasure of the Democrats at getting nothing now for their votes but the good of their country may be great, but it will be nothing to their displeasure should they be kicked out of everything in 1888.

COLONEL JACQUES AND THE TOWNELEY ESTATE.

ON Friday an amusing despatch to the New York *Times* gave an account of a vast English inheritance, called "the Towneley estate," awarded to American heirs by the Court of Queen's Bench, but showed that the judgment of this tribunal did not transfer the property, for it appeared that the American agent, "Colonel Jacques," who was engaged in prosecuting the claim, had subsequently to bribe "two members of the House of Lords," to procure the passage of an act of Parliament directing the payment of the amounts due into the United States Treasury. The same story, we now observe, has been sent to various other newspapers, and it would seem as if "Colonel Jacques," if there be such a person, is engaged in a scheme of some kind which merits the attention of the police, and against which all credulous American heirs ought to be put on their guard. The tale appears, as a special despatch, in the following shape in the Boston *Advertiser* of the 11th and 13th inst.:

BUFFALO, N. Y., March 10.—The wife of Deacon Sidney S. Brown, of Gowanda, has brought him good fortune, as she has been acknowledged by the court of Queen's Bench as the heiress to the Lawrence-Towneley estate in England, valued at $100,000,000, her part being $40,000,000. Lord Towneley, before the opening of the present century, was the parent of a wilful daughter Mary, who was disowned for engaging herself to John Lawrence, a man of good family, but poor. They came to America, and were married by a Springfield (Mass.) clergyman. Lord Towneley died, and his family was extinct, save the daughter, and for half a century the property was held by law. Colonel James Jacques, at the close of the war, went to Springfield, and there discovered the record of the Towneley-Lawrence marriage. Knowing of the estate in England, he traced the heirs to Gowanda, and there found Mrs. Brown, who was a daughter of Judge Wilder. Colonel Jacques was sent to England, where he obtained a decision that his claim was valid; and last week, by giving two members of the House of Lords an interest, they procured a transfer of the proceeds of the estate to the United States Treasury. Colonel Jacques claims that the money will be transferred within a month or two. He gets one-third for his trouble.

SYRACUSE, N. Y., March 12.—Mrs. Augusta J. Pratt, of this city, widow of the late ex-Attorney-General and Judge Daniel Pratt, has been found to be an undoubted heiress to the Towneley English estate, valued at $100,000,000, which is also claimed by Mrs. S. S. Brown, of Bagdad, N. Y. Mary Towneley, to whom the estate was left, was Mrs. Pratt's great-grandmother. Mrs. Pratt has heirlooms in silver and pictures, together with documents proving her claim. The other heirs are Mrs. E. Baxter of Oswego, Mrs. Douglass Benson of Erie, Penn., Mrs. Charles Metcalf of Cleveland, Philip and Lawrence Malcolm of Australia, Henry, Evaline, and Mary Dezang of Geneva, Mrs. Clarence Seward of New York, Alice and Eliza Morton of Carthage, Lawrence Dezang's heirs, Mrs. Emma Colton of Brooklyn, and Anna and Charles McCully of Brunswick, Me. Clarence Seward, son of the late Hon. William H. Seward of Auburn, but now of New York, has all the proofs of heirship, and is prosecuting the claim.

Before dealing with this special case, a word or two on the general topic may be seasonable. In the fourth volume of the *Galaxy*, for 1868, an article on "Fortune Hunting" was published, giving some particulars of numerous ridiculous schemes to obtain fortunes left in England by emigrants hither. The examples cited were those in which the dupes had been formed into associations, had collected money and employed agents to go to England, and had issued printed reports. These were the claims of the Houghtons, Gladdings, Willoughbys, Gibsons, Holts, Browns, Churches, etc., in most of which one or two Vermonters appeared as the moving spirits. The great Lawrence-Towneley claim escaped notice, as it was set forth in a formal genealogy, and had probably kept aloof from any greater notoriety. That it is the same old humbug now resurrected can be easily demonstrated.

In July, 1872, the Buffalo *Express* printed a long article, setting forth that one Jasiel Lawrence was a claimant of this Towneley estate of $500,000,000, and that he had been selling bonds thereon at a very low rate to obtain funds to prosecute the claim. One Corydon Karr had joined forces with him, but a quarrel had arisen as to the accounts, and the fight was transferred to the columns of the

Express. How the quarrel was settled is not recorded, but Mr. Karr did one good thing, in publishing a letter dated in London, June 16, 1872, from the well-known genealogist, H. G. Somerby, stating the plain fact that the Towneley estate in England was in the possession of the legitimate and lawful heirs.

The claim set forth in most absurd language in the genealogy of the Lawrence family (New York, 1858), pp. 120, 124, was (1) that William Towneley, of Towneley, married a Standish, granddaughter of the sixth Duke of Norfolk; (2) that his daughter Mary Towneley married Joseph Lawrence, of New York, son of the emigrant, Thomas Lawrence; (3) that she was the heiress of her father's estate.

A reference to the Lawrence pedigree, in the New York *Genealogical Record*, for July, 1871, brought out a statement in the volume for January, 1872, that the first point above was partly correct, and the third entirely wrong. That is, the marriage of William Towneley, of Towneley, Lancashire, with Cecilia Standish was a fact, but this William was born in 1714 and died in 1741, when his sons Charles and Edward successively enjoyed the estates. At the death of Edward, Towneley reverted to his uncle John, whose grandson is now the owner. All of these facts are accessible in Burke, the family being a distinguished one, and flourishing in the male line.

But the second point was worse, for at that time, 1872, no one had seen any record of the marriage of Joseph Lawrence. His wife was named Mary, but her family name was assumed to be Towneley only in family tradition.

The Lawrence pedigree in general received rather hard usage, and this led to a rejoinder by a gentleman, Mr. W. E. Lawrence, in support of the claims both to a lofty paternal pedigree and to a Towneley descent. The matter was noticed by English students, and in the eighth volume of the *Herald and Genealogist* (London, 1874), Mr. John Gough Nichols published many notes on the Lawrences in general, and (on pp. 177–182) on this Towneley claim in particular. Mr. Nichols pointed out the errors made by Mr. W. E. Lawrence, speaking with authority on English pedigrees. The main prop and support of the alleged Towneley marriage was the fact that Joseph's son Richard had a son born in 1734, named Effingham, and a grandson Effingham, the latter being the father of the W. E. L., who wrote on that side. It was strongly claimed that Lord Francis Howard, Baron Effingham, Governor of Virginia, married Dorothea Towneley, who was sister of the Mary Towneley who married Joseph Lawrence, and *hence* the family name of Effingham Lawrence. But Mr. Nichols pointed out that no Earl of Effingham married a Towneley, but that the lady married a namesake only; "the bridegroom being not a Howard of Effingham, but a Howard of Corby—branches of the great family, we need scarcely tell even our American friends, far separated from each other."

It is beyond dispute that there is no support given to the Lawrence-Towneley marriage by any Effingham marriage. But there is a very good reason for the family name of Effingham, shown in a very different manner. Elizabeth, widow of William Lawrence, the emigrant, married secondly Sir Philip Carterett, Governor of New Jersey, and on his death in 1682, thirdly, Colonel Richard Towneley, of that colony. This last-named gentleman was from another branch of the Towneleys, came over to Virginia in the suite of the Earl of Effingham, and named a son Effingham Towneley, in honor, no doubt, of his patron. As Joseph Lawrence had a step-brother, or possibly a half-brother, Effingham Towneley, it is quite natural that some of the next generation adopted the name for a Lawrence child—in honor of a grand-uncle or cousin. But these Towneleys are not of very near kin to the Towneleys of Towneley, and the ridiculous schemers who are after a fortune, are misled entirely by the similarity of names.

Thus far we have written in order to show the true history of the Lawrence and Towneley families, and to suggest the genealogical problem only, which is entitled to fair examination, and which may rightly interest all of the descendants. It has always seemed possible that Colonel Richard Towneley, of New Jersey, may have been married twice, and if so it would be very possible for Joseph Lawrence to have had a step-sister, Mary Towneley, and to have married her. Such marriages were of frequent occurrence in our early history, where a widow rarely remained unwed, and when second and even third marriages brought together broods of young people unallied in blood, under one roof. But this is pure speculation, and if verified, it would lead to no fortune.

In the ridiculous matter now again thrust before the public, it must be remembered that every claim heretofore made for the Lawrence fortune is absurdly wrong. The Towneleys in England are the male representatives of the family, possessing estates handed down for centuries. Every attempt to connect any Lawrence with them has proved to be the result of crass ignorance, exposed at the first reference to any "Peerage" or "Gentry." It will be noticed that the new story now takes a John Lawrence as the happy founder of the greatly to be enriched family. Why this change is madeis a mystery, and must lead to unpleasant disputes with Joseph's descendants who have so earnestly beaten the bush. It suggests, indeed, a perpetual hankering of male Lawrences for female Towneleys, coincidences but not identities, and, if substantiated, will lead to a new comedy of errors. The services of Colonel Jacques should be secured by the *Century*, or such of its rivals as desire an enormous circulation. A man who, "at the close of the war," can casually stroll into a minor city in New England, and pick up the record which generations of Lawrences have vainly sought, is a man beyond price. The unrivalled sagacity with which he located the right great-granddaughter in the secluded site of Gowanda, is only to be surpassed by his audacity and decision in giving *two* members of the House of Lords an interest in the estate. One Lord might have been a fraud, but *two*, say one to move and the other to second the motion, give the necessary regularity to the "transfer of the estate to the United States Treasury." More than two would be a wrong on the estate; for Colonel Jacques taking one-third and the Lords say a twelfth each, only one-half remains for the heirs. However, as the French spoliation claims are a proof of the Treasury's methods, it does not matter so much what sum was transferred to the Treasury as how to get it out. We greatly fear that by some error Mrs. Brown's claim as sole heiress, though "acknowledged by the Court of Queen's Bench," will be litigated here. The postscript shows fifteen other heirs, and it may be feared that "Daniel Pratt, the great American traveller," is yet unrecognized in the list.

THE RUMORS OF WAR.

THE news from England continues to be warlike, in spite of the denials of the Government of knowledge of any forward movements on the part of the Russians on the Afghan frontier. The ground taken by the Russian press that the affair is one between the Czar and the Amir, with which England has really nothing to do, and that it is her own and the Afghan frontier, and not that of British India, which Russia is seeking to define, is so evasive that it probably means mischief. The state of the London market as regards both British and Russian funds indicates clearly enough the opinion of the British public that war is imminent. We may indeed expect at any moment to hear of a collision between the Afghan and Russian outposts, for the Afghans are both excitable and ill disciplined, and will probably not bear very long the close pressing to which General Komaroff is subjecting them.

Moreover, the Anglo-Indian Government has long been prepared for this crisis. There has been no difference of opinion for twenty years among men of all parties in England as to the consequences of a Russian occupation of Merv, or as to the necessity of being prepared for them. What has divided the Liberals and Conservatives is the proper mode under these circumstances of treating Afghanistan. It may be said in general terms that, from the disasters of 1841 down to 1874, it had been the settled policy of the Anglo-Indian Government not to meddle in Afghanistan, and to keep on friendly terms with the Amir, whoever he might be, by subsidies and other good offices, and flattery. When Lord Beaconsfield came into power in the latter year, he determined on a bolder and more aggressive line, and Lord Lytton was directed to insist on the presence of an English resident at Kabul, to supervise the Afghan Government, and especially to guard against the growth of Russian influence at the Afghan Court. This was promptly resented as an attempt to reduce Afghanistan to the level of the dependent native princes of India, and we know with what results. Cavagnari, the resident thus forced on the Afghans, was murdered, and there was another bloody war, filling the Afghan population with hatred of the English name, and ending in the downfall of the Beaconsfield Ministry and a complete reversal of their policy.

As soon as Lord Ripon reached India, all attempts to meddle in Afghan affairs were relinquished, and the Amir was subsidized and assured of British friendship. The result has been a considerable restoration of British influence, and the work of concilia-

tion has, of course, been much aided by the presence of Russian troops on the northern frontier. The Afghans in their own country are by no means a contemptible enemy. Backed by a large disciplined force from India, it may safely be said that it will be impossible for Russia to make any impression upon them with any force she can muster on the frontier. The Afghans have probably no affection for the English any more than for the Russians; but a foreign master they will not endure. The English, too, are fortunate in having in India a tried and experienced commander in the person of Sir Frederick Roberts, who conducted the operations in Afghanistan in 1878-9.

The question which probably most influences business men in Europe, however, is, after all, not so much how the fighting will go in India, but how far the war will extend. It is not likely that either Power will make any attempt to confine it to the East. In Europe the belligerents will not come in contact by land. England will probably promptly blockade the Russian ports in the Baltic, and prevent the Russian warships making their way out of the Black Sea in spite of the Turks. There are, indeed, only two ways in which Russia could assail England in the west. One, the despatch of swift cruisers to prey on English commerce, would probably be short-lived, owing to the want of harbors or coaling stations in which the cruisers could refit or take refuge; the other is a fresh attack on Turkish territory in Asia Minor, which the Turks could hardly meet, and against which England has solemnly guaranteed them by treaty in return for Cyprus.

In fact, it is on this side that the prospect of war looks most serious. Should Russia attempt further aggressions on Turkey in Asia, it would almost certainly indicate an understanding of some sort with Germany, and would probably end in the long-threatened advance of Austria to Salonica, the lopping off of Macedonia from the Turkish dominions, and the shutting up of the Sultan in Constantinople, much as Palæologus was shut up by the Sultan's ancestors before the fatal blow was delivered which extinguished the Empire of the East. In any event, the Russians are playing for very high stakes. The Government at home is ill able to bear any reverse in the field, and a humiliating peace under the present Czar might lead to internal commotions which would shake the state to its centre.

TAXING SPECULATION IN GERMANY.

The evils of speculation in goods and stocks, for the suppression of which the statesmen of this country have deigned from time to time to make proposals of a more or less drastic character, are now being discussed in the German Reichstag, where a bill is pending for the taxation of the objectionable transactions. Speculation, and particularly speculation in stocks, and still more particularly speculation in stocks by Jews, has been one of the bugbears in Germany for some time. The reigning school of economists have pointed to it as the great instance of the bad effects of letting trade and industry alone. The Government, in openly adopting the principle of State interference as the cure of economic evils, or, to use the current phrase, in adopting the "socio-political" policy, promised to do something to check the evils of speculation. Accordingly they have introduced this bill, which provides for the taxation of what are supposed to be speculative transactions. The tax is to be levied on all sales of stocks or of goods, with certain exceptions, the exceptions including what are supposed to be non-speculative sales. Thus, wherever the articles are not to be resold by the buyer, or are to be used by him as raw material, or have been actually produced by the seller, or are to be actually delivered by the seller to the buyer—in all such cases the law does not apply. Sales outside these exceptions are considered speculative, and are to be taxed at the rate of one mark for every 5,000 marks worth of goods or stocks sold, or 1-50 of 1 per cent. The machinery for collection is to be provided by requiring every merchant and every broker to keep a memorandum-book, in which he shall enter every sale subject to the tax. At the end of each month this book is to be handed in to the authorities, and the amount indicated by it to be due to the Government is to be paid. Where persons who are not dealers or brokers, and do not habitually buy and sell, enter into a taxable transaction, they are to give the authorities special notice of the transaction within a fortnight, and pay their tax accordingly.

It is obvious at first sight that it is useless to expect the honest payment or effective collection of a tax by any process of this kind. Every tax of which the amount is determined by the uncontrolled declaration of the taxable party is objectionable because it puts a premium on fraud and perjury. It taxes the honest and enables the dishonest to escape in whole or in part. Where the taxable object cannot be concealed, as in the case of real property, such a system can be made to work; but it leads to glaring abuses in the degree in which concealment is possible. We have had abundant evidence of this in our experience in taxing personal property. England has had a similar experience in her income tax, and the Prussian income tax stumbles against the same difficulties. That a tax scheme like the proposed German law would give rise to a mass of deceit and false swearing is too clear to need proof. No check or supervision of the tax-books of the parties is possible, and each one would pay as much or as little of the tax as his honesty, public spirit, or fear of punishment directed. The fines for omission to enter sale or for false entries are, as experience shows, quite ineffective to enforce self-taxation. In comparison with these difficulties, the detailed inquisition into every man's business affairs which such a scheme would bring about becomes unimportant; although this in itself is a grave, if not a conclusive, objection. Nevertheless, the indications are that the Government bill will eventually become a law, though very likely with amendments that may remove the more obvious difficulties of the original draft. Prince Bismarck has taken hold of the "socio-political" ideas, and is carrying them through with characteristic energy and pertinacity; and we may expect soon to see some form of tax on speculation added to the protective tariff, the laborers' insurance law, and the other restrictive measures now in vogue among the Germans.

The idea underlying this scheme of taxation is confessedly that in speculative transactions you have an objectionable thing, which you cannot entirely suppress, or do not want to suppress, but which, being objectionable, you may as well subject to tribute. The same idea underlies Government lotteries, which still exist in some countries of Europe, and are used to enable the Government to get revenue from the gaming propensities of its subjects. Essentially the same principle is at the bottom of the taxation of intoxicating liquors, which is universal in civilized countries. But in regard to speculation, it is by no means clear that you have in fact such an objectionable object for your tax. The precise economic effect of what are called speculative transactions is anything but clear. The line between legitimate mercantile business, which is admitted to perform as useful an economic function as digging potatoes or carrying freight, and speculative dealings, which are to be looked on as pure gambling, and as an unproductive employment of brains and labor, is exceedingly difficult to draw. Every branch of trade includes elements of risk and uncertainty, and in so far partakes of the nature of speculation. On the other hand, a multitude of transactions, such as those in grain and provisions, which are commonly considered purely speculative, effect something beneficial to the community at large. They help to accommodate supply to demand, and to prevent excessive fluctuations and inequalities of prices.

Mr. J. S. Mill, in his 'Political Economy,' went so far as to say that speculation could not possibly be harmful to the community; for, in so far as it failed to effect a correct adjustment of demand and supply, it inevitably resulted in a loss merely to the speculators themselves, but not to any one else. Whether this proposition is or is not true without qualification, it undoubtedly points to an important truth — that there is a normal and useful function performed by a multitude of so-called speculative dealings, and that these are no more objectionable, and no more deserving of being specially singled out for punishment by tax, than a hundred other kinds of industrial activity. Doubtless there is, on the other hand, much speculation which is exactly like playing at cards or at dice, and which the Government need not hesitate to suppress or tax, if it can. But the question remains whether it can; whether there is any way of distinguishing that which serves to effect a useful object from that which is entirely useless; and whether we are not reduced, as in the case of so many industrial phenomena of our time, to taking the evil as the inevitable accompaniment of the good. As a matter of principle, it is almost impossible to distinguish between "legitimate" trading and pure gambling in the guise of corners and futures. To get some external indication of the distinction, such as is necessary for fastening a tax on the gambling transaction, is quite impossible. The present German plan certainly fails to find any such external indication, and would tax much that was economically good, as well as, perhaps, something that was useless and bad.

THE VOTE OF CENSURE AND ITS RESULTS.

LONDON, March 3, 1885.

THE fortunes of Mr. Gladstone's Government during the last three years may be compared to those of a steamer making a December passage across the Atlantic. A succession of gales have caught the ship, now from one quarter, now from another—gales which it needed fine seamanship to ride out—and one has scarcely passed off before another more violent has risen. The latest has been the most severe. It has so knocked the ship about that many observers doubt whether the next squall will not send her to the bottom; and of more squalls there is every prospect. Our position is, indeed, as your readers must have already observed, an anxious one, replete with difficulties at home as well as abroad.

The debate which closed on February 27th, after having occupied four nights, was not marked by any brilliant rhetorical displays in either house, if we except Lord Salisbury's unusually telling speech in the Lords. Mr. Gladstone, who spoke first for the Government, was, or seemed, wearied and depressed, unable to breathe much heartiness into his followers. Lord Hartington, who wound up the Ministerial defence, had the air of a man only half believing in his cause, and spoke with a constraint which told upon his audience. The chief interest of the discussion consisted in the efforts which the Government made to conciliate the two mutually hostile sections of their own party. About one-third of the Liberals, consisting of what may be called the Radical wing, disapproves of any further prosecution of the war in Sudan, condemns the projected movement on Khartum, condemns the making of a railway from Suakim to Berber, and wishes the British troops to be forthwith withdrawn to the sea or the frontiers of Egypt proper. Another third, the so-called Whig section, desires not only the overthrow of the Mahdi, but the establishment of some stable government at Khartum. The other third, standing between these two extremes, is willing to be guided by events, and to let the Government carry out its scheme for an advance to be followed by a retreat. But as this section contented itself by giving a silent vote, and saying little or nothing in support of the Cabinet, the strange spectacle was witnessed of a Ministry left alone to defend its policy, the bulk of its own supporters distrusting it, and the final vote going in its favor only because the two extreme sections balanced one another, while all hated or feared the Tory Opposition more than they condemned their own leaders.

Two conspicuous members of the Liberal party were, however, found to overcome this sentiment. Mr. Goschen and Mr. Forster voted with Sir S. Northcote against the Government—not, of course, with any intention of allying themselves with the Tories, but by way of condemning the past mismanagement of the Cabinet, and of protesting against the meagre and unsatisfactory declarations of its policy which, as they thought, the Cabinet now made. Such a defection would generally bring much censure on those who committed it; but the circumstances are so exceptional that the Liberals in Parliament have not experienced much displeasure, although many of the provincial newspapers are indignant, and Mr. Forster's constituents at Bradford threaten to withdraw their support from him.

Even more significant than that revolt, or the indulgence extended to it, has been the apathy of the Ministerial party generally. One can hardly believe that it is the same party which, less than five years ago, came to Westminster full of triumph and hopefulness, burning with enthusiasm for Mr. Gladstone, and prepared to carry that long string of Liberal measures which he had put up before the country—the party which used to give him majorities exceeding 100, and so late as last November supported his Franchise Bill against the House of Lords by a majority of 140. The causes of the change are not wholly to be sought in the recent blunders of the Government in its foreign and colonial policy, in the regret at Gordon's death, in the anxiety now felt with regard to the Sudan campaign. They are also due to the condition of domestic politics. A Liberal government must in England maintain itself by a positive programme, by holding before the people measures of reform which excite their interest and dispose them to make efforts on its behalf. Without such prizes glittering before them, popular enthusiasm languishes. At present the Ministry have none such to offer. They are pledged to large measures, such as the creation of a new system of local government in the counties and in London; but these measures, profoundly important as they are, do not fascinate the popular mind. It was fixed on the extension of the franchise, and, having secured that bill, feels as if the chief work of the Ministry was done. The abolition of the House of Lords would stimulate it afresh, but the Ministry decline to commit themselves upon that subject, while the hopes held out by Mr. Chamberlain of legislation in favor of the poor by throwing more of the weight of taxation on the rich, and by establishing peasant proprietors over England, are merely his individual proposals, and, in attracting the more extreme Radicals, have alarmed the less advanced sections of the party. It may be thought that personal loyalty and gratitude to Mr. Gladstone ought to come in to fill up the void left by striking out of the Liberal platform the now accomplished extension of the suffrage, and all but accomplished redistribution of seats. This loyalty is still strong, and would display itself fervently in a general election, or if Mr. Gladstone's retirement into private life were to be announced, as any day it may be. But it is no longer an aggressive feeling. Mr. Gladstone's sun is just touching the western horizon, and everybody feels that he will take up no fresh question, that no more Parliamentary battles can be won under his standard. It is with regretful sympathy that he is now thought of; and the change of sentiment is perhaps best evidenced by the language of the Tories, who have mostly desisted from their old virulence.

Something must also be set down to the near approach of a general election. Possibly in July or October, certainly not later than January next, a new Parliament will be chosen by new electors in new constituencies. No one can guess what this Parliament will be like, and it seems idle for the present expiring body to busy itself with measures which its successor may repeal, or may, perhaps, go far beyond. The centre of interest has been transferred from the House of Commons to the constituencies. Those members who hope to be returned at the next election are occupied in cultivating their constituencies, whose limits are in most cases altered by the redistribution scheme. Those who mean to retire from Parliament have ceased to care for its proceedings. Thus the House of Commons has become flaccid and lifeless; it now seeks only to dispose of necessary business and make way for its successor.

Among the Ministerial majority of fourteen in the recent division, and, indeed, among Ministers themselves, there were some who wished for defeat, holding that the best thing for the Liberal party would be to go out of office, leaving the difficulties of the situation to be faced by the Tories, and letting the latter have some months of power before the general election in which to efface, by blunders of their own, the recollection of Ministerial faults. So patent were the advantages of this course that the Tories themselves seemed to shrink from victory, and were apparently relieved when they found that they had seriously damaged the Government, yet remained free from the responsibilities of taking their places. They have now abundant materials for denouncing the Government at every election platform, whereas, had they turned Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet out, it would seem to have been already punished, while their policy would, in its turn, have become the target for invective. If they are well advised, they will adhere to this prudent course till the end of the session. But they may not be able to do so. A Government which has once lost its hold on opinion is in hourly danger. Votes have to be taken for the expenses of the new expedition to Suakim and the construction of the railway—votes which the Radicals may find it hard to support. Their sudden defection might leave the Ministers in a minority, were the Tories to deliver an attack upon such an issue.

The moment is an inopportune one for changing the Executive, for our affairs are in a critical, if not a dangerous, condition in more places than the Sudan. The proximity of the Russian and Afghan troops north of Herat, where our Commissioner has gone to settle the disputed boundaries in conjunction with a Russian officer, who has not yet appeared, might bring on at any moment a conflict in which we, as protectors of the Afghans, might become involved. At the other end of our Asiatic domains France is suspected of intriguing with the King of Burmah against us, and the disorders of Independent Burmah have reached a point at which British intervention would be sure to occur, were not our hands already full elsewhere. How unsatisfactory our relations with Germany are, all the world knows, for Bismarck's speeches, as well as our and his Blue Books, are disclosing a series of controversies between the Governments which may further embitter the feelings of both peoples. There is, of course, nothing approaching a *casus belli*, nor any reason to think that Germany any more than England desires a breach; but in view of the difficulties which Egypt presents, the alienation of Germany is a material feature of the situation. The moment is eminently one in which a strong Government, able to inspire the country with confidence in its strength, is called for, but, unluckily, that is the last thing we are likely to get, for a Tory Ministry, if it came in, could not command, and would not on a general election obtain, a majority, but would probably be even weaker than Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet has now become.

Y.

A PIEDMONTESE FAMILY.

PARIS, February 26, 1885.

THE Marquis d'Azeglio, who was for many years Italian Minister in London, published not long ago the letters which he received from his mother between 1835 and 1861, with some from his father. These letters are, so to speak, the journal of the memorable years during which Italian unity was prepared and nearly achieved. The mother of the present Marquis was Constance Alfieri. She was the eldest daughter of Emmanuele Alfieri di Sostegno, and the sister of Cesare Alfieri. She was born in 1793, and married in 1815 Azeglio, who was then a cavalry officer, and who was aide-de-camp to Prince Carignano in 1821. When the movement of 1821, which was the first explosion of the Italian opposition to Austria, began, Prince Carignano, who afterward became Charles Albert, was obliged to leave Piedmont, as were some of his friends, La Cisterna, Collegno, Lisio. Azeglio was

summoned to leave Turin, and remained a little while in France, where his father was Ambassador. "My parents," says Azeglio, "could not have been better situated for information. They lived habitually, after their return to Piedmont, with the most influential persons, such as Massimo d'Azeglio, Cesare Alfieri, Lisio, Cesare Balbo; afterward with Alfonso di Lamarmora, Camillo Cavour, Villamarina, Giacinto Collegno, all more or less related to us; and finally, with such men as Sclopis, Santa Rosa, Provana, Menabrea, Cibrario, Franzini, who took such an active part in the political life of Piedmont."

Piedmont was the cradle of liberty of Italy. It had a national dynasty; an old nobility, accustomed to arms; a strong and brave people. "Il forte Piemonte" is the epithet still used for this little province, which kept the keys of the Alps. The Piedmontese mothers played a great part in the Liberal movement; they prepared their children by a manly education for a life of devotion and of sacrifice. Massimo d'Azeglio has told in his 'Ricordi' the story of the captivity of Cesare d'Azeglio in France. The Marquis Alfieri, maternal great-uncle of Emmanuel d'Azeglio, was taken as hostage to Dijon by the French armies, during the Revolution. His beautiful wife, Charlotte Duchi, lost her brother and her brother-in-law, Joseph Alfieri, in a battle fought against the French near Nice. Every family in Turin could tell the same story. The military traditions of the Piedmontese nobility were the seed of Italian liberty and unity. While all the courts of Parma, Modena, Florence, Naples were ever mere centres of pleasure, of dissipation, of artistic refinement, the little court of Turin, under the veil of a stern etiquette, the most severe perhaps that could be found in all Europe, preserved the ambitions and the aspirations of Italian patriotism.

In 1842 Azeglio was at the Hague. His mother kept him informed of all the little news of Turin: "The King has signed an *indulto* for the last of the men of '21 [the persons who had taken part in the movement of 1821], so that all is now ended on this point. Everybody was asking for this measure. . . . The King seemed very well satisfied and appeared younger." Among the persons who were amnestied was Count Lisio, and she writes: "Lisio was received on Thursday last by His Majesty most graciously, and four times kissed." When the news of the death of the Duc d'Orléans reached Turin, "Our Queen Maria Christina was so affected by it that she fainted. She said that of all the children of her sister those whom she loved most was this Duke, whose birth she had witnessed, and Princess Mary [who was afterward married to a Bavarian prince]. You see that there are still chords which vibrate in the heart of our poor Queen, though she is morally and physically a wreck."

In a visit made to Milan, whither she had gone to see her brother-in-law Massimo (who was living with his second wife on the Lake of Como), Constance d'Azeglio met Confalonieri: "I have had the pleasure of making the acquaintance of Confalonieri, who often comes to see Massimo. It is the salient feature of my journey. I have found in him, as in Silvio Pellico, a mildness and affectionateness of manner which are very attractive. He is a fine character. To bear with firmness such a prolonged misfortune, with no prospect of escaping from it except by death, to bear the misfortunes of their own families, without ever changing, when, by a capitulation of conscience, they could make themselves free—surely, such men do honor to our time, whether they have understood it or not; and I feel in their presence a veneration for their character. . . . It is an offset to so much smallness, baseness, and misery which come under our eyes." Was not this strong and healthy language from a mother to a young man living in courts and surrounded with conventionalities?

In 1846 Massimo d'Azeglio published in Tuscany a pamphlet, 'Degli ultimi casi di Romagna,' in which he criticised the Papal Government. The author was ordered to leave Tuscany, but 2,000 copies had already been sold in Florence. The father of Azeglio sent a copy to his son, who was at the time in Brussels, and wrote: "It is impossible not to be struck with the injustice and the cruelty of the Government in the Romagna; it is the worst and least enlightened of governments. . . . Italy is in a state of uneasiness which announces great events. One waits for an opportunity, so as not to act partially and therefore uselessly. From time to time, however, there are small explosions, caused by an impatience which cannot contain itself."

Charles Albert, surrounded by Austrian influences, felt like his people; he was waiting for his opportunity. The smallest word which fell from his lips having a liberal and national tinge, had an immense echo. The Papal States were greatly agitated during the election of a new Pope. There is a good anecdote of Madam d'Azeglio's: "Before," she says, "the Cardinals were in conclave, Lambruschini went to see Miccara, who was ill, to sound him and find out to whom he would give his vote. After a few vague phrases on the issue of the event, Miccara answered: 'Se lo Spirito Santo c'entrà sarà Mastai [who became Pio Nono]; ma se il diavolo ci mette la coda sarete voi od io'" (If the Holy Ghost enters in, it will be Mastai; if the devil gets his tail in, it will be you or I.)

The new Pope was for a moment looked upon as the liberator of Italy. Massimo d'Azeglio believed in him and took office under him. In all the Italian cities there was a great fermentation, and Pio Nono was hailed as a saviour. Charles Albert, encouraged by these movements, made some reforms in his Government, and he received great ovations in Turin and in Genoa. The letters of 1848-1849 are of the highest interest; they are the echo of Piedmontese opinion during the eventful years which saw the popular movements in all parts of Italy—the concession of the *Statuto* by Charles Albert, the war against Italy after the five terrible days of the revolution in Milan, the fatal battle of Novara, and the defeat of Charles Albert.

It is easy to imagine what were during this time the feelings of a noble and patriotic woman. Madam d'Azeglio, though she belonged to the highest nobility, always shared the feelings of the Italian people: she never became the slave of the Austrian party. She tells her son, one day, at the beginning of the popular agitation, how a procession passed before their house, shouting: "'Viva la casa Zei! [Zei is the popular abbreviation of Azeglio], viva Roberto d'Azeglio! viva il padre del popolo!' . . . Surprise is felt among a certain class that your father should espouse the feelings of the people. It is because they don't know the people, and are ignorant what strong devotion it feels for the country. One is surprised to hear these patriots speak, not academically, but with warmth and good sense, and, when your father speaks, one often sees their beards and moustaches wet with tears, and he likes this emotion more than what he finds elsewhere. Our folks who keep themselves as much as they can out of what is going on, can have no clear ideas of what is outside of the little circle in which they live."

It is quite true that there were many *Codini* in all the great Italian centres, but, fortunately for Italy, the cause of independence was espoused from the beginning by the best families in Turin, in Milan, and in Venice. A party which had in its ranks the Azeglios and the Cavours could not be looked upon as a revolutionary party; it was constructive as well as destructive. It was directed against a foreign tyranny; it was not directed against the fundamental laws of society. It enlisted rank, beauty, virtue, literary genius, parliamentary eloquence. In its first trial, however, it was vanquished. Charles Albert was old; he was older than his years, very ill, incapable of conducting a campaign against Radetzky. The Piedmontese army was ill-led and sacrificed. Novara seemed for a moment to be the end of all hope; but the Italian blood had not been shed in vain. Italy had proved that she could rise and fight. She meant to become free by her own efforts: "L'Italia farà da se." Her statesmen understood that, in her misery, she must find allies, and they did in the end find France.

During this eventful period Azeglio had been transferred from St. Petersburg to London, where he became full Minister, and in the most difficult times. The letters of his mother must have been to him even more interesting than the official despatches: she gave him not only the events, the color of the events—not only what could be said, but what could not be said—she gave him, what was better still, an indomitable hope, a lofty view of his mission and of his duty. Every detail in her letters shows her to have been mild, rather retiring, domestic; she was a real "Roman mother."

The correspondence goes as far as the year 1861, to the death of Count Cavour, the catastrophe which ended the first period of the constitution of Italian independence. The Azeglios were true Piedmontese, Italians of the North; they dreaded somewhat the result of the fusion of the kingdom of the two Sicilies with the kingdom which had transported its capital to Florence. They were afraid of the republican element. But they had the utmost confidence in the genius of Cavour, and they followed him through thick and thin, even when they did not always know how far they might be led. The Marquis d'Azeglio lived in London in the intimacy of Lord Palmerston and his family; and there are some very important letters which show how Lord Palmerston espoused the cause of Italy, and to what extent he was determined to support the Piedmontese Government, after the peace of Villafranca, during the movement for annexation which gave so much trouble to the French diplomacy of the time. Madam d'Azeglio, the mother of the present Marquis, died in April, 1862, and her husband only outlived her by a few months.

Correspondence.

A CASE IN POINT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The stars in their courses fight for executive responsibility. The incident of March 9 in the Senate throws a light upon it which might not be obtained in years of outside discussion. Mr. Teller, who had a week before been Secretary of the Interior, had taken his place as a Senator, and Mr. Van Wyck undertook to call him to account for his conduct as Secretary. His reply is of double interest, first as to principle and second as to details. He is reported to have said:

"The head of a department had, however, no seat upon the floor, and was compelled to submit to whatever might be said, without any opportunity to reply. When unfair criticisms were made upon his conduct, he must submit in silence. When falsehoods were uttered in this body or the other with reference to his course, it was undignified for the head of a department to question them. If he should go to the public prints and deny the charges that were made, it

would be said that he forgot his relations to the legislative branch of the Government. He must submit in silence to the most atrocious slanders, uttered in the shape of resolutions or uttered by Senators or members, without reply. He did not believe the Senate was aware of the insults that had been offered, from time to time, to the executive branch by way of resolutions. Such resolutions were not introduced for information, but for the express purpose of making an attack in the cowardly way of skulking behind charges; and they were seized upon by enemies of the Administration, and the newspapers were in the habit of making a great deal of them. He described instances in which a vast amount of labor had been put upon the departments by resolutions, when the information could all have been had in an hour had the seeker called personally or sent a letter of inquiry."

I believe there has not been a Cabinet officer in the last ten years who could not endorse this statement, and testify how he has writhed under charges which he had no opportunity to answer, and that the liability to them was fatal to efficiency and independence. But Mr. Teller's remarks on the particular matter in hand were even more instructive. Mr. Van Wyck uttered a violent tirade against the Administration for issuing patents of land to a railroad just before it went out of office; and if the matter had rested there, the impression left on the country would have been just that described by Mr. Teller as above. This time, however, the assailant did not have the whole field to himself. Mr. Teller showed pretty clearly that the fault was with Congress and not the Executive; that, as the law stood, he was bound to issue the patents unless Congress forbade it; that while he was waiting and waiting, the House, by a majority of 42, declared that the lands should not be forfeited; that he still waited and waited for action by the Senate, but none was taken, and that he finally, just before leaving office, issued the patents, as he was bound to do.

Now, this discussion took place when the Secretary was no longer Secretary. It referred to things already past and matters of history, and therefore of little practical interest. Suppose the same kind of discussion took place between Senators or members and the actual Secretaries as to policies or questions open for settlement, and that charges and inquiries could be made and met *viva voce*, and before the whole country. Could anything do more to excite national interest, to enforce responsibility on one side or the other, to force action on important matters, and, perhaps most important of all, to bring out individual character and ability in strong light? And why should not this take place? Why should not the process begin within a week after the assembling of Congress at the next session? For the same reason that we cannot stop the coinage of silver—because it does not suit the purposes of the lobby. The theory is, that this country is governed by the people through their representatives in Congress. The fact is, that it is governed by the lobby through Congress, largely in defiance of the people. The struggle can be settled in the only way in which factions have always been put down—by popular support of the Executive in its efforts to exercise control.

If Secretary Teller will persevere in the path which he has thus struck out, he will have done more for his country than it would have been possible for him to do in office, and this with certainly no detriment to his own reputation.

G. B.

Boston, March 11, 1885.

BOHN'S TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you have lately published several letters criticising unfavorably the translations in Bohn's Libraries, we trust that you will allow us to say a few words in reply. If, as your correspondent, "A Lover of Trustworthy Work" (a designation to which, by the way, we lay claim equally with himself) allows, some of the translations are "excellent," we fail to see that it is desirable that "proof after proof should be given" that they are, in general, not faithful. This course would be eminently unjust to the meritorious translators; and if any judgment is to be pronounced in this public fashion, nothing less than an accurate discrimination between the good and the bad will satisfy the claims of justice. As it is, his "proofs" are not so very conclusive, for one of them, at least, is an obvious, though a misleading printer's blunder. But we are not concerned to deny that there are errors in the particular book referred to, as we have heard of several before, and have corrected them. We grant that, as a matter of fact, there is great variety in the quality of all the translations; but we must protest against a whole series being condemned *en bloc* because, while some are admittedly excellent, others may be found to have an undue amount of errors. Between the two extremes are a number of books which embody a vast amount of painstaking work, and approximate in a very laudable degree to the absolute fidelity which we are perfectly certain that no translation ever yet attained. Both Carlyle and Emerson have expressly testified to the utility of these translations, and of one volume, at least, Matthew Arnold, on whose opinion your correspondent appears to rely, has spoken in the highest terms.

The translations in Bohn's Classical Library are probably more widely known than any others. American publishers have shown *their* appreciation by reprinting most of them. Of these, Kennedy's Demosthenes has among scholars the highest reputation. The translations of Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius by the late Professor Long, of Æschylus by Miss Swanwick, and of Plutarch's 'Essays' by Mr. King, were all executed as "labors of love," and in England, at any rate, are highly esteemed. Of the rank and file, so to speak, the chief fault is not so much looseness of rendering as an excess of literalness, inasmuch as they adhere somewhat baldly to the forms of expression of the original, and err, in fact, by want of freedom. Whether readers who use them in place of, and not in connection with, the Latin and Greek texts, are aggrieved at this, we cannot say; but at least it seems to be a fault on the right side.

In the translations from modern languages there is a similar variety: Goethe's Autobiography and the first part of the 'Tour in Italy' had more faults of the careless sort than the others. The former was partly printed by Mr. Bohn from an American edition, revised; but the number of errors found in it was so great that the editor, Mr. John Oxenford, had to relinquish the proposed substructure and complete the work independently. These books have recently been reprinted in America, but the reprints do not contain the great improvements which have been and are continually being made in our editions.

Your later correspondent, "E. H. H.," is not happy in his selection of Miss Swanwick's *metrical* translation of Schiller's 'Die Jungfrau von Orleans' for his rather trivial criticism. As the author of the Bohn translation of 'Faust,' which is frequently ranked with Bayard Taylor's, and as a well-known Greek scholar, Miss Swanwick, if not "super grammaticam," can at least let her reputation take care of itself. In our view, the defects referred to only prove our position, that no translation is perfect; and if Miss Swanwick's work is a test of the demerits of Bohn, we can very well afford to say no more about the matter. This only we will add, that if your correspondents, instead of communicating their general disapproval to you, will send a definite note of any errors to us, they will do us a kindness instead of an injury, and at the same time help more effectually to remedy the occasional faults which we, no less than they, deplore.—We are, sir, your obedient servants,

The Publishers of Bohn's Libraries.

York Street, Covent Garden, London,
March 7, 1885.

A DECEPTIVE VOLUME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* for July 13, 1882, and July 12 and 19, 1883, your Paris correspondent noticed two volumes entitled 'La Jeunesse de Madame d'Épinay' and 'Les Dernières Années de Madame d'Épinay.' It is somewhat surprising that both he and other critics of these works seem not to have been fully aware of their real character; at least their quality has not, I think, been distinctly expressed and duly emphasized. In view of this oversight on the part of the reviewers, I venture to ask for one of your valuable pages to present evidence that these works are not what they appear to be. To do this clearly I must first state a few well-known facts.

In the notice given of Mme. d'Épinay at the time of her death by Grimm (her intimate friend) in his 'Correspondance Littéraire,' he says: "She has left no other work save a continuation of the 'Conversations d'Émilie,' a number of letters, and the rough-draft of a long romance." This romance was the story of her own life, little disguised except by the alteration of names and of a few facts. It was left in the hands of Grimm, but was not published by him. On quitting France he intrusted it to M. Lecourt de Villière, and it remained unknown till 1818, when it passed from the heirs of this gentleman into the possession of an able publisher, M. Brunet, who perceived its value—value so exceptional that Sainte-Beuve declared, "The Memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay are not a work, they are an epoch." M. Brunet, aided by M. Parison, discovered with certainty most of the real names of the characters, suppressed (avowedly) unimportant passages, and gave the world, under the title 'Mémoires et Correspondance de Madame d'Epinay,' three most interesting volumes, whose authenticity is as unquestionable as that of the 'Confessions' of Rousseau.

The persons with whom we have now to deal are known as M. Lucien Perey and M. Gaston Maugras. But "M. Perey" is *Mlle. Herpin;* and I think that in that fact may perhaps be found an explanation of some of the qualities of the work before us. If I add that I refer to qualities of inaccuracy approaching untruthfulness, let it not be thought an imputation on all women. These editors offer us their volumes as containing "une foule de renseignements" discovered by themselves among family papers intrusted to them by the descendants of Mme. d'Épinay, but more especially as being unedited matter belonging to the 'Mémoires'; they having found in the Public Archives thirty *cahiers* of the manuscript of the 'Mémoires,' suppressed by the former editors—being precisely the first quarter—and afterward thirty more unedited *cahiers* in the Library of the Arsenal, being precisely the last quarter of the 'Mémoires.' I will leave this statement of theirs without comment, only reminding the reader of the titles of the two volumes we are examining, and mention a few facts which still less need comment.

The first 150 pages of 'La Jeunesse' are occupied with "new" matter: when it catches up with the opening of the 1818 volumes (which begin with the marriage of the heroine) we find a letter to which this note is attached: "This letter is partly given in Brunet and Parison's edition of the 'Mémoires.' *We publish only the unedited*

passages." The letter is two pages and a half long; one page and a half (in broken portions) is *precisely the same* in one edition as the other, one page is added, half a page is omitted.

On page 376 there is a letter with a note referring as before to the Brunet edition, adding: "We have restored [*rétabli*] the suppressed passages." The letter as here given does not contain *one word* which is not in the Brunet edition; and of the portion from which the Perey and Maugras passages are taken (a portion only one-quarter of the whole letter as given by Brunet and Parison) only two pages are given out of five. If this incongruity of statement and fact be nothing more than carelessness, it is to me inexplicable carelessness.

On page 314 thirty-two lines of a letter of fourteen pages in Brunet and Parison are spoken of here as if they were the whole letter; of these thirty-two lines, "rectifiées d'après le texte original," three, and three only, are not in the earlier edition: the rest is a verbatim copy.

On page 355, a passage two and a half pages long is said by Perey and Maugras to have been previously given "only incompletely"; the incompleteness consists in the omission of five absolutely unimportant lines.

MM. Perey and Maugras nowhere accuse MM. Brunet and Parison of having changed the text (except by suppressions) save that they make use once in the Introduction to their first volume, incidentally, of the phrase "passages importants . . . tronqués ou altérés"; they nowhere confess to having done so themselves, and they nowhere refer to discrepancies between the two texts. But discrepancies abound. The most important exist in passages too long for quotation here; but a tolerably typical illustration may be given with these few lines (curiously enough, it falls on precisely the same page of the same volume in both works, I, 355): "Quoique la vie que je mène soit assez uniforme, j'espère n'être pas obligée d'en changer" (Brunet and Parison). "Je n'ai pas grand'chose à vous dire de la vie que je mène, elle est trop uniforme et vous la connaissez; j'espère n'être pas obligée d'en changer" (Perey and Maugras). One or the other has been rewritten.

Again, we find (in Perey and Maugras), in the Journal, these sentences: "J'ai dîné deux fois chez Mlle. Quinault. J'y ai vu beaucoup Duclos" — which have a singular air of unreality to the reader who remembers (in Brunet and Parison) two passages in the Journal at a considerable distance from one another (unfortunately there are no dates in either edition), one seventeen and the other fourteen pages of brilliant description of these two dinners, with the details of, as Sainte-Beuve says, "les mimaginables orgies de conversation qui s'y passent entre beaux esprits," of whom Duclos is one of the most conspicuous.

On page 265 a passage which in the earlier editions is given as from the Journal, in the later becomes a letter to Francueil: "Nous avons fait aujourd'hui une promenade délicieuse à laquelle il ne manquait que la présence de mon tendre ami pour," etc. "Nous avons fait aujourd'hui une promenade déliceuse, mon tendre ami, à laquelle il ne manquait que ta présence pour," etc. A sentence or two afterward, speaking of Rousseau, "J'ai encore l'âme attendrie de la manière simple et originale en même temps dont il raconte ses malheurs" (Brunet and Parison). "Et la simplicité avec laquelle Rousseau conte ses malheurs! J'en ai encore l'âme attendrie" (Perey and Maugras).

On page 430 a passage is given as being a letter from Grimm to Mme. d'Épinay which is really (if the earlier edition is trusted) a conversation reported by her in her Journal.

On page 484 a note from Grimm to Mme. d'Épinay is in the "vous" form in the earlier, in the "tu" in the later.

On page 270 there is a letter, with the usual form of note, to the effect that it is incomplete in former editions, and "*we give only the omitted portions.*" Out of its five pages only about two pages are *new*; the rest is *verbatim* from the Brunet and Parison edition, with the change of a word here and there, but absolutely *rewritten*, so as to allow the introduction of two long passages concerning a personage entirely absent from the letter in its earlier form, and to whom is here addressed a conversation in place of one formerly addressed to Mme. d'Épinay. For a similar complete "incompatibility" compare the letter on page 277 with what I must call "the original," and let it be remembered that this incompatibility MM. Perey and Maugras never, in any way, indicate or comment on.

We come now to a correspondence between Mme. d'Épinay and Rousseau, to which this note is prefixed: "These letters have been published in part in the 'Mémoires.' We restore the text entirely, and give them in their chronological order, which was completely changed in the printed 'Mémoires'; this mistake [*défaut*] made them almost unintelligible." We will examine these five letters as they are here given.

1st Letter. Half a page omitted. Half a page which is, in Brunet and Parison, separated by another letter, is added. *Nothing new.*

2d. Unchanged in position. Nine lines omitted. *Nothing new.*

3d. Unchanged in position. *Nothing new.*

4th. The omitted half page of No. 1. Twelve new lines. In conclusion, eight lines which have no connection with the rest, which are given as a little note by itself in the 'Mémoires' just before these present letters, and which is referred to in the 'Confessions' not at all as if it were part of a long letter.

5th. The 2d in the 'Mémoires.' One page and a half omitted. *Nothing new.*

It therefore results that in eight pages there are precisely twelve new lines in place of forty-four omitted (from those said to be printed "in part"!); and I am ready to assert that the "intelligibility" of the earlier arrangement is quite as great as the later.

The chapter concerning the rupture between Rousseau and Mme. d'Épinay is acknowledged to be of already published material, but the letters are said to be "rectifiées." They are *rectified* in the same manner as the others.

It is needless to give more of the countless instances similar to these to be found *passim.*

The contents of the first volume, on being somewhat carefully "analyzed" by me, gives these results: 150 pages relating to an earlier period than the previously published 'Mémoires,' and which therefore cannot be tested by them; 40 pages in the Rousseau chapter, avowedly old material; 40 pages (about) of more or less accurate, entertaining broken résumé of the 'Mémoires,' *with no references;* 28 pages in different places, identical with Brunet and Parison, of which (in spite of the statement in the Introduction, "Every time we reproduce a letter or a passage already published we indicate it in a note") just about one-half, that is, 14 pages, broken up in a large number of passages, are *entirely unacknowledged*, and the other half very inadequately acknowledged; 2 pages openly acknowledged as to be found in Brunet and Parison; 270 pages of *padding* of, for the most part, uninteresting material.

These remarks are all on 'La Jeunesse,' etc., but I am convinced (though from a less thorough examination) that 'Les Dernières Années,' etc., are——by the same authors; and I am sure that both volumes are of very little value to

A Lover of Trustworthy Work.

THE NEGRO PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Touching the negro's future there is little to be said, because we are none of us prophets, and the question relates to the future. The education of the negro is bound to be a slow process, because his mind is essentially sluggish. In saying this I would not be understood to mean any disrespect to him. It is precisely what one must say of any race which a few generations back were savages and barbarians. A couple of thousand years of breeding, more or less good, and several hundred years of intellectual stimulation, have made of the white man what he is. It accounts for all the difference between the white savage and the present leader of the world's thought and progress. It is manifestly unfair to the negro to require or expect of him that he align himself with intellectual forces which have been gathering strength for more than a thousand years. The law of heredity is too real and obstinate to be set aside in favor of any race of creatures, be they men or beasts. Even these last require many generations, under careful selection, either natural or otherwise, to show any marked improvement.

On the fingers of one hand may be counted the generations since the negro was a savage. The legal slave trade ceased in 1808, though an unlawful traffic continued for many years thereafter. Now one measures to him hard lines who requires of him a force whose evolution demands a hundred generations, and that under a stimulation which the negro has not had for even his five or six. We are not to expect too much of "our brother in black," but we ought not to be satisfied with too little. In any study of the negro problem we are likely, in my judgment, to go wrong if we be forgetful of the history of other races who have travelled the road to civilization ahead of him. A savage may learn the use of a gun and be a savage still, but the moment he takes up a hoe he begins his march. All civilized peoples began their civilization with the simplest agricultural implements, and there also the American negro began. After a hundred years (which is more than the average of subjection to what is universally admitted to have been a hard rule of life, under any aspect of it), he was ready to be advanced to his next lesson. What that next lesson ought to be for the freedman is best answered by ascertaining what it was in the case of other races, since we ought not to expect any difference. There is no "royal road" for him, more than for others, and the beaten track must be followed.

In agricultural pursuits other races learned what the negro has learned, but also they gained what was quite unattainable by the slave—the spirit, that is, of independence and self-reliance, the real basis of all civilization worthy the name, the fruit of the union of liberty and energy. Now, since the negro could not cultivate this spirit along with his cotton and corn, as a slave, it is necessary that he now make it a special lesson. He is said to be free, but is he? Of course in a sense he is—free to go and come, free to work or starve, free to loaf around the country store and do the bidding of the keeper for a drink. Is all this freedom? After its sort, yes; but the sort is not satisfactory. The negro has no self-reliance and no feeling of independence, but it is coming to him more and more, yet little by little. His trust in his race has been strong enough all along since the war, and this has been sometimes mistaken for personal self-reliance; but whoever undertakes to do business with or for any large number of these people will bear testimony to the growing strength of individuality among them. It is all-important that this take a right direction. If it do not lead

to the development first of energy, and second of intellectual force, it were better it never began at all. There is a real danger in any large trust in mere numbers, as of a race, but there can come only good from a self-respecting, self-disciplined, and intelligent energy.

I have no idea that the schools will be of any great advantage to the present generation of negroes. The very young will profit most by them, while some even of such as are well advanced in life know how to read and write, and so have gained something. One of the mistakes of our day is the fancy that to read and write is to be educated. The great mass of these people are unable at present to go beyond this, and lack capacity for larger attainment; but the next generation will be freer and more capable, and the next more so still. If the negro shall have a little patience, and not undertake to leap chasms too broad for him, and if the white people of the North shall be content to let him develop according to the universal law, a very few generations will put the negro well forward of his present position. This may be safely predicted, since he will not need to work out his civilization, as most others have done, little by little, and often making hurtful blunders; but, in the midst of another race already enlightened, he must profit by their experience and their instruction.

I have already intimated my conviction that the negro cannot now be educated. He can be taught elementary learning, as how to read, write, and cipher, and to this effort I should rejoice to see given a larger and better-directed impulse than has shown itself up to this time. I have not examined the matter of taxation for schools in other negro States, but I know that in the State of Mississippi the school tax is a large proportion of the whole tax—so large that it does not seem possible to increase it without hardship; and yet our public schools are anything but satisfactory. Touching the proposition of Judge Tourgée to have the general Government undertake the burden of expense in maintaining schools for negroes in the Southern States, I for one should say that, being a free-trader, I am opposed on general principles to taking money belonging to *all* the people and expending it for the advantage of *some* of the people. Professor Sumner is right in his suggestion that the "forgotten man" be thought of once in a while. But if there can be any case in which it would be right for the general Government to bear the expense of education for any class, other than its own servants (as military officers), this is that case. The detail of the Tourgée plan is objectionable, but if the people find it possible to agree upon the outline of any plan at all, the detail can be arranged.

GEO. C. HARRIS.

MADISON STATION, MISS., March 4, 1885.

NUMBER OF POUNDS IN THE METRIC TON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. W. Howard White, in his communication on the metric system published in your issue of March 5th, speaks of the ton of 1,000 kilograms as being equivalent to 2,250 pounds.

The legal equivalent of the kilogram in the United States, as fixed by the act of Congress approved July 28th, 1866, is 2.2046 pounds, that of the quintal of 100 kilograms is 220.46 pounds, and that of the ton of 1,000 kilograms is 2,204.6 pounds. A somewhat closer approximation to the precise mathematical equivalent is given by Professor E. B. Elliott, Government Actuary, in the extensive and admirable series of tables prepared by him years ago for Webster's Counting House Dictionary. Mr. Elliott's equivalent, based on the determination arrived at by the British Committee on the New Exchequer standards as reported to Parliament in 1854, is 2,204.621 pounds.

It seems probable that Mr. White had in view 2,205 pounds, as the nearest integral approximation to the equivalent of the metric ton, and inadvertently transposed the 0 and the 5; since so well-informed a writer may fairly be presumed to be acquainted with the relation between the pound and the kilogram, as established by the best authorities.—Respectfully,

EDWARD T. PETERS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 9, 1885.

MUSEUMS OF PHOTOGRAPHS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Pertinent to M. Reinach's suggestion (*Nation*, February 26) as to the establishment in America of public museums of casts and photographs, it may be well to note that a beginning in this direction has been made in California.

In charge of the University of California Mr. John S. Hittell has placed a collection of nearly 1,000 photographs (normal size, 8 x 10 inches) of the masterpieces of ancient and modern sculpture, for the use and pleasure of the public. To this gift no conditions are attached but one, namely, that the collection be made most conveniently accessible to the people. It is confidently expected by Mr. Hittell that other Californians will generously contribute and make the collection more comprehensive, including photographs of the most notable pictures, public buildings, and monuments of the world.

The fact that sculpture yields itself to the photographer's art readily and with fine results, and, further, that excellent photographs may be gathered at slight expense compared with the cost of casts, should lead to the formation of similar collections throughout the country.

A catalogue of the photographs at the University is in preparation, and will be sent *gratis*, when published in May, to any address. It will contain the names and addresses of Continental publishers of photographs, and may be made the basis for the foundation of collections elsewhere.—Yours truly,

J. C. ROWELL.

LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, March 4, 1885.

Notes.

A SECOND and revised edition of the valuable work on 'United States Notes,' by ex-Comptroller Knox, with the figures brought down to 1885, has just been published by Charles Scribner's Sons. An edition has also been brought out in London.

Dr. Baird's 'History of the Huguenot Emigration to America,' which was announced for publication last autumn, but was postponed, is to be issued by Dodd, Mead & Co. in March. It is the fruit of investigations that have been carried on in this country, and in France and England, during the last ten or twelve years. The materials used have been found largely in unpublished documents.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about issuing another edition of Harriet Martineau's Autobiography, as edited and supplemented by Mrs. Maria W. Chapman, in two volumes, crown octavo, at a reduced price.

Mr. Hamerton's work on 'Landscape' (Macmillan) will be found in the bookstores this week, along with Pater's 'Marius the Epicurean.'

Roberts Bros. have brought out a new edition of Mrs. Stowe's 'Pink and White Tyranny,' in paper covers, appropriately colored.

Charles Scribner's Sons publish by authority Captain Blunt's 'Instructions in Rifle and Carbine Firing for the U. S. Army,' a handy little pocket volume, with clasps.

The bound volume of Stormonth's 'Dictionary of the English Language' is now before us. In addition to what we have already said about this work, it is noticeable as an "old-fashioned" dictionary, in competition with those cyclopædias which are loth to give up the less pretentious name. It is, too, being of English origin, one more agency working against the Websterian orthography, which has apparently seen its best days. Finally, we remark the grouping of derivatives, as *naval* under *navy*, though this is not consistently carried out. In the new 'Webster's Condensed Dictionary,' a like grouping is based upon primitive roots, so that one must look for *navy* under *nauseau!*

Of Mr. Spofford's *American Almanac* (American News Company), and Mr. Keltie's *Statesman's Year Book* (Macmillan & Co.), for 1885, it is sufficient to say that they have made their customary appearance, and will be welcomed by all who know their value as statistical repertories. Mr. Spofford sets down Cleveland's plurality as 62,683, remarking on the discrepancies in the footings which are inevitable under our method of voting indirectly for President. The most popular, the least popular, and the average elector may be selected as representing the vote of any given State.

The book-buying public deserves to be warned of a very gross abuse of its own right as well as of copyright. It is well known that Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. publish, by arrangement with the author, Hugh Conway's collection of short stories called 'Thrown Together.' All but five of these have been taken by J. S. Ogilvie & Co. and issued under the title, 'Circumstantial Evidence, and Other Stories.' The title story is, in the Holt edition, called "The Bandsman's Story," and of the seven, in all, which are pirated, not one has been left with the title bestowed upon it by its author. "My First Client," to take another instance, becomes "The Doctor's Patient."

The burning question for our colleges raised by Harvard's scheme of elective studies is discussed in two pamphlets before us, 'The New Departure in College Education,' being President McCosh's reply to President Eliot last month (Scribners), and 'Some Important Questions in Higher Education,' by President A. D. White (Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church.)

The latest issue of Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. iii, part 3) is largely devoted to memorial notices of the late Stephen Salisbury, the Society's President for many years and most liberal benefactor. His life was a fine example of New England cultivation, public spirit, and ever-present sense of responsibility for the right employment of wealth. A steel portrait of Mr. Salisbury accompanies the text. The report of the Council is made the medium of a valuable contribution to the history of banking in New England, based on the discovery of a rare tract printed in 1682. This essay bears the authoritative signatures of J. Hammond Trumbull and Samuel S. Green.

In like manner, the number for December, 1884, (just out) of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* opens with tributes to the worth of the late president of the society whose organ it is—Mr. John William Wallace, an eminent law reporter, like his father, and a descendant of William Bradford, the first printer of our middle colonies. For the rest, this number is peculiarly rich in inedited and curious matter. Mr. W. M. Conway furnishes a minute account of sundry portraits of descendants of William Penn, and there is a charming phototype of Juliana Penn from the original canvas. We must mention also a transcript from a lost regimental memorandum book (1775) of Benedict Arnold; General Joseph Reed's narrative of army movements near Trenton in the winter of 1776-

77; a letter of Franklin's concerning his mother's relatives in England, only known in part hitherto (1758); Samuel Foulke's memorandum of the proceedings of the Pennsylvania Assembly in 1761-62, etc.

Outing for April becomes a full-blown illustrated magazine, with a cover which is a great improvement on the former design. As already announced, Mr. Julian Hawthorne begins in it his new story, "Love—or a Name."

The *United Service* for March contains some strictures on the British military operations in the Sudan, by General C. P. Stone, and a review of General Grant's recent account, in the *Century*, of the campaign and battle of Shiloh, by General Jordan. The second article we have found more profitable reading than the first.

The March number of *Babyhood* marks steady progress in the conduct of this periodical. It has evidently taken hold of the mothers, and both their questions and their experiences enhance the value of each successive number.

We have received Dr. Charles Denison's roller map of the climate of the United States (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.). On one side is graphically depicted, from the data for the year 1883, the annual cloudiness, temperature, rainfall, winds, range of temperature, dew point, etc., together with the elevations. On the other are four smaller seasonal charts to the same effect, while the side-spaces are availed of for tabulated statistics. The interest which these data possess for invalids (to mention but a single class), is heightened by lists of the mineral springs and health stations in the United States.

How many nations of Europe are now interested on their own account in making and studying war-maps, all relating, too, to foreign lands. Italy's Red Sea expedition is the cause of one just issued by A. Villardi, at Milan. It embraces Africa east of the meridian of Tunis and Fernando Po and north of Zanzibar, but is especially valuable for its side-maps—of Assab and its environs, of Massowah, of Danakil, etc.

By good right Berlin, the seat of the late Congo Conference, should have the mapping of the result of that famous gathering. Dr. Richard Kiepert's "Map of the Congo Basin" (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer) has already reached a second edition. It is on a scale of about seventy miles to the inch, and it is wonderful to behold the native "empires" marked out on it with colored boundaries. France and Portugal come next after the International Association in the size and importance of their respective adjacent possessions. America, fortunately, is represented only by the track of her explorer, Stanley. The "free-trade zone" here outlined is vast and vague enough.

For the present, the needful maps of Africa are completed by "Stanford's Popular Map of the Seat of Military Operations in the Sudan" (G. P. Putnam's Sons), on the scale of twenty miles to the inch. It embraces the tract from Korti to Khartum on the south, and Suakim on the Red Sea. Side-maps show the whole of the Egyptian territory, and also, on a larger scale, Khartum and its environs. This map is very full of names, and is in every way useful for the student of current events.

A Dante trade catalogue in the United States is sufficiently rare to deserve mention. Such a one has been sent us by Anton Bicker, No. 78 Johnston Building, Cincinnati. It contains 172 numbers. If not disposed of *en bloc* before May 1, the collection will be sold on individual offers.

Francesco d'Ovidio, writing in the *Domenica del Fracassa*, comes to the support of Professor Bartoli's indication that Bosone da Gubbio was the person to whom Petrarch addressed his famous canzone, "Spirto gentil." He had jumped to the same conclusion himself, after having ruled out all the other claimants. His argument is forcible and unstrained at all points. Especially good is his denial of our present competency to judge of the importance of Petrarch's contemporaries, and his contention that a poet bursting with desire to deliver his message will make a pretext of a less than capital personage. He notes also the conditional tenses and phrases used in stimulating Bosone, and contrasts them with what must have been employed towards Rienzi, the putative "spirto gentil," after he obtained the tribuneship. How absurd, he suggests, it would have been to address Garibaldi, after Calatafimi, "Since you have now *reached* (*giunto*) the honorable grade of General of the Thousand, I should advise you to take courage and essay the liberation of Southern Italy; *if I do not mistake*, the present is a good time, and you *might* achieve a great distinction for yourself."

Polybiblion for February states that the *Revue Catholique*, of Bordeaux, is about to publish the souvenirs of Mme. de Chateaubriand, which have just been placed in the editor's hands, together with many valuable autograph manuscripts, by a grand-niece of the author of the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe.' The same number of *Polybiblion* contains this singular notification: "One of our collaborateurs has just *finished* a study on Mgr. de Condorcet, and urgently desires our readers to indicate to him the sources and documents pertaining to this prelate."

In the *Revue Scientifique*, February 21, is a curious table, prepared by Mr. James Jackson, of different rates of motion expressed in metres to the second. Out of 132 phenomena cited, the slowest is the Mer de Glace, which moves at the rate of 99 ten-millionths of a metre, while next following it is the bamboo, which grows more than seven times as fast, and the third is a glacier in Greenland, whose maximum velocity is twenty-five times as great as that of the Swiss glacier. The swiftest motion recorded is that of the current from a Leyden jar, 463,500,000 metres a second; and next to it, though at a distance of 150,000,000 of metres, is the speed of the electric light. The fastest of animals is the *martinet* or swift. The tornado at Wallingford, Conn., in 1882, and a train on the Bound Brook Road, New Jersey, are cited as the greatest velocities recorded of wind and steam.

'Le Livre de Demain' is the title of a novel book recently published by M. de Rochas, at Blois. It is printed on various kinds of paper with different colored inks, and consists of selections in prose and verse, as well as an account of inks, paper, and the art of typography. The peculiarity of the book is the endeavor to suit the paper, ink, and type even, to the subject of the selection. M. de Rochas contends that a love poem, for instance, printed with light ink on rose-tinted paper, will make a far deeper impression than if printed with black ink on white paper. In order to test his theory, he prints several poems and short stories in accordance with it, and he certainly secures some very picturesque effects, and produces a unique specimen of typography.

The *Portfolio* for March falls below its average in both illustrative and literary attraction. The Hagborg etching is poor and trite as subject, and diffuse and ineffective as etching, and the Canterbury etching is weak. A facsimile of Dürer's "Christmas Day" is interesting, and especially so is a study by W. Watkiss Lloyd on "The Drama of the Greeks in relation to the Arts."

The report of the Apprentices' Library, which, by the way, boasts of being the largest free library in this city, though its 68,000 volumes are not known to *Polybiblion*, is very satisfactory in one respect. The reading of light fiction shows a falling off of 7,148 volumes, and the reading of history, biography, and travels, an increase of 800, which is in the right proportion, for it takes nine times as long to read profitably an historical work as to rush through a volume of the Seaside or Franklin Square Library. Similarly, though there were eight more readers than the year before, the number of books borrowed was less by 6,348, which is merely another way of stating the improvement in the quality of the reading. Evidently, mere comparison of totals of circulation is no test of the comparative usefulness of libraries. The improvement in the Apprentices' Library may be traced directly, we believe, to the publication during the last year of the classified lists of selected books which we have already noticed. The same result was seen in the Boston Public Library on the publication of its annotated class catalogues, and has been noticed wherever similar helps to choice in reading have been given to the public.

From the annual report of the Director of the Dearborn Observatory at Chicago, Prof. G. W. Hough, it appears that the chief instruments have been kept in constant use. A gas engine is now employed to turn the dome covering the great telescope. The Repsold meridian circle is used only for observations connected with the time-service. The great telescope, of eighteen inches aperture, has been exclusively employed in the observation of a few objects, (1) the Pons-Brooks comet, the changes in the structure of which were not remarkable; (2) difficult double stars, thirty-two new objects of this class having been discovered by Professor Hough; (3) the planet Jupiter, the principal objects of interest being the great red spot first noticed in 1878, and which has maintained its size, shape, and outline with very slight change, the great equatorial belt, which has been subject to gradual drift in latitude from year to year, and the equatorial white spots, which, with the envelope they are situate in, move with a velocity of 260 miles per hour, thus revolving about the planet in a month and a half; (4) the planet Saturn, with negative results so far as markings on or subdivisions of the rings were concerned; and (5) the satellites of Uranus, which were such difficult objects as not to have been frequently seen. Six drawings of Jupiter's disk were made, four of which are printed in the report. As heretofore, Mr. S. W. Burnham has continued his observations of double stars with the great telescope.

We learn from *Nature* that M. Charles Feil has, after some years' absence, returned to the active management of his celebrated manufactory of optical glass in Paris, the new firm being "Feil père et Mautois." M. Feil is grandson to M. Guinaud, who, some sixty years since, by a mode of working almost identical with that adopted by the celebrated potter, Palissy, overcame the serious obstacles which occur in securing the perfect homogeneity of both crown and flint glass, and whose secrets have descended to his grandson.

—We have received from the publishers, Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, the first volume of the uniform edition of the works of Alexander Hamilton, edited by Henry Cabot Lodge. It is in most respects a beautiful specimen of book-making, the tone of the paper, the clearness of the type, and the good taste of the binding being highly creditable to the publishers from whose press it comes, and a remarkable proof of the steady advance the typographical art is making on this side of the Atlantic. Vol. i contains a preface by the editor, a "Hamilton Chronology" which is very valuable for purposes of reference, and an instalment of the works (579 pages in all), comprising the "Publius" letters, Hamilton's speeches in the Federal and in the New York Conventions, and many minor publications. The editor, in his preface, says with regard to the ar-

rangement of the edition that the primary object in view is to bring into one book all Hamilton's writings—this never having been done heretofore, even in the John C. Hamilton edition of 1851. It will include, he says, the 'Federalist'—presumably only Hamilton's contributions to it. It will also include the famous Reynolds pamphlet, which, as Hamilton published the story to vindicate his honor as a public man, his admirers will be glad to see preserved. Mr. Lodge very justly says that it is almost impossible to overestimate the importance of Hamilton's influence upon the development of American institutions; and it seems at first singular that, with the mass of Americans, the name of his rival Jefferson, whose public services and intellect were certainly inferior to those of Hamilton, should be still a conjuring-word for a great political party, while Hamilton's solid legacy to his country is simply enjoyed without gratitude and without thought. The explanation lies partly in the fact that Hamilton addressed the reason of a rising Democracy, while Jefferson appealed to its sentiments. For the time Jefferson triumphed, but Hamilton's fame was to be vindicated later. Jeffersonian Democracy a generation afterward was taken advantage of, as only a sentimental creed could have been, by slavery, first to extend its own influence, then to break up the Union. The early Federalist idea that the Union was a nation triumphed, and the doctrine of States-rights perished. It can hardly be revived again, and, in the future, parties can hardly divide on issues which will make Jeffersonian Democracy intelligible as a political creed. Accordingly, since the war the younger generation of Americans have turned more and more to the writings of Hamilton, the genius of the Revolution, to study the principles which he and his friends formulated as the guiding principles of republican government. He was one of the great men of the last century who perceived, as if by inspiration, the truths about modern government for which Europe had been groping blindly for generations. It was one of those cases of inspiration which carried conviction with it, for the strangest feature of Hamilton's life is, that from the time when as a mere boy he began his work, he succeeded in convincing his opponents against their will. He was possessed by the spirit of truth, and if later in life his partisanship clouded his vision, his message had already been delivered, and become part of the solid fabric of American government itself.

—The burden of President Eliot's latest annual report to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College consists in a minute history of the development of elective studies at that institution. It is well calculated to allay alarm concerning the changes made in the past twenty years to find that, at the instance of Judge Story, a beginning was made in the same direction sixty years ago. Nor is the freedom now attained anything like, in practice, what might be supposed. For example, the present Freshman class was at liberty to choose between "twenty-five full courses and six half-courses"; but the range of *studies* involved in this scheme embraced only Latin, Greek, French, German, history, mathematics, and science, and four out of these seven were obligatory. As French was prescribed if the candidate had passed in German, and *vice versa*, it appears that, at the end of the Freshman year, the differentiation in *kind* of scholarship among the members of the same class will be confined to two studies. The difference in *degree* will be measured by the courses above mentioned, and by individual ability.

—"In regard to studies, *discipline*, and the selection of teachers," says President Eliot, "the Governing Boards and the Faculties have for eighteen years unitedly and steadily pursued a distinctively University policy, national, unsectarian, and comprehensive in scope, and intended to assure freedom to both teachers and students." The recent decision of the President and Fellows in regard to voluntary attendance at prayers shows that this policy still lacks something of completeness; and we hope that the next annual report will be devoted to an historical review of the progress in religious discipline for sixty years—say, from 1826, when the study of Hebrew, from being prescribed, became optional. This seems already necessary in order to justify an alarming innovation in the Divinity School, where also the pæan of freedom is sounded by President Eliot. The Dean of the school calls special attention to the fact that "marks for absence were first given up at lectures, *then at chapel*, and finally the student was left free to select the studies which he would pursue and the order in which he would pursue them." This is the more extraordinary because we cannot imagine theological students to be capable of a perfunctory performance at prayers, as is the case with ninety-nine-hundredths of the undergraduates to whom the liberty of non-attendance is denied. There is, therefore, nothing shocking in the idea of compulsion as applied to the former. We observe that among the lectures at the Divinity School last year was one on Vivisection, by the Dean of the Medical Faculty. This suggests the utility of a lecture to the undergraduates by the Dean of the Divinity School, setting forth the grounds of his liberality in respect to prayers in his own domain.

—The English Blue Books, as a rule, have but little interest for American historical students. The Ninth Report of the Royal Commission on Historical Manuscripts, Sessional Papers, 1883, vol. xxxvii, is, however, a conspicuous exception. It contains (Appendix III) a collection of papers now in the possession of Mrs. Stopford Sackville, of Drayton House, which descended to her from Lord George Sackville, afterward Viscount Sackville, but better known in this country as Lord George Germain. Lord George was the third son of the first Duke of Dorset. He was at one time Commander-in-Chief of the English army in Germany, and was cashiered for his behavior at Minden. This, however, did not prevent his attaining high political preferment, and he was Secretary of State for the colonies from 1775-1782. Thus, during the Seven Years' War and the American Revolution, he was in correspondence with the leaders in the military, naval, and civil services. By far the greater part of the papers in this collection, therefore, are really state papers. Such are letters from Wolfe and Amherst written in 1758. Such, also, are the letters, reports, and instructions to and from Burgoyne, Clinton, Cornwallis, Rodney, Arbuthnot, Collier, and W. Eden, afterward Lord Auckland (1775-1782). Besides these, and dealing with English politics rather than with the American war, are letters from Lord North, Lord Suffolk, etc. Many of these are marked "Private" or "Most Secret." Taken altogether, they give one an inside view of the conduct of the war. Especially is the want of confidence felt by Clinton, Arbuthnot, and Rodney toward each other brought out. The despatches from Lord Cornwallis give a full account of his campaigns in the Southern colonies; while those of Burgoyne add considerably to our knowledge of his operations in the North. As throwing a sidelight on the history of the time, should be mentioned a collection of letters from Lord George to his friend, Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Irwin (1761-1784); and a few letters from Lieut.-Col. Benjamin Thompson, afterward Count Rumford, to Lord George Germain.

—No doubt in all federations there is a contest between the centralizing and the decentralizing forces. In the United States centralization has had the upper hand since the war, and perhaps the opposite tendency is to have its turn, though it is difficult to see what it can do beyond delaying the inevitable a few years. In Switzerland an era of centralization is perhaps just beginning. The particular occasion of its manifestation at present is the choice of a place of deposit for a very fine collection of lacustrine relics bought for 60,000 francs from Doctor Gross. The Federal Council, in announcing the purchase, said that probably some of the cities of western Switzerland would be glad to furnish a room for it; and if, contrary to all expectation, they should not, it would be temporarily deposited at the Polytechnic School at Zurich. Geneva, Lausanne, Neuchâtel, Neuveville, and Bienne immediately offered excellent quarters in connection with their respective scientific establishments. But, after all, the Federal Council decided to put it into the Federal palace at Bern. Of course there was great disappointment among the lake cities, and a shiver of apprehension among the partisans of State rights. With the Gross collection at the Federal capital, will there not soon be a National Museum there, which certain bolder spirits have been talking of for some time? And if a national historical and prehistoric museum is once founded, everything will go to it, and then what will become of the museums at the cities we mentioned above, and at Basle, Aarau, Lucerne, Saint-Gall, and Schaffhausen? No such fears were felt when our National Museum was founded, but we Americans proverbially take things easy, and then our country is so large that one city can never entirely dwarf the rest, particularly a city that is never likely to have either manufactures or commerce to any extent. It is otherwise with Switzerland, and it would really be a pity if any one of her cities should be the Paris of the rest.

—A French lady has sent to the *Revue Bleue* some reminiscences of Colorado, where she was (and perhaps is) living with her husband, at Golden, six miles from Denver. The familiar features of Western life are detailed—the social equality, the difficulty of getting servants, the poor quality of the service when one succeeds in getting any, the monotonously bad cooking, the enormous quantity of sweets devoured, the sudden reverses of fortune, the occasional violence and the occasional lynching, the washerwomen who own pianos and the expressmen who live in clematis-covered villas, the juxtaposition of the telephone and the Nez-Percés. We have heard of all these things from Americans and Englishmen, but one is curious to know how they strike an intelligent Frenchwoman. This one, at least, is well pleased. She thinks the climate admirable, the moonlight magnificent; she is proud of the quick growth of the eight-year-old State, of its mineral and agricultural riches, of the wonderful railroads through the mountains, and of the enchanting Middle Park. The art she laughs at, and no wonder, for American art to her was exemplified by an enormous painting in a Denver hotel, ingeniously representing Adam and Eve without navels, on the ground that as they never had been born they could not have had them. The cookery, too, she detests, and felicitates herself on having secured a Marseilles cook and a maid who, according to American custom, "is called a Swede because she is a Norwegian." Nor does she speak altogether well of the people: they are amusing for a month or two, while one is getting acquainted with the genus, but there are no species—the individuals are just alike. "Charley resembles Georgy, and Georgy does not differ more from Dicks than if Charley,

Georgy, and Dicks had been cast from the same mould." Society does not please her better. She wants something more select than a reunion of Colonel X, the hardware dealer Y, and young Z, who drives a wood-cart. She feels uncomfortable when, in a dance, she takes the hand of the sheriff, which the day before may have tied the noose round the neck of a criminal. Yet she acknowledges some of the good results of this equality—the refined manners of the expressman's wife, the musical education of the washerwoman's son, the fortitude in bearing reverses of fortune which comes from poverty being an inconvenience only, and not a disgrace. It is a curious instance of the way in which things happen in couples, that almost at the same moment this lady, who perhaps never heard of Matthew Arnold, and Matthew Arnold, who certainly never heard of this lady, should publish—the one in London, the other in Paris—the same comparison of France and America. Matthew Arnold, in his palinode in the *Nineteenth Century*, declared that in France the hatred between rich and poor is intense, because there, though the institutions may be republican, the ideas and the morals are not republican; while in America there is no such hatred, and the United States is in no danger of revolution, because ideas and morals are republican as well as institutions. Mme. G. praises the Yankees because, instead of putting Equality on the walls (alluding to the inscription "Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité" which one sees on every public building and church in Paris), they have introduced it into their social customs.

—Berlioz's Symphonie Fantastique, "Épisode de la Vie d'un Artiste," formed the principal number of Saturday's Philharmonic programme, which also contained Schumann's "Manfred" overture, Wagner's Siegfried Idyl, and Rheinberger's symphonic tone-pictures of "Wallenstein's Camp and the Capuchin's Sermon." Regarding Berlioz's symphony—if we may perpetrate a Hibernicism—we feel tempted to remark that its best feature is the twenty-page essay which Schumann wrote on it. This essay is based on the remarkable pianoforte arrangement made by Liszt; but as the instrumentation is therein briefly indicated, Schumann was enabled to form a fairly accurate estimate of Berlioz's work. This estimate is on the whole very favorable, but it is noticeable that Schumann did not preserve his interest in Berlioz's following efforts, for, although his critical pen remained active for many years, he did not again employ it in Berlioz's behalf. The essay is of interest not only as an analysis of the fantastic symphony, but as a confession of Schumann's creed regarding programme music and other questions that divide musical opinion; and it is so full of subtle suggestions that it forms a more valuable treatise on musical æsthetics than the systematic works of German metaphysicians, not excepting Hanslick's popular book on 'The Beautiful in Music.' What, for instance, could be more delicious and instructive than Schumann's remark, that the Berlioz symphony contains "many commonplace harmonies and some that are faulty or at least forbidden by the old rules, *some of which, however, have a superb effect*," or, as a topsy-turvy Frenchman put it, "que cela est fort beau, quoique ce n'est pas de la musique." Abrupt and "faulty" harmonic progressions have been made so familiar (and dear) to modern ears by Liszt and Wagner that if Schumann wrote at the present day, he would hardly deem it necessary or advisable to call attention to them. Schumann is very indignant with Fétis for asserting that Berlioz lacks melodic and harmonic ideas: "If M. Fétis asserts that in regard to melody even the warmest friends of Berlioz do not dare to defend him, then I must count myself among Berlioz's enemies; bear in mind, however, that I am not speaking of Italian melody, *which we know by heart before it commences.*" In this question we regret to be obliged to side with that old fogy, Fétis. The Fantastic Symphony was so admirably rendered under Mr. Thomas's bâton on Saturday that all its features must have been made clear; yet ideas, both melodic and harmonic, seemed to us as scarce as wild strawberries in November. It is, however, a very creditable composition for a youth of seventeen, and it gives evidence of that mastery of the orchestra which Berlioz subsequently carried to such a point of perfection. Many passages give an impression as if the orchestral effect had risen in his mind first, whereupon a musical theme was sought to wed with it; but the coy ideas refused to come at his bidding. Schumann very properly defends Berlioz's method of sacrificing "beauty" to realism (characterization) where the subject demands this; but he seems to draw the line at Berlioz's deliberate burlesque of the *Dies Iræ*. On the other hand, we do not share Schumann's objections to the elaborate programme which Berlioz wrote for his symphony, for it seems to us that this programme is a greater work of art than the symphony itself. It is a weird prose-poem in five scenes, depicting in the first three movements the dreams, sufferings, and hopes of a lover; in the fourth his despair, and an opium-dream in which he beholds himself dragged to execution for having murdered his sweetheart; and in the fifth a dream in a "Sabbath" night in which devilish orgies are witnessed, the fixed idea or typical melody associated with his love is degraded, and sacred things parodied. In this last scene bells are introduced, those used on Saturday being the set of bars that were prepared last year for the performance of selections from "Parsifal." Not many years ago it was customary to speak of a Wagner-Berlioz school, and in regard to instrumentation there is some justification for thus coupling these names together; but an examination of Berlioz's programme to his fantastic symphony shows that the two composers resembled each other more in their literary power of depicting a situation vividly with a few well-chosen words than they did in the character of their music. As for Schumann, we suspect, in view of his subsequent silence, that his championship of Berlioz was in this instance due largely to the fact that Berlioz boldly came forward and made practical demonstration of certain revolutionary principles which Schumann secretly cherished, and was eager to proclaim at the first opportunity.

INDIA IN 1857.

The Personal Adventures and Experiences of a Magistrate during the Rise, Progress, and Suppression of the Indian Mutiny. By Mark Thornhill, Bengal Civil Service, Retired. London: John Murray.

In the days of the Delhi Emperors, India, for administrative purposes, was divided into *soubahs*, or provinces, each of which was ruled by a Soubahdar; and these soubahs were further subdivided into *zillahs* or districts. The district was the administrative unit, and its administration was intrusted to an official called the Zemindar—the most powerful landed proprietor in the district being, as a rule, the person pitched upon for this office. The *sunnud*, or patent appointing him, specified that he was to "observe a conciliatory conduct toward the ryots and inhabitants at large, exerting himself to the utmost in punishing and expelling the refractory"; that he was to "pay the revenue of government into the public treasury at the stated periods"; that he was to "encourage the body of the landholders in such a manner that signs of an increased cultivation and improvement of the country may daily appear," and to "keep the highroads in such repair that travellers may pass and repass in the fullest confidence and security." This ancient system of administration remains unsubverted to this day. But the soubahs are now governed by English Governors, Lieutenant-Governors, or Chief Commissioners, according to their size and importance; and in the zillah, an English official known as a Magistrate-Collector has replaced the Zemindar of bygone times. The functions of the magistrate are identical with those of the Zemindar. He is a kind of factotum whom the Government holds responsible for everything, and the consequence is that at first hand, at least, he knows very little indeed. To execute his orders and conduct all inquiries he has under him a huge army of underpaid native subordinates, and these are, in deed and in truth, the veritable rulers of British India at this moment. They are spread out as an impenetrable wall between the magistrate and the great body of the people. The daily routine of his official work is as much as the overworked magistrate can get through in the day. He has no time to sift and examine into the statements and reports made by his native subordinates; he has to accept whatever information they choose to pour into his ears, from sheer inability to ascertain anything more authentic for himself.

The destruction of the native gentry—which has invariably been the first result of the introduction of British rule in an Indian province—has greatly aggravated the isolation of the magistrate-collector, by removing the one class which might have possessed sufficient courage and independence of spirit to resist the oppression of the subordinate officials of the Government. Indeed, the position filled in old time by this ruined aristocracy is now in a great measure occupied by men who were at one time petty employees of the British administration, or who became possessed of it by means of an illicit and nefarious collusion with them. It was due to this absolute separation from the people that such an insurrection as that of 1857 was secretly matured through a great part of the Bengal Presidency, without any forewarning of the event reaching a single one of the many scores of magistrates who imagined themselves to be governing their districts at the time. Mr. Thornhill, whose book we are about to review, was one of these magistrates, and he confesses his own entire ignorance, at the time, of the habits, feelings, and thoughts of the native population, with an ingenuous candor which disarms censure, but cannot but excite a good deal of amazement. It inevitably suggests the thought—are the relations between rulers and ruled in a healthier condition now? Or, is it not the case that the increased facilities for returning to Europe have made an even deeper gulf between them, and that a mine might be dug beneath the very feet of the unconscious ruling class as easily in 1885 as in 1857? Quitting these speculations, we can cordially commend Mr. Thornhill's "experiences" to the notice of all those interested in the history and the future of that marvellous anomaly, the British empire in India. As regards the efficient causes of the general collapse of British authority throughout Bengal, which followed almost instantly upon the occurrence of the military mutiny at Meerut, they will find more light thrown from the pages of this modestly written and unassuming little book than in any of the histories of the Sepoy War (so far, that is, as we are acquainted with them). With Mr. Thornhill's book we would couple another, published shortly after the mutiny, entitled 'Personal Adventures during the

Mutiny,' by a Mr. Edwards, like Mr. Thornhill, an Indian magistrate.

Mr. Thornhill was magistrate of the district of Muttra, in the Northwest Provinces, when the insurrection began, and the chief part of the present volume is taken up with a narrative of his personal experiences. He was frequently in situations of considerable peril, and these he describes with an unobtrusive minuteness which reminds the reader of Defoe's descriptions, and which impresses him in a very similar way. But the lasting value of the book arises from the many incidental touches revealing the weaknesses and imperfections of the British Government, the fond and wistful manner in which, beneath a resigned exterior, the people clung to the remembrance of that old order which the English had overthrown, and the zest with which they relished the brief period of recovered freedom. Take, for example, the following passage. If no other portion of the people had regretted the collapse of British rule, it might have been expected to kindle a lively regret in the minds of those native subordinates who reaped so many illicit advantages from its peculiar constitution. The termination of British rule meant the termination of their day of power, not less than that of their white official superiors. Yet this is how they greeted the intelligence:

"When breakfast was over I left my guests and went to my own room, where my office people were assembled. I had hitherto kept silence about the mutiny, so far at least as was possible, partly from fear of exciting alarm, partly lest, if the news should prove false, I might appear ridiculous. There was now no longer any object in concealment. I told them what I had heard; they expressed great astonishment; but ere long I perceived from the remarks they let fall that they had heard it all before, and, indeed, as regarded what had occurred at Delhi, that they were much better informed than I was. All regular work was suspended; when a few papers had been signed and some orders issued, there remained nothing more to do. However, to while away the time, I continued to chat with them about the events at Delhi. They soon got so interested in the country as partly to forget my presence. Their talk was all about the ceremonial of the palace, and how it would be revived. They speculated as to who would be the Grand Chamberlain, which of the Chiefs of Rajpootana would guard the different gates, and who were the fifty-two Rajahs who would assemble to place the Emperor on the throne. As I listened I realized, as I had never done before, the deep impression that the splendor of the ancient court had made on the popular imagination, how dear to them were its traditions, and how faithfully all unknown to us they had preserved them. There was something weird in the Mogul Empire thus starting into a sort of phantom life after the slumber of a hundred years."

We have referred to the annihilation of the native aristocracy as constituting the first and invariable result of the introduction of British rule in an Indian province. This annihilation, which was deliberate and intentional, was due to a cause which, in the histories of the English in India, has been allowed to fall almost out of sight, viz.: the commercial character of the East India Company. For a long time after it became the sovereign power in India, the Company continued also a trading association, having commercial dealings with India and China, and responsible for the punctual payment of dividends to the proprietors of the East India stock, as well as other heavy liabilities. But for the carrying on of these commercial operations, and the discharge of these recurring liabilities, it did not possess one farthing of capital beyond that which its Governors-General could extract from its "Indian estates" after paying the costs of the administration and that of the wars in which they were so incessantly involved. Thus the Government at Calcutta was always under a necessity to transmit annually large sums to the Court of Directors over and above the normal charges of the administration; and so urgent was the pressure put upon them from London, that when Lord William Bentinck was Governor-General, he actually contemplated the pulling down of that beautiful and unique building, the Taj at Agra, in order to sell the marble, and so for a brief period silence the clamors of the Court of Directors. The Indian landed aristocracy fell victims to the greed and impecuniosity of the East India Company in their character as a trading association. They were condemned to destruction as a class absorbing for their own uses a large amount of wealth, which under a wiser and more equitable order of things would be divided, in the form of half-yearly dividends, among the proprietors of East India stock. To justify the ruin of this class and the confiscation of their property, it was represented as sunk in indolence and debauchery; as exercising a cruel and universal tyranny over the masses of the people, the extinction of which would do more to strengthen and popularize British rule in India than any other policy that could be devised. It never occurred to the framers of this remarkable policy that the ruin of the landed aristocracy was not equivalent to their extermination from the face of the earth. Though impoverished, they still continued to dwell amid the scenes of their former wealth and influence, with hearts full of just wrath against the causes of their misfortunes, and eager to seize upon the first opportunity for retaliation. As little did it occur to the Court of Directors or their officials in India, that, though the common people might acquiesce in the destruction of the aristocracy, if they benefited by it, they would have no cause to do so if the reverse was the case. And, as it happened, their last state proved to be worse than their first. The disappearance of the aristocracy did not lighten their burdens by a single penny; on the contrary, the money which these wealthy land-owners used to expend was now carried clean out of the country, for the benefit of a trading company at the other end of the world.

As long as the Indian Government could rely upon its native soldiers to enforce its commands, the effects of this sordid policy were not apparent. But when its native army mutinied, its power collapsed everywhere except in the immediate vicinity of its few English regiments. It could not be said that the people threw it off: it merely came to an end and disappeared.

"Three weeks," writes Mr. Thornhill, "had hardly elapsed since the commencement of the mutiny, but in that short period a large portion of the district had lapsed into anarchy. Order was only maintained in the towns, *and in those few portions of the country where the ancient proprietors still held possession of their villages.*" "It was," he adds in another place, "the belief of the Government and also of the English generally, that the natives were attached to our rule, and, moreover, that, weary of the present anarchy, they longed for the reëstablishment of order. My present experience did not confirm this belief. No one regretted the loss of our rule, and, with the exception of the Bunniahs (*i. e.*, money-lenders) who suffered by it, all classes enjoyed the confusion. A large landholder once expressed his feelings to me very frankly. He said 'that the last three months had been the happiest of his life. He went about in state, and did what he liked; whom he would he punished, and whom he would he rewarded.' . . . 'Besides,' he continued, 'what with the heavy land revenue, the school rates, and all the other new cesses, the taxation had become pretty well unbearable.' In a large proprietor, these sentiments were natural, but it was a little surprising to find that very similar sentiments were entertained by the peasant cultivators, and by that still lower class who, of all others, had especially benefited by our rule. . . . They liked the freedom they were then enjoying—they liked the excitement; and, better than all, they liked paying no revenue and wiping off old scores with the Bunniahs. To a certain extent, I could enter into their feelings. The change in the appearance of the country was, even to a spectator, very agreeable. . . . In every village fortifications sprang up, the grandees resumed their ancient state, surrounded themselves with troops of attendants, hosts of armed retainers. When they appeared abroad it was with cavalcades of beautiful horses, camels gayly caparisoned, and crowds of followers carrying swords and spears, and clothed in the brightest of dresses. Life was now for them full of poetry, full of romance and wondrous rumors, vague anticipations."

Not less valuable than these authentic glimpses of native life and feeling is Mr. Thornhill's description of the British Government, its hopeless bondage to routine, and its consequent incapacity to deal with, or even to understand, a crisis so unexpected as the insurrection of 1857. The Punjab saved the rest of the Bengal Presidency because there British rule was too recent a creation to have "lost touch" of the people; but in the Northwest Provinces the officials, from long working in official grooves, were as men at work in a deep cutting. The surrounding country was now hidden from their eyes—unknown and disregarded. What saved the British dominion was the inability of the population to combine or even to form any general plan, and the non-appearance of a leader of commanding character. These elements of weakness insure the permanence of British rule in India so long as it is not menaced or assailed by foes from without. But the force of circumstances is now compelling the English to defend their interests in India by the occupation of countries which are not a part of it, and where they will come into contact—and probably into collision—with European Powers. We refer to the position of affairs in Egypt, in Afghanistan, and Burmah. It is certain that at no distant date these three countries must become outlying provinces of their Indian Empire, with the effect that Russia at one extremity and France at another will become their immediate neighbors. In the event of a rupture with either of these Powers, the stability of their rule in India would be menaced by dangers for which there is no precedent in its previous history. The Indian garrison—and especially the English portion of it—would have to be concentrated at points far outside of the Indian frontiers (properly so called), leaving British authority within those limits at the mercy of the uncoerced loyalty of the people.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF PRODUCTS.

The Distribution of Products, or the Mechanism and the Metaphysics of Exchange. By Edward Atkinson. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS work consists of three essays entitled respectively, "What makes the Rate of Wages?" "What is a Bank?" and "The Railway, the Farmer, and the Public." It is evident that some of the most important questions of modern society may be treated under these heads. As a matter of fact, the first and most important essay discusses the whole subject of the distribution of wealth in our modern industrial economy. Mr. Atkinson's fundamental proposition is the formula of Bastiat, that, "in proportion to the increase of capital, the absolute share of a given product falling to capital is augmented, but the relative share is diminished, while, on the other hand, the share falling to labor is increased both absolutely and relatively." He assumes that if this statement can be proved to be true, the whole question of the future of the laboring classes is solved in an eminently satisfactory way. For if the laborers are obtaining a constantly increasing share of the product both absolutely and relatively in comparison with the capitalists, their condition must be constantly improving, and every year is bringing us nearer the time when the present strained relation of laborer and

employer will give way to an "era of good feeling" which must be permanent, since it will rest on a flourishing state of the laborers, coupled with a full recognition on their part of the beneficent service of capital.

Gladly as we would believe in the probability of such a solution of our present social problems, we are nevertheless compelled to ask for a stronger proof of it than Mr. Atkinson has given us. It is a life-and-death question in our modern world. Mr. Atkinson tells us it is solving itself in the most happy way. If so, of course, we need take no positive measures of any kind; but if, on the contrary, these problems will not solve themselves, it is possible that we may be lulled into a false security by such hope-inspiring prophets until it be too late. Two strong objections may be made to our author's view. In the first place, it cannot be admitted that either he or Bastiat has proved the proposition in question. The plan of proof adopted is very simple. It is *assumed* that capital gets only 5 per cent. of the selling price of a commodity as profit, and that 5 per cent. goes to taxes, etc., leaving the total residue of 90 per cent. for the laborer. It is further assumed that formerly capital received 10 per cent., and taxes, etc., 5 per cent., leaving only 85 per cent. for labor. It is then concluded that while, owing to the increase of production, the absolute amount falling to capital may be increased, yet the relative proportion of the total product falling to capital has been decreased, while both the absolute amount and relative proportion falling to labor have increased.

The fallacy of the reasoning, even if we grant the facts, which are far from established, is very evident. The whole conclusion rests upon an identification of two very dissimilar things, viz., the *share* of a product which capital gets and the *current rate of interest*. The difference may be illustrated by a very simple example. Suppose A borrows capital to manufacture a commodity which requires one dollar's worth of labor to every dollar of raw material and machinery in its production. The product can be sold for $2 10 if A can get capital for 5 per cent., and does not charge for his own labor, provided the commodity can be made and sold within one year. If, however, the manufacturer must keep the commodity on the average one year after finishing it, he must sell at an advance of ten cents, or for $2 20. The *rate of interest* has remained the same, but the *share* of the product which capital takes is 10 instead of 5 per cent. of the first cost. If he has to hold it two years, the share of capital is still further increased. In the same way the *share* of capital may be maintained or even increased in the face of a falling rate of interest, if the amount of capital required in the creation of a given product increases correspondingly. That this amount has increased in certain branches of industry is highly probable; whether it has not increased in all, is a question which Mr. Atkinson does not investigate, though it lies at the very basis of all satisfactory argument on this point.

But even if this proposition were firmly established, it would be very far from justifying Mr. Atkinson's conclusions. As a social question, the problem of labor and capital would not by any means be solved by proving that the laborers as a class were getting a continually increasing share of the product, both absolutely and relatively. It is perfectly possible for the share of the laboring class to be continually increasing while the share of an individual laborer is as continually decreasing, owing to the increasing number of laborers—a case which Mr. Atkinson does not even consider worthy of mention. Further, the disturbing element in the case is not after all, so much the heightened or lowered standard of life of the laborer, as his discontent with his present condition. And the practical question, from that point of view, is simply, Does this increasing share in the product, even if it be an actual thing, offer any guarantee that it will finally allay that deep and apparently ever-deepening under-current of discontent which exists on the part of the laboring classes of every civilized country? Even if the share of capital is relatively decreasing, is it not probably true that, owing to the concentration of capital in larger and larger masses, it is possible for the capitalist classes to live on such a scale of extravagance as to impress more powerfully than ever on the minds of the laborers a sense of the wide disparity of their conditions? The laborer of to-day is a very different being from his predecessor of fifty or even of twenty-five years ago. As a political factor, the latter was nothing, the former is powerful. Suppose his grandfather did live in a hut, with a dirt floor and no windows, with but one room to be shared with his pig or goat, while he lives in a house of two or three rooms in a well-drained and well-lighted city; suppose the former had nothing to eat but potatoes and black bread, while the latter can indulge in meat once a day and white bread at every meal—a case by no means universal—how will all this help matters, if the desires of the laborer of to-day have so far outrun the present possibilities of satisfying them that he is in such a permanently discontented condition as to make him ready to listen to the wildest proposals of agitator and demagogue? May not his improved condition, under such circumstances, be the source of all the greater danger, since it enables him to combine with other laborers more easily, and to use with all the greater effect the ballot which will soon be in his hand in every civilized country.

Mr. Atkinson's general conception of the subject is not always consistent with itself. He claims in one place that the rate of wages is determined by conditions over which neither employer nor employee has any control whatever; while he says in another passage that the question of the rate of wages is at bottom one of capacity and character. Surely capacity and character can be influenced by both employer and employee. Aside from the above points, however, the author's presentation of the subject suffers from two fundamental errors, of which one has been mentioned above. In the first place, he divides society into two classes—capitalists and laborers. All income must accrue either to the one or the other as profits or wages. What the one class does not get, the other must. This is a highly artificial simplification of the problem. The most superficial acquaintance with the latest discussions of the problem would have kept him from this error. The theories of Cairnes and Walker, which he expressly accepts (p. 24), certainly give no ground for any such view. It is impossible to discuss the subject on such a basis without falling into serious inconsistencies.

Mr. Atkinson defines wages to be that sum which those receive who agree in advance to work for a fixed payment, either by the piece or by the day, month, or year. Profits he identifies with interest, and fixes them at 5 per cent. Where, in this scheme, shall we class the extra profits of a manufacturer over and above the current rate of interest? It is a well-known fact that they often amount to many times the current rate of interest. They cannot be wages, according to Mr. Atkinson's own definition. This portion of national income Mr. Atkinson ignores in his main presentation, though he finally drags in a portion of it half surreptitiously on page 70, under the title of "a sum necessary to secure the best administration." Of course, under this classification the landlord and rent disappear completely—the latter, wherever mentioned, being identified with interest on capital; Mr. Atkinson attempts to ignore them both. He mentions land (p. 25) as an instrument useless and valueless in itself, and says that the annual product is made by the coöperation of labor and capital alone—a statement which is inconsistent with both previous and following statements. This is a very easy but a very unsatisfactory method of disposing of such a much-discussed class as landlords. Mr. Atkinson finds it impossible to conduct the discussion on such a basis, for when he attempts (appendix, p. 99) to refute a very common industrial sophism, he is compelled to assume the existence of the very class—landlords—and the very thing—rent—as something distinct from interest on capital, which up to that time he so persistently overlooks.

The second error appears most glaringly in his discussion of his fundamental formula, $x - d = e \div f = i$. Here x=total annual product subject to consumption and distribution, d = profits, e = wage-fund, f = number of laborers, and i = average rate of wages. Our author proceeds to say that if x increases more rapidly than d, then e must correspondingly increase, and consequently i will increase more rapidly than d—Q. E. D.! This ignores entirely the variable nature of f, which may increase so rapidly as to make i continually less; and Mr. Atkinson, feeling undoubtedly that if he would make his point good he must demolish Malthus, designates his theory as "an abhorrent and atheistic dogma" (p. 16).

In spite of these defects, the essay is a very interesting and suggestive one. The proof that a high rate of wages does not necessarily signify high cost of production and a low rate, low cost, is very complete, and much more satisfactory than usual from the distinction strongly and rightly insisted upon by Mr. Atkinson between *rate of wages* and *sum of wages* in the manufacture of a given product—the latter being a determining element in costs of production. The appendices contain much valuable matter, which, however, rather tells against than in favor of Mr. Atkinson's general position.

The essay on the "Railway, the Farmer, and the Public" shows in a most striking manner the great service done to our national economy by the railways, and presents by the graphic method the great reduction in costs of transportation which has been brought about by the consolidation of the chief lines of railway. According to Mr. Atkinson's showing, we have reason to congratulate ourselves on almost every feature of our present railway system. Every good thing which Government interference might have brought has been attained, without any of the evils which would surely have followed had Government attempted to regulate railway traffic.

A Popular Manual of English Literature. By Maude Gillette Phillips. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1885.

THIS manual, the preface tells us, is an attempt to combine three books in one—a school handbook, a guide to the general reader, and a book of reference. Unfortunately such a combination is impracticable. A school manual of literature should aim to give the student, in a clear, concise, and continuous form, that essential information which he ought to retain in his memory as a guide in his after reading, such as the characteristics of the chief periods and the influences operative in them, with a brief account of the chief writers and their best works, and what seems to be the final verdict of sound criticism upon them. So far as possible, nothing should be admitted that is not essential and canonical. A guide for the general reader is not a book to be studied and digested, but to be consulted as

occasion arises. Here we may be given freer glances into the various matters of interest connected with, or illustrated by, any part of literature. An account of the crusades may come in apropos of Tasso, or of mediæval philosophy and cosmology apropos of Dante. The reader of either of those poets may turn to his guide for illustration and directions for further study; and, conversely, the student of history or philosophy may here be directed to exemplifications in literature. Conflicting views should be given, that the student may balance judgments and see his subject from several sides. A book of reference, again, should contain the greatest possible number of facts, indications, allusions—references, in short—given with the utmost brevity, and so arranged, systematized, and indexed that they can be found easily and quickly. It is evident that to make a book which shall be brief and yet copious, concise, and discursive, authentic in judgment while embodying widely-varying opinions, is an impossible task.

But, for all this, we do not mean to imply that the book is a bad one because the plan is a mistake. On the contrary, there is much that is excellent in it, and in many ways it deserves a place in libraries, if not in classes. One special merit is the clear recognition of the fact that the profitable study of the literature of a country must comprise some study of alien literatures. The author justly says: "Any study of the early nineteenth-century English literature which ignores Goethe and the philosophical movement in Germany, is shallow and superficial; so would be the study of the eighteenth-century writers without considering the position of France as literary dictator, or of the Elizabethan literature without considering the supremacy of Italian influence." Familiar as this view is—embodying, indeed, the precept and practice of contemporary criticism—it is much to have it laid down as a principle for the construction of a school manual; and the way in which it is carried out constitutes perhaps the most valuable feature of the book.

We are sorry not to be able to speak so favorably of the collections of critical remarks. Never would the sieve, which a famous critical body adopted as its emblem, have done better service. Many of these criticisms are worthless, and fully half are unimportant or superfluous. What use is it, when treating of a poem, to tell us that A thought it great, B carried it in his pocket, and C could repeat pages by heart? We are thankful for, and delight in, the subtle insight of De Quincey, or the warm and tender sympathy of Lowell; but who wants a citation from Southey to the effect that he "fell to the 'Faerie Queene' with relish"; or from George III., that he thought "great part of Shakespeare sad stuff"?

The compiler seems not quite at home in the earlier periods of our literature; and we have marked a number of errors which, no doubt, riper consideration would correct. For instance, speaking of 'Piers the Plowman,' she says, "the rude followers of Wat Tyler read it eagerly, and its Protestant principles exerted almost as great an influence as the preaching of Wyclif." The first statement is improbable conjecture: we have no idea what Wat Tyler's followers read, or if they read anything at all; we have no knowledge what influence the poem exerted in the fourteenth century; and to speak of its Protestant principles is absurd. So when she says that Wyclif's translation of the Bible was "the first ever effected by one person," and that it "provided the English with a literature of the highest style," one can hardly tell which of the two statements is the more surprising.

We part from the book in the hope that it may reach a second edition, as its many merits deserve; and that such edition may have the benefit of careful revision and a liberal use of the pruning-knife. Among minor matters we suggest closer proof-reading, and a better arrangement of the useful and handy tables of authors and other persons of note. An arrangement that places Suckling before Peele, Surrey before Caxton, and sandwiches Lydgate between More and Tyndale, certainly tends to breed confusion.

Elements of Analytic Geometry. By Simon Newcomb, Professor of Mathematics, U. S. Navy. Henry Holt & Co. 1884. 12mo, pp. vii, 356.

In the first chapter of his 'Géométrie Analytique,' Auguste Comte says of that science that it constitutes "the most decisive and consequently the most difficult phase" of mathematical education, and hence concludes that "no other part of mathematical instruction so much deserves the rational solicitude of professors and the active attention of pupils." Professor Newcomb seems to be of the same opinion, and he has accordingly placed in the first chapter of his treatise a series of exercises designed to test the preparation of the student. In the note accompanying them he says: "If he [the student] can perform all the exercises with ease, he is probably well prepared to go on; if he performs them only with difficulty, he may need much assistance in understanding the subject." These exercises are in no respect more difficult than they ought to be for the purpose in view; nevertheless it is quite probable that the average college student, on first attempting them, will be inclined to think that, in the further prosecution of the study, "he may need much assistance." We may, however, remark for his encouragement, that the faithful performance of these exercises, whether "with ease" or "with difficulty," will go a long way in supplying those deficiencies of which he may become conscious.

Professor Newcomb says in his preface that he believes "it better that a student should learn a little thoroughly and understandingly than that he should go over many subjects without mastering them." He seems to have kept this principle constantly in view, and has therefore treated some subjects with great fulness and detail, while others, which usually appear in text-books, are entirely omitted. The straight line, the circle, and the three conic sections, parabola, ellipse, and hyperbola, are treated in a manner wholly in accordance with the spirit of modern geometry. After these follows a most excellent chapter devoted to the discussion of the general equation of the second degree. With this our author leaves the subject of analytic plane-geometry. Most text-books proceed to treat, generally in a very brief manner, some of the higher plane curves, such as the cissoid, conchoid, cycloid, etc. With the exception of a few exercises in chap. ii, in which the student is required to construct the *loci* of some equations in which the ordinate is equal to a trigonometrical function of the abscissa, Professor Newcomb ignores the whole subject. In justification of this omission he might and probably would urge, that the limits of a text-book make necessary a very imperfect and perfunctory treatment of the subject, and that by devoting the space to the more full and complete treatment of the conic sections, which this omission enables him to give, the student will become so imbued with the spirit and methods of analytic geometry that, if he desires, he may proceed, fully equipped, to the study of larger works in which the subject is satisfactorily treated.

Part 2 of the book treats of geometry of three dimensions, a subject which in many of our college text-books of analytic geometry is wholly omitted. It is constructed upon the same general plan as Part 1, and with an apparent desire to render the transition from plane to solid quantity as easy as possible, and to enable the student to avail himself to the fullest extent of the knowledge which he may be supposed to have already acquired. The work concludes with Part 3, which is a brief introduction to some of the methods of modern geometry, or, as it perhaps might be more properly called, the geometry of the nineteenth century.

One does not look in a college text-book for any important additions to the sum of human knowledge. Its object is to present knowledge already contained in many books in such a manner that it may be most speedily and completely acquired by those who desire it. But a text-book that is a mere compilation is generally worthless. It should be the product of a single mind, working, it may be entirely, upon materials originally discovered by others, but which it has made completely its own, and imparting the results of its operations according to a clearly conceived and self-consistent plan. Such a work Professor Newcomb's seems to us to be. One or two matters of detail are all that our space will permit us to notice. On page 5 of his treatise he introduces with the necessary explanations a new symbol, consisting of three horizontal parallel lines (≡), which he uses in two classes of equations instead of the ordinary sign of equality. For reasons which we have no room to explain, we do not regard this as necessary, and we do regard the introduction into mathematics or any other science of a new symbol or term for which very strong reasons cannot be given, as a small misfortune. But we have another objection. If our memory is not at fault, this symbol was invented by Gauss in the early part of the present century, and introduced by him to denote the notion of *congruence*, which it is not necessary to explain further than to state that it is quite different from the meaning attached to the symbol by Professor Newcomb. It was afterward used by Möbius, in his 'Barycentrischer Kalkül,' in accordance with the usage of Gauss. In the second edition of his 'Ausdehnungslehre' (1862), Grassmann introduced the symbol with due acknowledgments to Gauss and Möbius, and a few years later it was employed by Montferrier in his 'Encyclopédie Mathématique' in the same manner as by Gauss. In view of this long usage it would seem advisable not to give a different meaning to the symbol, but to invent a new one if any be necessary. To students who use Professor Newcomb's work as a text-book it will, of course, make no difference.

In treating geometry of three dimensions, Professor Newcomb uses the symbols X, Y, Z as applied to coördinates in space, in the same manner in which they are used in physics and astronomy, though this differs somewhat from the manner in which they are generally used in treatises on analytic geometry. On the whole, we think it a desirable innovation. It is certainly very absurd in a matter which, abstractly, is entirely arbitrary, to learn to use them in one way in pure mathematics, and then be obliged to use them in another in all practical applications.

A misprint of some importance occurs on p. 15, lines 23 and 24. The signs of the coördinates of points in the fourth quarter of space are there assigned to those in the third, and vice versa.

The next and concluding volume of Professor Newcomb's course, treating of the Calculus, will be looked for with perhaps more interest than any preceding one.

Studies in Animal Painting. With 18 Colored Plates from Water-color Drawings. By Frederick Tayler, late President of the Royal Society of Painters in Water Colors. Cassell & Co.

If there be no royal road to Art, there is, at least, a cheap one to drawing, though it may be doubted

if the teaching of either by chromo-lithography has done any good on the whole. What it may be supposed to have done in making good pictures superficially familiar to the masses, has been quite counteracted by its having facilitated the spread of bad methods of execution, and the unintelligent following of good methods which makes them bad in their influence. The only efficient and wise training in drawing is to teach the pupils to see clearly and draw distinctly and accurately, in the largest manner, what is set before them to draw. Nothing can be more destructive to all sense of fidelity to form or color than to be taught to draw certain things in certain conventional ways, as the old drawing-masters used to prescribe foliage and rock form, and as, since chromos came in, the modern ones compound tints for certain objects and effects. If the pupil has any genuine perception of color, this process will blunt it, and if he has none he will do nothing good in color. As to Art, there is so little notion of teaching it nowadays, except in what is done in some of the more important schools, that no mention need be made of it. What we most want in Art is individuality, and this is absolutely stifled by any such system as is taught in the drawing-books of which the one before us is an example, while for coloring (tinting, perhaps, would be a better term) in realistic drawing from nature the prescribing of tints by rule and measure is the least apt means to make the pupil see what the color of nature is.

For amateurs who have no higher object than amusement, these books furnish a cheap source of satisfaction, and when they know that a donkey is to be painted mainly in "raw umber with a mixture of light red and cobalt for the gray," "with some touches of Vandyke brown and burnt sienna about the nose-band, mane, and tail," and "in the foreground raw and burnt sienna," it makes art seem cheap and easy in their eyes—which is all that they want. This method of education is the *reductio ad absurdum* of that by which noted drawing-masters make comfortable incomes by teaching art at a guinea a lesson, and graduate their pupils in a dozen lessons, and which has had no insignificant part in the modern degradation of Art, and destruction of what influence it might have had if kept more sincere and individual, and less closely counterfeited.

Émile; or, Concerning Education. Extracts, containing the principal elements of pedagogy found in the first three books. By Jules Steeg. Translated by Eleanor Worthington. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 1885.

M. STEEG's introduction and notes show him to be well aware that 'Émile' has little place in the pedagogy of our day except as a stimulus. At every turn one must doubt it, differ from it, read between the lines, as he says. Those will perhaps derive most profit from it who come to it from the most opposite reading possible—say, from a course in Darwin. The intellectual pleasure of contrasting or even of reconciling two such geniuses as Rousseau and the author of the 'Origin of Species,' is not inconsiderable, and there is much food for reflection in the conditions which made both the Frenchman and the Englishman revolutionaries in the thought of their time.

The translation of such a master of style as Rousseau must forever present great difficulties, and these are increased by the frequent subtlety and obscurity of his thought. For this reason, doubtless, English versions of the 'Émile' are neither numerous nor of recent date. A few test passages of the one before us will serve as illustrations. We read on page 13:

"Now, of these three different educations, that of nature does not depend upon us; that of circumstances depends upon us only in certain respects; that of men is the only one of which we are really masters, and that solely *because we think we are.* For who can hope to direct entirely the speech and conduct of all who surround a child?"

The phrase we have underlined has in this place no logical force or meaning. It stands for the French "par supposition," for which some such rendering as "theoretically" must be adopted. "Even of this we are masters only in imagination," runs the Edinburgh translation of 1773. Moreover, we see no good reason for departing from the punctuation of the original, which puts a period after "respects." The next sentence would then read: "That of men is the only one of which we are really masters, and that only theoretically—for who can hope, etc."

Miss Worthington's version proceeds, without a break:

"*As soon, therefore, as education becomes an art,* its success is almost impossible, since the agreement of circumstances necessary to this success is independent of personal effort. All that the utmost care can do is to approach more or less nearly our object."

Here, again, the connection is obscured. "Sitôt donc que l'éducation est un art," runs the original, and this requires to be interpreted, "To the extent, therefore, that education is artificial," or, more freely, "Our systematic education, therefore."

To go back a little, in the same chain of argument, we read: "What we learn by our own experience about things that *interest* us, is the education of circumstances." Here we have a very ill-chosen equivalent for "*affectent,*" which signifies environment and contact, quite in the neutral sense of our "affect." "The *things* that interest us" is also to be criticised as implying "*choses*" and not "*objets*" in the original, whereas the distinction between these two terms is at least as great as in English. In the next sentence but one, concerning the different lessons of the three sorts of education, the desideratum is that "they all *touch upon the same points* and tend towards the same object"—in the French, "tombent toutes sur les mêmes points." Here the sense would be more exactly expressed by "be applied to the same points." Niceties like these are not unworthy of the work itself or of the end the compiler and translator had in view; and we shall not, we trust, be thought captious in insisting upon them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Drake, C. D. A Treatise on the Law of Suits by Attachment in the United States. Sixth edition, revised. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Emerson, G. B., and Flint, C. L. Manual of Agriculture. Revised by Dr. Chas. A. Goessmann. Orange Judd Co. $1.50.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. XVIII. Orn-Pht. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Evans, W. F. The Primitive Mind-Cure. Boston: H. H. Carter & Co.
Evans, W. F. Mental Medicine: a Theoretical and Practical Treatise on Medical Psychology. Boston: H. H. Carter & Co.
Fiske, John. American Political Ideas, Viewed from the Standpoint of Universal History. Harper & Bros, $1.
Flemming, H. A Carpet Knight: a Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Fenton, F. St. Paul's Epistles in Modern English. De Witt C. Lent. $1.
Furlong, A. Echoes of Memory. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
Gildersleeve, B. L. Pindar: the Olympian and Pythian Odes, with an introductory essay, notes, and indexes. Harper & Brothers. $1.50.
Gray, M. A Treatise on Communication by Telegraph. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Griswold, W. M. An Index to the Leading British Reviews and Magazines for 1882, 1883, and 1884. Bangor, Me.: Q. P. Index.
Hare, A. J. C. Sketches in Holland and Scandinavia. George Routledge & Sons. $1.
Hearn, L. "Gombo Zhèbes." Little Dictionary of Creole Proverbs. Selected from Six Creole Dialects. Will H. Coleman.
Hovey, W. A. Mind-Reading and Beyond. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Inspiration. A Clerical Symposium. Thomas Whittaker $1.50.
Jones, Sarah J. Words and Ways; or, What They Said, and What Come of It. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Keese, W. L. William E. Burton: Actor, Author, and Manager. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Lawrence, W. Decisions of the First Comptroller of the United States Treasury Department. Vol. IV. 1883. Washington.
Lang, A. Rhymes à la Mode. Scribner & Welford.
Leslie, Emma. Dearer than Life: A Tale of the Times of Wiclif. Phillips & Stowe. $1.
Lodge, H. C. The Works of Alexander Hamilton. (Limited Edition.) Vol. I. $5. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Ludlow, James M. Concentric Chart of History. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Mercer, A. G. Bible Characters. Selections from Sermons. 1817-1882. Memoir by Manton Marble. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Meyer, F. H. Havana Cigars. How they are Made and Sold. Philadelphia: F. D. Canfield & Co.
McCosh, Rev. J. The New Departure in College Education. In Reply to President Eliot. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 15 cents.
McTyeire, Bishop H. N. A History of Methodism. Nashville: Southern Methodist Publishing House.
Neill, E. D. Virginia Vetusta, during the Reign of James I. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.

Henry Holt & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 26, 1885.

The Week.

ONE of the first arguments that must be met by an executive, State or national, who refuses to let the demands of the place-hunters of his own party control his appointments is, that such a course will "ruin the party" at the next election. A good deal of this talk has been heard in Washington since President Cleveland's election, and a good deal more of it, and in louder tones, is likely to be heard before the summer is over. To listen to such men, one must suppose that the principles of a party, which are so thoroughly discussed while a campaign is pending, and on which, at that time, so much dependence seems to be placed to influence voters, amount really to nothing; and that securing a majority at the polls is a matter entirely in the control of those comparatively few citizens who either have public offices or want them. The fallacy of such a statement becomes evident to any one who will stop to ask himself if he ever heard it advanced on the stump as a means of changing votes. Did any Republican orator last fall attempt to win Democratic votes away from Mr. Cleveland by showing that he had filled the State offices at his command with a view to the performance of the duties attached to them, rather than with a regard to the wishes of Democratic "leaders" and ward bosses? On the contrary, did not every Blaine supporter seek to find for the Governor's selections some less meritorious reason than personal fitness? The cry of the place-hunters at this juncture comes too late, and in their heart they know it. The secret about serving a party best by serving a country best has been found out. Some recent letters published in the *Evening Post* from North Carolina and Indiana furnish evidence of the fact that in both of those States, where no expression of any Democratic devotion to civil-service reform has ever been allowed, a large part of the Democratic voters will rejoice in any victory that the President may win over the selfish office-seekers who demand places on the strength of party "claims"; and that, instead of weakening his party by the course he has laid out, he will give it a strength which it has lacked ever since the war until the present time, and which, but for the timely presence of a leader with his record, it would be lacking still.

There is a striking parallel between the situation at Washington now and that at Albany when Mr. Cleveland became Governor. All the "workers" of the State Democratic party descended upon him in a body then, and kindly picked out for him the men whom he ought to appoint for various offices. He listened to them patiently, and they went about saying that it was "all right," they "had fixed it with the Governor." Shortly afterward the Governor sent in his appointments, and when the workers saw the names, they exclaimed: "Why, who are these men? These are not the men we recommended!" Not a man of them had ever heard the names mentioned, yet every appointment was a most admirable one. The President is going ahead in the same way now, and nobody is surprised at it except the spoils-hunters, and the partisans who repeated their own misrepresentations of Mr. Cleveland's acts and character so often that they came to believe them. Anything more amusing than the following exclamation from Mr. Murat Halstead's paper, we have not seen in a long time: "The President may be aiming at a national rather than a party reputation. We hope so." Not only the President, but his Mugwump supporters, were "aiming" in that direction all through his term as Governor, and they are merely going ahead on the same line now.

All the foreign appointments made on Monday are based on fitness alone, and are completely separated from purely partisan considerations. The more closely they are examined, the more clearly does their merit appear. In selecting Mr. Phelps for the English mission, Secretary Bayard has acted on the belief that, in view of the constantly increasing importance of the Irish question, and the impending fishery discussion, the English mission needs first of all the services of an able lawyer. That such a man has been found in Mr. Phelps everybody admits. Senator Edmunds, who knows him well, is reported to have said that he regards him as "the foremost lawyer at the North." Secretary Bayard holds a similar view, and is so deeply impressed with his abilities that he has repeatedly said that he considered Mr. Phelps a fitter head for the State Department than he is himself. The testimony to his personal character and general accomplishments is equally emphatic. No word of disapproval comes from any quarter. And yet, when his name was announced on Monday, the almost universal question was: "Who is he?" Not a politician had asked for his appointment, and few of them knew that such a man existed. Secretary Bayard has chosen, perhaps, the one man in the whole country who can most worthily step into Mr. Lowell's shoes, and until he named him nobody had heard him mentioned for the place. The civil-service reformers knew him because he has long been one of their most earnest disciples, and his appointment is in every way a recognition of their principles.

Equally striking in its fitness and significance is the selection of Mr. Pendleton for the Berlin mission. He is the one man in the Democratic party who stands as the personification of civil-service reform. Because of his devotion to it, the Democrats of Ohio deprived him of his seat in the Senate, and their leading newspapers have for years heaped contempt and obloquy upon him. He cannot be said to have any Democratic support in his own State, and he has very little anywhere else. Probably not a single request for his appointment has been made by Democrats, while there is no doubt that strong protests have been made by thousands of them against giving him "recognition" in any form. An effort is even made now to show that he has been slighted by being sent to Berlin rather than to London or Paris, but that will scarcely succeed. Berlin is by far the most important diplomatic post to-day. All the threads of European diplomacy now centre in Bismarck, as they once did in Napoleon at Paris. In addition to this fact, the closeness of our own relations to Germany, through the large German element of our population, makes the position one of the first importance. Mr. Pendleton is probably better fitted to represent this element at Berlin than almost any other man who could be named. His appointment is a rebuke to the spoilsmen of his own party, but it is a recognition of the independence of thousands of German voters in all parts of the country, who voted for President Cleveland because of his civil-service reform principles. Of Governor McLane an eminent American diplomatist has said, that "he is the most thoroughly equipped diplomatist in the United States, in the European sense of the term." He speaks French as fluently as his own tongue, and will be able to get at once into the inside of things in Paris. His selection, like the others, was a surprise to the politicians, but, like the others, it receives nothing but praise. To appreciate fully the merits of such a selection it is only necessary to compare his qualifications with those of some of the men who have been sent to Paris within recent years.

Secretary Manning's commission for putting the service of the Treasury Department upon a thorough business basis is the best which could be named, and we have no doubt that some very valuable results will come from its labors. It is a curious and edifying spectacle to see a Democratic Secretary of the Treasury appointing two Republicans and one Democrat as a commission to reform a service which has been under Republican control for a quarter of a century. More than this, the two Republicans are men of long and faithful service, who, better than any other two men in the Government employ, know just where the abuses are, and can suggest the most simple and direct remedies. A better associate for them than Mr. Fairchild could not be found. There is probably no branch of the Government which stands more in need of pruning than the Treasury Department. Before the inquiry has begun, there is a pretty general agreement that it will result in reducing the force of clerks at least one-third, or from 2,300 to 1,500. This is real civil-service reform, and the manner in which it is to be conducted makes criticism of its genuineness impossible. Nothing shows this more clearly than the amusing effort of the chief Blaine organ to discount its work by shouting, "Higgins!"

A Committee of the Civil-Service Reform Association of Maryland has prepared a statement in detail of the reasons why Higgins ought not to have been appointed, in the shape of proofs of his corrupt electioneering practices in Baltimore, as well as of the general unsavoriness of his private life. In this work, we believe, the Committee has had the coöperation and sympathy of all the best Democrats in Maryland. The

statement is intended for Secretary Manning, and we have little doubt that he will find it sufficient and act on it, for he is not really committed to Higgins in any way, having known nothing of him until Senator Gorman introduced him. There is every day much consolation, if not complete compensation, for the Higgins affair to be found in all the other acts of the Administration. The very slowness and deliberation with which it is acting in the matter of appointments and dismissals is something new in American politics, and is full of hope for the future. No other Administration since the war has passed the month of March after coming into power in the same way. These early weeks used to be given to dividing spoils and satisfying "claims," in the midst of a tremendous tumult and uproar, recalling vividly John Quincy Adams's illustration of the struggles of too many pigs to get their snouts into the same trough, every day bringing news of some fresh unworthy concession of the President to "pressure." There were intrigues and counter intrigues, and hurryings to and fro of "practical men," with solemn warnings of the ruin which would follow if Smith got the post-office, or did not get it, and mysterious letters, to be produced if necessary, and tapping of telegraph wires by counter plotters, and the most furious excitement among all the rascals and ne'er-do-weels in the country—both those who had money enough to go to Washington, and those whom necessity kept at home; the unfortunate people of the United States meanwhile looking on helplessly while their public offices were sacked by bands of "workers." We are this year spared this disgraceful and humiliating spectacle. The pigs, to be sure, are in Washington as usual, and squealing and jostling each other in their efforts to get to the trough; but they find it empty.

The Buffalo *Courier* fancies that it finds an objection to the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson in the cases of Postmaster-General Key, a Democrat, appointed by President Hayes, and of Insurance Superintendent Smyth, a Republican, appointed by Governor Robinson. Under the former case, says the *Courier*, gross frauds were perpetrated upon the Government, but the Republicans denied their responsibility, because the head of the Department was a Democrat. Under the latter, outrageous scandals were brought to light, but the Democrats denied their responsibility because Smyth was a Republican. There is really no similarity between either of these cases and that of the Postmaster of New York. The responsibility of the Republican party for the Star-route frauds was not a whit lessened by the fact that Mr. Key, the Postmaster-General, was a Democrat, nor was that plea ever set up by any respectable person or newspaper. The Democratic party was not held responsible for Mr. Smyth, because his nomination was forced upon Governor Robinson by a corrupt combination of Tammany and Republican Senators who refused to confirm any one else. The scandals of Smyth's office were, therefore, visited justly and in full measure upon the Republican party. Responsibility for Postmaster Pearson is something which the Democratic party ought to be solicitous to acquire, not anxious to avoid. The more they get of that kind the better it will be for them.

Under the appropriate caption, "To the Victors belong the Spoils," the *Tribune* publishes the following item:

"Postmaster-General Vilas is reported as having told Mayor Grace in Washington recently, that if no Democrat could be found in New York who was just as capable to be Postmaster of New York as Mr. Pearson, he would send one down from Wisconsin."

It is not probable that Postmaster-General Vilas ever said anything so foolish as this in all his life. But we recall a saying, well authenticated, of a late Postmaster-General, which might justify Mr. Vilas if he desired to copy the methods of his predecessor. A small post-office in Western New York became vacant by the removal of the Postmaster to another State. A petition was prepared and signed by three-fourths of the Republican voters of the town asking for the appointment of a certain person to the vacant place. This person happened to be a Democrat, and the Congressman of the district happened also to be a Democrat. The latter presented the petition to the Postmaster-General, remarking that the signers were mainly Republicans, and that they were a large majority of all the persons served by the post-office in question. "But is not the candidate a Democrat?" asked the Postmaster-General. "Yes," replied the Congressman, "but the Republicans of the town want him for Postmaster." "Can't help that," was the response; "no Democrat shall be appointed during my term of office if a Republican can be found to take the place." The Congressman was painfully impressed by the swinish instinct which refused on principle to allow the mails to be handled under any circumstances by a Democrat, even at the desire of his Republican neighbors. If the election of Cleveland has not reformed this practice, it has accomplished less than we had hoped.

An interesting case of "politics" in education has just occurred in Wisconsin. It will be remembered that the Science Hall of the State University of Wisconsin was destroyed by fire early in the winter, entailing a loss of about $200,000. The Regents immediately made a careful estimate of the appropriation that would be necessary to place the scientific department in good working order, with well-constructed and well-equipped buildings, and presented it to the Legislature. The bill passed easily through the Assembly, largely through the skill and ability of Mr. Vilas (now Postmaster-General), a graduate and Regent of the University, and, as it happened, a member of the Senate. All the Democrats were led by his personal influence to support the appropriation. At this unanimity of the wicked party the party of moral ideas at once took alarm. There must be a cat under the meal! What Democrats support, Republicans must oppose. So a caucus of the Republicans of the Senate has been held, and it has been decided that the bill shall be cut down from $279,000 to $150,000; and individual members of the party are mean-spirited enough to confess that they are in favor of the bill, but must vote with their party. Some of the Republican politicians say frankly that the object is to punish President Bascom for voting for St. John, and likewise the numerous Mugwumps of the Faculty.

A very amusing correspondence between Mr. Quincy, the Secretary of the Tariff Reform League, and Mr. Hayes, the Secretary of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, has been published in the Boston papers. Mr. Quincy wanted Mr. Hayes to discuss the tariff question in joint debate with Professor Sumner, of Yale College. Mr. Hayes declined, on the ground that "the tariff was only incidentally within the province" of the wool manufacturers; that a defence in a debate of this kind was always weak, and that no industrial organization could afford to admit that the question of the value of the protective system can be "seriously entertained by practical men." The sum and substance, and let us add, the joke, of this is, that when once you get a high tariff enacted in a free country, its maintenance is no longer a proper subject of discussion—first, because its defenders would be at a disadvantage, and secondly, because anybody who attacks it is visionary. If this be true, however, the tariff is something which ought not to exist under a Republican Government. There are all the objections to it which can be offered to the holding of office by divine right or to an established church.

The extracts from the Congo correspondence published in the *Sun* of Monday are of great importance. They seem to show conclusively that while one object of the whole busines was to get the United States committed to the appropriation of an immense African territory by the European Powers, Messrs. Frelinghuysen, Kasson, and Sanford played into the hands of the European representatives by a piece of very questionable "diplomacy." Mr. Frelinghuysen, in his answer to the House resolution of January 5, is quoted as saying that the Conference was "not to have plenipotentiary functions"; yet the preamble to the document which Mr. Kasson signed explicitly describes the members of the Conference as "plenipotentiaries." Again, Mr. Frelinghuysen declared that the position of the United States had been limited to one of "commercial interest, dissociated from questions of territorial control," and that Mr. Kasson had been "attentive that no act on our part shall deviate from the consistent national policy." "Commercial interest" is a very wide term. It seems that our representatives had actually made a proposition (known as the "American proposition"), which pledged the United States not merely to the neutralization of the Congo country in case of a war between the European signatories, but to a provision that "no article contraband of war shall be supplied therein to either belligerent," and that "each of the signatory Powers reserves the right to cause this stipulation to be respected." That is to say, the United States, a neutral, reserves the right to forcibly prevent its own merchants from trading in contraband with either belligerent—*i. e.*, to assume a duty which the law of nations imposes on the belligerent, that of seizing and

confiscating the contraband cargo. Imagine England or the United States reserving the right to police its own trade with China, because France was at war with that country!

But this is not all. What the European representatives wanted was a regular treaty. Messrs. Kasson and Sanford, however, did not like the idea of a treaty, for the very excellent reason that, knowing what the effect in this country would be, they were afraid to sign one. Accordingly, in his despatch of February 3, of this year, Mr. Kasson describes the ingenious way in which he got out of the difficulty: "For myself, *keenly appreciating the American sensibility to even the form of joint engagements with several European Powers*, I advised the Conference of my preference for a separate act, by which my Government, in accepting the results of our deliberations, should adopt for itself the declarations which the treaty embodies, and engage itself to observe the stipulations agreed upon." Fortunately we have little doubt that Mr. Bayard's views of the beauties of a "separate act" will differ from Mr. Kasson's.

There is pending in the Senate a treaty with Mexico supplementary to a former treaty, which provided for the settlement of certain claims for losses incurred by American citizens in that country during the war with France, and the Maximilian usurpation. These claims were submitted to a commission of which Sir Edward Thornton, the English Minister, was chosen umpire. Among them were two known as the Weil and La Abra claims. One was for cotton said to have been seized by the Mexican authorities, and the other for losses incurred in the operation of a silver mine. Both were confirmed by the umpire, and one or two instalments were paid. Subsequently evidence was offered by the Mexican Government, showing that both claims were fraudulent, being literally "made out of whole cloth"; that none of the alleged cotton was ever seized or ever existed, and that no injury or interruption was ever caused to the silver mine. The State Department was asked to withhold further payments, but Mr. Evarts declined to do so, on the ground that the decision of the umpire was final under the terms of the convention. The payments continued to be made according to the terms of the treaty until Mr. Arthur became President. Then Mr. Frelinghuysen took the unassailable stand that fraud vitiates everything, reversed the policy of his predecessor, ordered the stoppage of payments to the Weil and La Abra claimants, and entered into a new convention with Mexico providing for a rehearing of the cases. It is this treaty which the Senate has now taken up. Considering the infamous character of these frauds (if the contention of the Mexican Government is true), and the disgraceful part we have taken (no doubt unwittingly) in forcing them upon a sister republic, it is to be hoped that the Senate will reopen them and let in all the light possible. Somebody must have committed awful perjury on one side or the other.

The approaching election in Rhode Island has not attracted much attention outside the State, but the vote cast will not fail of its significance as the earliest indication of the impression which the new national Administration has produced on the public mind. The candidates for Governor are George Peabody Wetmore, Republican, and Ziba O. Slocum, Democrat. The Prohibitionists have a separate ticket which may cut some figure in the campaign, this being the "off year." The Independent vote will be cast for Mr. Slocum, both as evidence of their satisfaction with the Cleveland Administration, and as a testimonial of their regard for Mr. Slocum's character and abilities. Mr. Wetmore, they believe, has been nominated because he is a rich man, his qualifications for the office being precisely those of the plutocracy which has so long governed Rhode Island with the dull mediocrity of riches. No State in the Union, not even Nevada, has been more subservient to the behests of wealth in its political action than Rhode Island. It is scarcely possible that the spell will be broken now, the State being overwhelmingly Republican.

There is nothing surprising in the news which comes from Virginia, that Mahone's power is hopelessly broken. From first to last it rested upon patronage. So long as the national Administration put all the offices for the State at Mahone's disposal, he was able to keep his party together and be a formidable boss; but, like all other boss-ships ever set up, his crumbles the moment the patronage is removed. Nothing but the "cohesive power of public plunder" brought the Mahone régime into existence, and nothing but a continual supply of plunder could keep it alive. It will be a lasting disgrace to the Republican party that such a power was ever built up by such a man. If Mahone had not been sustained by the Republican Administration, it is not improbable that Virginia would have escaped the stain of repudiation which Mahone brought upon it. The Bourbon Democrats, with all their faults, stood unflinchingly by their State's honor, and they would have preserved it had not Mahone, by skilfully combining negro ignorance with white cupidity, built up a party which outnumbered theirs

The number of business failures for the first quarter of 1885 (partly estimated) is stated by *Bradstreet's* to be 3,849, against 3,320 for the corresponding period last year. The number is said to be "much larger than the total during a like portion of any preceding year since such statistics have been collected." The amount of the liabilities and assets is not yet known, but the number of heavy failures is comparatively small. The evidence which the weekly records have presented since the beginning of the year points to a rather larger proportion of petty failures than heretofore, from 85 to 90 per cent. of all being among traders whose capital is under $5,000, some of them being as low as $200. Still, the outlook is by no means reassuring. The Clearing-house exchanges again show an important decline in the aggregate of transactions, and the demand for money, which is the surest test of business prosperity, remains as sluggish as ever.

In the present depressed condition of business it is satisfactory to hear of a prospect of wealth coming into American hands from any quarter, and this lends interest to the report that Martin Lynch, of 226 North Sixth Street, Williamsburgh, Long Island, will sail for France in May to prosecute his claim to $4,000,000, belonging to the Dunlap estate. The facts in the case of this property are most interesting. Eight years ago Martin Lynch saw an advertisement calling for the heirs of James Dunlap, a wine merchant who had died intestate in France, leaving a fortune of $4,000,000. In general an heir to a fortune is apt to be a nephew, but in this case it happened that Martin Lynch was the uncle of the deceased, and he at once wrote to a magistrate in France asking for information. The magistrate, after allowing an interval of four years to elapse, answered that the authorities knew nothing of Dunlap. Subsequently, however, a French gentleman named Valette traced the family history, in the familiar European way, on tombstones, and ascertained that Dunlap had owned estates in Ireland, France, and Italy. Mr. Lynch, it is further said, some months ago got Congressman Campbell to write to the United States Consul-General at Turin for information, and the Consul-General wrote back that there was no record there of any estate belonging to Dunlap. This only shows, of course, that Turin was not the right place to make the search. The proper course for Mr. Lynch to pursue is evidently that on which he has decided, of personal investigation on the spot.

The love of titles in America and other republican countries is a subject which has interested Englishmen ever since 1776, but they always blunder about it, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* now makes a great mistake when it says that the titles we like most are the "titles of learning," such as Professor, Doctor, Bachelor of Arts, Laws, etc. We have, indeed, an enormous supply of these, and, as they are a native American product, we endeavor to foster their production by the endowment of institutions of learning in all directions for the purpose of conferring them. But when we go to war we are no less fond of military titles, and there was a time when militia titles were in great favor throughout the United States. Then, besides this, our women are fond of foreign titles—even titles, such as count and baron, which render the bearer an object of suspicion in his own country; but this is simply because women long for anything difficult of attainment, especially if it is surrounded by an atmosphere of romance, for very few American women can ever expect to marry or have their daughters marry a titled man. The political title of "Boss" is of purely American origin, and, as a modern titular growth, is of great interest to the students of society and institutions. The love of titles is an innate human appetite, and the effect of democracy, as De Tocqueville would probably have pointed out, had his attention been called to the subject, is only to enable a greater proportion of the population to gratify it than under an aristocracy. But this is not the case with "Boss," which represents the insidious growth of the "one-man power" in the midst of Republican institutions.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 18, to TUESDAY, March 24, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Wednesday made the following nominations: Milton J. Durham, of Kentucky, to be First Comptroller of the Treasury. He is sixty-one years of age, an ex-Congressman from Kentucky, and has a good record. At one time he was a circuit judge in Kentucky. Malcolm Hay, of Pennsylvania, to be First Assistant Postmaster-General. He is forty-three years of age, never held a public office, is a prominent citizen of Pittsburgh, Pa., and was a member of the Committee on Resolutions at the late Democratic National Convention. He was favored by Mr. Randall. Martin V. Montgomery, of Michigan, to be Commissioner of Patents. He is about forty years of age and is one of the best-known lawyers in central Michigan. David S. Baker, jr., to be United States Attorney for the district of Rhode Island. He is a lawyer of good repute in that State and one of the leaders of the Democratic party in its Legislature. Ben Hill, jr., son of the late Senator, to be United States Attorney for the Northern District of Georgia. This is a very popular nomination for the South. All the nominations were a surprise to the office-seekers, and meet with the approval of the general public.

On Friday the following nominations were made by the President: John D. C. Atkins, of Tennessee, to be Commissioner of Indian Affairs; James D. Porter, of Tennessee, to be Assistant Secretary of State. Mr. Atkins has been long and honorably known in public life. He is one of the ablest men the South has sent to Congress since the war. Under Speaker Randall, he was Chairman of the Appropriations Committee. He is acquainted with the needs of the Indian service, as for four years the details of the Indian Appropriation Bill passed under his observation, and he was a thorough student of all the great questions which came before the Appropriations Committee. General Porter was Governor of Tennessee from 1875 to 1879, having served two terms. He is probably sixty years of age, and a gentleman of the old Kentucky school. He has been a practising lawyer all his life, save when he was in the Confederate army. In his administration of the affairs of Tennessee he is said to have shown marked executive ability, and to have held an honored place in a list of rather notable Governors.

President Cleveland on Monday made the following important nominations: To be Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary of the United States: Edward J. Phelps, of Vermont, to Great Britain; Robert M. McLane, of Maryland, to France; George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, to Germany; Henry R. Jackson, of Georgia, to Mexico. Mr. Phelps is Kent Professor of Law at Yale College, and is about sixty years of age. His education was received at Middlebury College. President Fillmore appointed him Second Comptroller of the Treasury. For several years he practised law in this city, but in 1857 went to Burlington, Vt., and has since been a prominent member of the bar in that State. In 1881 he was elected professor in Yale College. For more than twenty-five years he has been a Democrat. He was a member of the last Vermont Constitutional Convention. His career at Yale College has been marked with great success. Mr. McLane is at present Governor of Maryland. He is a son of Louis McLane, who was Secretary of State under Jackson, and is seventy years of age. He was Minister to China and Mexico before the war. Mr. Pendleton is the well-known Ohio statesman, civil-service reformer, and opponent of the Cincinnati *Enquirer* ring in the politics of that State. He is sixty years of age. Mr. Jackson is a Georgian, sixty-five years of age, a graduate of Yale, Minister Resident in Austria before the war, a Confederate Brigadier-General, and a writer of poetry.

It was said at the White House on Monday that the President would take no action in regard to the Postmastership at New York for some time yet. Mr. Pearson will of course continue to serve as Postmaster until a change is made.

Secretary Bayard has appointed Francis Wharton, of Philadelphia, to be his legal adviser on international questions. Mr. Wharton was once Assistant Attorney-General of Pennsylvania, and is now Lecturer on International Law in Boston University. In connection with David Dudley Field and ex-President Woolsey, he represents this country in the Institute of International Law, and has recently had the degree of LL.D. conferred on him by the University of Edinburgh. He is the author of a work on the 'Conflict of Laws' and of 'Commentaries on American Law,' together with the 'Law of Nations.'

Mr. E. D. Clarke, of Vicksburg, Miss., the newly-appointed Assistant Secretary of the Interior, who had been suffering from an attack of typho-pneumonia for about ten days, had a sudden relapse on Sunday night, and expired at 4:15 o'clock on Monday morning. Mr. Clarke was a native of Mississippi, and about forty years of age. He was a student in the University of Mississippi at Oxford. During the greater portion of the late war he was upon the staff of Gen. E. C. Walthall, the newly appointed Senator. He read law in the office of Senator Lamar until 1870. His firm has been recognized as one of the first in Vicksburg. Mr. Clarke had not entered upon the duties of his office, although he had qualified.

On Tuesday the President nominated Henry L. Muldrow, of Miss., to be Assistant-Secretary of the Interior in place of Mr. Clarke deceased; and W. A. J. Sparks, of Illinois, to be Commissioner of the General Land Office.

Secretary Lamar has given his hearty approval to plans for an investigation of industrial depressions set forth in a letter to him from Commissioner Carroll D. Wright. Three special agents will be sent to Europe.

Secretary Whitney has taken his first step to put an end to naval junketing. He has ordered that the *Tallapoosa* be refitted as a cruiser, and the boat will hereafter be used to carry supplies from one navy-yard to another.

The Secretary of the Treasury has appointed Assistant Secretaries Fairchild and Coon and Assistant Treasurer Graves a commission to examine the methods of transacting Treasury business, and to recommend a simplification of the system and a reduction of the force. Mr. Fairchild is a Democrat, Mr. Coon a Republican, and Mr. Graves an Independent, and all are civil-service reformers.

Ex-Governor John Lee Carroll, of Maryland, in a letter to Senator Gorman, says of Higgins's appointment: "There is no man in Maryland who knows better than you do the reputation that Mr. Higgins has earned in the paths of politics. No one knows better than yourself that he fully and most ably represents the type of politician that every utterance of Mr. Cleveland, both before and since he became President, pledged himself and the party most earnestly to avoid; and yet, knowing this, you have taken advantage of the confidence which men in power reposed in you to betray the Administration in the outset, and to discredit in the eyes of the whole country the promises which brought such hope to the hearts of all who believed that—in the words of the President—'public office is a public trust.'"

The United States Senate has passed the following resolution, which was introduced by Senator Edmunds: "Resolved, As the judgment of the Senate, that in view of the special and important interests of the United States, in conjunction with those of the republics of Nicaragua and Costa Rica, in the interoceanic transit across the continent now in progress of adjustment, any invasion of the territory of Nicaragua or Costa Rica by the forces of Guatemala, under the circumstances and with the purposes before stated, is regarded by the Senate, and ought to be treated by the United States, as an act of unfriendly and hostile interference with the rights of the United States, and of the republics of Nicaragua and Costa Rica in respect of said matter."

Mr. Mitchell (Rep., Pa.) offered in the Senate on Saturday a resolution providing for the appointment of a special committee of five Senators to report not later than the second Monday of next December as to the number of trade dollars put in circulation in the United States before their legal-tender quality was repealed, how said coins came into circulation subsequently, how many are still held in the several States of this country, at what rates they were taken, how much profit accrued in any way to the Government by the coinage of trade dollars, and what has been the practice of this and other governments as to the receipt or refusal by them of their own coin. The resolution also provides for the employment of a stenographer and for travelling expenses, etc. It was objected to and went over.

The United States Supreme Court on Monday affirmed the constitutionality of the Edmunds Anti-Polygamy Law.

In the Arkansas Legislature on Friday, ex-Governor James H. Berry was elected to succeed Senator Garland. He is forty-eight years old, a lawyer, and has been a judge. He commanded the State forces in the Brooks-Baxter troubles, and in that capacity and as Governor made himself popular by his non-partisan conduct with both Liberal Democrats and Republicans.

George Peabody Wetmore, of Newport, was nominated for Governor by the Rhode Island Republicans on Thursday. The Democrats on the same day nominated Zeba O. Slocum. The platform declares that "the Democracy of Rhode Island, in convention assembled, express their full concurrence in the doctrine that a public office is a public trust, and in all the other doctrines declared in the inaugural address of President Cleveland."

The Independent Republicans of Rhode Island, at a meeting on Saturday, decided not to make nominations for State officers this year, but to hold the party in readiness for any emergency. No objection was made to supporting Mr. Wetmore for Governor.

In the Senate at Albany on Thursday the Gibbs Freedom of Worship Bill, amended, was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 15 to 9. A roller-skating bill has been favorably reported to the Assembly. It prohibits girls under fourteen years from attending after 5 o'clock P. M. without the written consent of their parents or guardians, or being accompanied by them, and prohibits children from attending during school hours.

In the Senate at Albany on Tuesday the bill providing for spring municipal elections in this city was defeated by 13 to 16, all the Republicans but Mr. Gibbs voting in the negative. The Assembly on Tuesday went into Committee of the Whole on the Niagara Reservation Bill. Mr. Hubbell offered as a substitute the bill prepared by Attorney-General O'Brien, authorizing the Comptroller to take from the $3,500,000 surplus in the Treasury $400,000, and to issue bonds for $1,000,000, to run over a period of ten years. After considerable discussion the substitute was adopted and the bill ordered to a third reading, with an amendmen providing for 4 per cent. interest on the bonds.

At Trenton on Saturday morning the New Jersey State Capitol was damaged by fire to the amount of $100,000.

The Langham Hotel in Chicago was burned on Saturday night and five persons perished. Many of the guests had very narrow escapes. The loss is $300,000.

Gordon W. Burnham, a millionaire of this city, died on Wednesday evening at the age of eighty-three. He was soon to have been married to Miss Kate Sanborn, the writer.

Miss Susan Warner, the author of 'The Wide, Wide World' and other stories, died at

Highland Falls, N. Y., on March 17, at the age of sixty-seven.

Miss Charlotte Cooper, a daughter of J. Fenimore Cooper, the novelist, died suddenly at Cooperstown on Sunday morning, aged sixty-eight years.

FOREIGN.

The whole British force made a reconnoissance, on Thursday morning, from Suakim, in the direction of Hasheen. The enemy retreated before the British advance. The scouts reached the summit of the hills near Hasheen, and discovered that the Arabs had massed in the valleys. The Arabs at once retired into positions of shelter, only fifty of them remaining in sight. They remained in this position until the British advance reached the ridge of the hills. The Hadendowah tribe of hostiles then rushed from the ambush in which they had lain, and made an attack. During this Captain Birch was speared through the shoulder. The Arabs succeeded in this rush in getting within ten yards of the British line before the latter opened regular fire, which the enemy promptly returned. Three of the infantry and several of the Hadendowahs were wounded. Lieutenant O'Connor, whose horse was shot from under him, killed four Arabs with his own hand. It was ascertained by the reconnoissance that the Arabs were in large bodies along the entire range of hills, and were evidently massing. The British retired after having entered Hasheen. The rebels rapidly reoccupied the positions previously evacuated by them.

On Friday morning the whole British force marched out again to the previous battle ground near Hasheen. The first fight was on a hill near Hasheen. This engagement lasted several hours, the British calvary charging frequently upon the Arabs, while the machine-guns were worked with deadly effect. The marines drove the Arabs from the hills, and forced them to retire to the plain. Then the Indian troops charged upon the Arab position, but were outflanked, and an unsuspected body of Arabs succeeded in getting behind their line. The Indians found themselves between two fires, and they fled. During this retreat they were closely pressed by the Arabs. The Bengalese fell back in confusion upon the English infantry and guards, who had been formed in a hollow square, and the square leisurely retired, while the Arabs were yelling that they had regained their lost position. At this juncture the artillery came to the rescue, and a brisk fire of small shot from the machine-guns and shells from the Krupp field mortars drove the Arabs from their position. The marines maintained a steady firing throughout the engagement, but the honors of the day are probably due to the Irish Lancers, who changed the tide of battle by a desperate charge, and retrieved the fortunes of General Graham's command when they had seemed almost hopeless. The British troops then returned to their former camp near Suakim. The British losses were 2 officers and 2 men of the English and 5 Sepoys killed, and 2 officers and 26 men of the English and 1 officer and 10 men of the Indian contingent wounded. The rebels were estimated at 4,000, and their losses at about 400. They fought with great bravery, maintaining a steady rifle fire and avoiding close quarters.

General Graham telegraphed on Saturday to General Wolseley that the result of the operations had been to establish a strong position commanding the Hasheen Valley, and protecting the right flank and the line of communication in ensuing operations against Tamaai. All portions of the force, he said, worked admirably and gallantly, on very difficult ground covered with high thorn bushes and occupied by an agile and determined enemy, showing that the troops are able to master the Arabs in any position.

While detachments of English and Indian infantry were making a zereba seven miles southwest of Suakim on Sunday, they were surprised by a rush of Arabs who had been massed and concealed in the defiles west of Hasheen. The English formed a square as quickly as possible, but the camels, mules, and horses were driven back in confusion on the troops, causing a stampede, and the Arabs penetrated the south and north sides of the square. Meanwhile the marines and the Berkshire Regiment, who were on the east and west sides of the square, maintained a continuous fire, holding the enemy at bay, while a charge of the cavalry and the fire from the guns at the Hasheen zereba checked the onslaught of the Arabs, which threatened a serious disaster to the British. The scene during the panic which ensued at the first onslaught was terrible. The animals and men were panic-stricken, and among them glided the fierce Hadendowahs, engaging in hand-to-hand conflicts. Fifty-six of the British were killed and 170 wounded. The rebels lost about 1,000. The damage done to transport material is immense. General McNeill, who was commanding the zereba, is severely criticised for not taking precautions against a surprise. At 3 o'clock on Monday morning the enemy began another attack. After an hour's fighting they were repulsed. Osman Digna has 25,000 men at Tamaai. General Graham began a general advance upon him on Monday evening.

It was announced late on Tuesday that General Graham had postponed his attack on Osman Digna until Friday, March 27.

Advices from Massowah state that the rebels, who had been reinforced from Berber, attacked Kassala, but were repulsed. The Governor of Kassala states that he can hold out for some time, and will burn the town rather than submit to the rebels. It is supposed that he has received a fresh supply of provisions.

A rival of El Mahdi has appeared at El Obeid. Despatches confirm the reports of El Mahdi's waning power. Several dervishes have denounced him as an impostor.

Mr. Hugh Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon unfolded the Egyptian financial agreement which was recently signed in London by the representatives of the Powers. The agreement, he said, guaranteed a loan of $45,000,000 to be used in lifting the Egyptian debt. The guarantee of this loan by the other Powers does not, however, confer any right upon any one of them to interfere with England's internal administration of Egyptian affairs. The loan is to be liquidated by the repayment of the sum of $1,575,000 annually, and that sum is to constitute the first charge against the Egyptian revenues until the entire loan is lifted. The normal annual expenses of the Egyptian Government are fixed by the agreement at the gross sum of $26,185,000. This includes $1,000,000 to defray the cost of maintaining the army of occupation. The agreement provides for the extension of taxation to all foreigners resident in Egypt. It also arranges for an exhaustive investigation into the revenue-earning capacity of Egypt. Two years are to be devoted to this inquiry. While it is in progress there is to be a 5 per cent. reduction in the coupon payments and a ½ per cent. reduction in the interest on the Suez Canal shares. A provision for the free navigation of the Suez Canal is mentioned in the agreement as a matter that will be dealt with in the forthcoming Canal Conference at Paris. The Conservative leaders have decided to postpone action until the Convention has been presented to Parliament on March 26. The British press express satisfaction with the agreement.

Mr. Gladstone refused in the House of Commons on Monday night to grant, on the demand of Sir Stafford Northcote, a postponement of the Egyptian financial agreement. He said that Egyptian finances had reached the end of their tether, and the question must be settled before the Easter recess. The discussion was fixed for March 26.

There was renewed excitement over the Afghan question in London on Tuesday evening, caused by a Cabinet Council which, it was said, was called to consider unfavorable news of successful Russian intrigues both at Panjdeh and Constantinople. A secret treaty with Turkey is being pushed by Russia.

The London *Post* understands that Russian officers on furlough have been ordered to rejoin their regiments. General Zelenoi is waiting at Askabad to join Sir Peter Lumsden, when the matter of establishing the Afghan frontier will be arranged. It is reported in Calcutta that orders were received from England on Saturday to concentrate from 20,000 to 30,000 men at Quetta and Allahabad.

It was semi-officially stated in Paris, on Thursday, that Prince Bismarck had offered to arbitrate between England and Russia in regard to the Afghan boundary dispute.

The Prince of Wales started on Wednesday for Berlin. He had a long conference with Earl Granville before setting out. It is understood that he received hints regarding relations between England and Germany. He was accompanied by Prince Albert Victor and the Duke of Edinburgh. They arrived at Berlin on Thursday.

The Duke of Argyll has published a letter in which he says he hopes that all parties in Great Britain will firmly insist upon maintaining the independence and integrity of Afghanistan, and the dominant influence of England in that country.

The Indian budget has been submitted. It shows that for the fiscal year ended March 31, 1884, there was a surplus of over $5,000,000; for the year ending March 31, 1885, there will be a deficit of $2,500,000; and the estimated surplus for the year ending March 31, 1886, will be $2,500,000.

Sir Stafford Northcote will, it is reported, withdraw from the Conservative leadership in the House of Commons at the close of the present session, owing to the unabated discontent of many members of the party. He will be succeeded by Sir Michael E. Hicks-Beach, under the sanction of the Marquis of Salisbury and the approval of Lord Randolph Churchill.

Christopher Wordsworth, Bishop of Lincoln, Eng., is dead. He was a brother of Dr. Charles Wordsworth, Bishop of St. Andrews. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and was best known by his editions of the Greek text of the Apocalypse (1849) and the New Testament (four parts, 1856–60), of 'The Holy Bible, with Notes and Introductions' (5 vols., 1864–70), but was also a voluminous author on many other subjects.

Sir Julius Benedict, the English composer, is seriously ill with bronchitis, and his friends fear that he will not recover. He is eighty-one years of age.

Sir Harry Smith Parkes, British Minister to China, is dead at the age of fifty-seven. He entered the civil service of the Crown in 1852, and in 1865 was made Minister to Japan. A year or two ago he was transferred to China.

Mrs. Stephens, wife of James Stephens, who was recently expelled from France, telegraphed on Wednesday to Mr. E. Dwyer Gray, M. P., editor of the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, that her husband, who is at Mons, in Belgium, was in a dying condition and was absolutely destitute. Mrs. Stephens appealed to Mr. Gray for assistance and Mr. Gray at once sent aid.

Emperor William's eighty-eighth birthday was celebrated in Berlin on Sunday with much enthusiasm. In the morning the Emperor received the members of the Imperial family and foreign princes, also the old servants, a number of whom have been attached to the household for forty or fifty years. In the evening a family dinner was held at the palace.

Two hundred and seventeen miners were imprisoned by an explosion of fire-damp in a colliery at Camphausen, near Saarbrücken, in Rhenish Prussia, on Wednesday morning. Only thirty were rescued alive.

President Barrios was on Tuesday reported to be marching on San Salvador with 15,000 men.

HOW THE STANDARD HAS BEEN RAISED.

THERE is, when one comes to think of it, a wonderful amount of encouragement in the expectations both of Republicans and Democrats with regard to the new Administration. Not only is the standard set for President Cleveland in the matter of administrative reform higher than that set for any of his recent predecessors, but there is evidently keen disappointment felt among Republicans, as well as among Democrats, if he fails to live up to it in the smallest particular. He has been criticised sharply for putting in the Cabinet a gentleman of whom it can be said, as it has been said of Mr. Manning, that he has been an able and dexterous political manager; and for putting in the Cabinet a gentleman, like Mr. Whitney, who is not well known in the field of national politics. The appointment, too, of a local politician of unsavory reputation, like Higgins, to a subordinate place in the Treasury has roused among men of both parties a great deal of indignation. So stern and exacting, indeed, are his critics that the leading Republican organ in this city can see no sign of reform in such appointments as Mr. Fairchild to be First Assistant in the Treasury, or in the excellent batch of nominations for important positions sent to the Senate on Thursday, or in such acts as Mr. Whitney's in restoring Commander Evans to his light-house inspectorship, from which he had been dismissed for refusing to connive at a gross abuse, by Secretary Chandler. This is undoubtedly an excellent state of things. It shows a great advance in public opinion—an enormous advance, when we consider the disorder and debauchery which the present generation of Republicans have been taught to expect from a return of the Democrats to power.

But how great the advance is, no one can thoroughly appreciate without a little retrospective comparison. Suppose President Cleveland had immediately, on coming into power, removed an old, experienced, and upright Democrat from the charge of the Pension Bureau, and put in his place a hardened and notorious political hack, and had acknowledged publicly that he knew it was wrong, but could not help it—that he had been compelled to yield to "pressure"; what would be said? And yet President Garfield did this very thing in the Bentley case. Suppose that immediately after the election President Cleveland had gone to a Democratic dinner given to Higgins in Baltimore, and in his speech had chuckled over the fact that Higgins had carried the State of Maryland by the use of "soap," and the audience had laughed, knowing well that by "soap" he meant money; what would be said? And yet this very thing President Arthur did in the case of Dorsey. Suppose that subsequently he had appointed another Higgins, a notorious lobbyist and jobber, to be Secretary of the Navy, in spite of the protests of all the best members of his own party, and were to support him steadily in corrupt and debasing use of the patronage to oblige politicians of the lowest class; what would be said? And yet President Arthur did this in the case of Secretary Chandler. Suppose, on coming into power, he were to find in the New York Post-office not Mr. Pearson, but a Democrat of long standing—an old, experienced servant of the Government, who had made himself conspicuous as a promoter of civil-service reform, and were, when the occasion offered itself, to kick him out incontinently; what would be said? And yet President Arthur did this very thing in the case of Colonel Burt.

Suppose, moreover, that well knowing that paymasterships in the army, being life positions, ought to be reserved for old army officers, he were to give one of them to his own brother-in-law, a civilian between fifty and sixty years of age, and, therefore, within easy reach of the retired list on which he would be supported by the Government for the rest of his life; what would be said? And yet this very thing President Arthur did in the case of Haynesworth. Suppose that a rich friend of his whose son had failed at West Point, and had to resign in consequence, were to come to him and ask him to violate the regulations of the Academy, and give this young man a commission over the heads of his comrades of two classes, in gross disregard of their rights, and he were at once to grant his request; what would be said? And yet this very thing President Arthur did in the Wright case. We might double this list of suppositions, but we have made enough.

There is no difficulty in conceiving the indignation, the uproar, and the disappointment which aberrations like these on President Cleveland's part would create. There are tens of thousands of Republicans to-day who voted for Blaine, who would mourn over them, and feel undeceived and chagrined by them. A very large proportion of the Democratic party, too, would undoubtedly do so. The great and hopeful feature of the situation is that more, far more, is to-day expected of a Democratic President than has ever been expected of a Republican President; and that a Democratic President dares not commit even one of the smaller abuses of his trust, which Republican Presidents have for the last fifteen years been committing by the dozen with impunity. A better illustration of the effect of persistent agitation in enlightening and informing the public judgment we could not desire, nor a better illustration of the beneficence of that change of last November, even to the Republican party. The Republican standard of morality was not rising under the influence of prolonged and secure tenure of office. On the contrary, it was steadily declining; and probably as long as the party remained in power it would have continued to decline. Defeat has suddenly caused it to see a great light, and for the first time to demand of men in office a rigid adherence to their professions and promises before taking office.

THE TREASURY AND THE SILVER PROBLEM.

SOME days ago it was reported semi-officially that Secretary Manning would shortly issue a new bond call, the surplus in the Treasury having reached an amount which would warrant the disbursement of $10,000,000 without encroaching upon the customary reserve. The bond call has not been issued, and it is now said that it is withheld in order to determine what proportion of the so-called "cash in the Treasury" can be considered available as against liabilities payable on demand. The reserve consists of various kinds of funds—gold bullion, silver bullion, gold and silver coin, greenbacks, national bank-notes, fractional silver, etc. The liabilities are all practically gold, since the Treasury allows its creditors to take such funds as they prefer, and thus maintains the parity of the entire circulation with gold. It is clear, however, that in case of a "run" the fractional silver would be unavailable, not being legal tender beyond five dollars in each payment. The standard silver dollars would be unavailable, because nobody would want them, and to force them upon public creditors would precipitate the much dreaded silver crisis at once. The greenbacks and national bank notes may be regarded as available assets in any condition of business likely to supervene, although the former are liabilities of the Government when in private pockets, and are merely redeemed promises when in the vaults of the Treasury.

It will be regarded as a measure of wise caution if Secretary Manning takes account of stock, and makes an independent examination of his resources, before issuing new bond calls. The situation of business is now very favorable to an increase of the Treasury reserve. The demand for money is extremely faint at all the centres of trade. The bank reserve in New York has risen to the unprecedented sum of $48,000,000, against little more than $8,000,000 at the corresponding time last year, and the rate of interest on call loans has fallen to 1½ per cent. or even less. No possible danger to trade could result from a large addition to the funds in the Treasury. On the other hand, there are weighty reasons why the Treasury should be amply fortified against the artificial and sinister demands of the Silver Coinage Act.

This act calls for $2,000,000 per month. It is a drain on the resources of the Treasury, to be provided for and guarded against in the same way as any other expenditure. It has to be met with the same regularity and promptness as the payments for the army and navy, pensions and interest on the debt. If the public credit is to be maintained and the country saved from the miseries of two standards of value, provision must be made for the disbursement of two millions per month over and above the ordinary expenditures of the Government, and the resulting coin must be laid away like so many kegs of nails manufactured in excess of the wants of house-builders. The demand for new silver certificates has practically ceased, and the Treasury is not likely to be recouped for any considerable part of its bullion investments hereafter. It becomes necessary, therefore, to take into account twenty-four millions of liabilities over and above the usual yearly disbursements. It would be prudent to accumulate this sum in advance, at a time when the money market will not feel the loss of it, and to keep a like amount ahead of the requirements of the mint until Congress shall see fit to stop the waste. If the policy is adopted of treating the purchase of silver for the mints like the purchase of gun metal and pig lead for the arsenals, or of stone for the fortifications, the silver crisis can be staved off until next December. If, on the other hand, it be assumed that the publi- will continue to relieve the Treasury of its surc

plus coin by taking out silver certificates, and no provision be made out of the current revenues for the chance of the stuff remaining uncalled for, there will be trouble before many months pass over our heads. Since, therefore, no interests are suffering for a bond call, it would be altogether prudent for the Secretary to fortify himself with a considerably larger reserve than has been customarily held, in order to save himself from the embarrassments which pressed upon Secretary McCulloch when the latter was compelled, by his declining revenues, to pay silver certificates in large amounts at the Boston Clearing-house.

It would be wise, also, to discontinue the practice of sending silver certificates from one part of the country to another for private parties at the public expense. There is no law authorizing the Secretary to pay express charges on any kind of money for the accommodation of individuals, or to deal in domestic exchange.

THE CENTRAL-AMERICAN ÉMEUTE.

THERE are now two revolutions in progress in Central America, one an intestine affair in Colombia, and the other an international scrimmage between Guatemala, party of the first part, and Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and San Salvador, parties of the second part. As throwing light on the Canal treaty recently withdrawn by President Cleveland from the files of the Senate, these outbreaks are important aids to the human understanding. The twenty-third article provided that we should forthwith advance the sum of $1,000,000 to Nicaragua, the first instalment of the $4,000,000 to be loaned to her on the security of her share in the future canal tolls. If this first instalment had been paid, the money would have been within reach of the strongest battalions; and since the contention of President Barrios is that the Central American States have been made "one republic" by the decree of Guatemala, then, since the greater includes the less, the cash would have belonged to his faction, if victorious, by the same title as the territory of Nicaragua itself. A million dollars is a sufficient incentive to a revolution in Central America at any time. Four millions would infallibly lead to a "consolidation" of all the able-bodied brigands in the country around the central nugget.

What our position would be if the treaty had been ratified can be readily discerned. We should be under the double obligation of protecting Nicaragua against invasion, as the second article of the treaty provides, and of looking after our own security in that region. This obligation, which we have but narrowly missed, the escape from which ought to be accounted a rich national blessing, there seems to be a disposition on the part of friends of the Canal treaty to assume gratuitously. The resolution offered by Senator Edmunds and agreed to by the Senate recites, that whereas there is such a treaty pending with Nicaragua, any invasion of that country by the forces of Guatemala "ought to be treated by the United States as an act of unfriendly and hostile interference with the rights of the United States." Fortunately the treaty itself had been withdrawn by the President a day or two after the news of the outbreak arrived. The issues of peace and war are therefore committed for the time being to the care of the Administration, upon whom the duty of carrying on the war, if it should be declared, would devolve. A hypothetical war need not create any uneasiness. We are well persuaded that President Cleveland and his advisers desire nothing so much as public tranquillity, and the opportunity which it affords for the prosecution of wholesome domestic reforms, and for the upbuilding of the disabled commercial fabric of the country. There can be no embroilment on our part with Central America so long as the treaty is unratified, and so long as we have no property at stake among the belligerents, the resolutions of the Senate to the contrary notwithstanding.

Respect for the sagacity and patriotism of Senator Edmunds demands careful examination of one's grounds by any public man or journal that differs from him on a question so vital as that of peace or war. Yet it is obviously this question, and nothing less, which is involved in the resolution which the Senate, upon his motion, has adopted. If the proceedings of Guatemala are to be treated by the United States as a hostile interference with our rights, they must be opposed with powder and shot. Resistance by "cablegram," as suggested by President Zaldivar, of San Salvador, will not serve the purpose. We must get in readiness to back up our cablegrams by infantry and artillery, commissary, quartermaster, and hospital stores—especially the latter. "Take all possible precautions against yellow fever," says the Secretary of the Navy in his telegram to Commander Kane at Colon, instructing the latter to cruise along the coast of San Salvador. All the miseries of war, without the smallest compensation in the way of glory, will be our portion whenever we shall take a hand in the predatory contentions of the Spanish-American republics. It is conceivable that Mr. Edmunds is right in thinking that the Canal treaty is so important that we should take all risks to carry out the purpose embodied in it, but it is certain that one of these risks is a war risk, and that an indispensable preliminary is an increased military and naval establishment, to keep order in Nicaragua and in all the neighboring countries. An army and navy on paper will not answer the end at all. A force which exists in theory, but not in fact, is the sort of thing which Spanish American chieftains and revolutionary bandits have thriven on for two generations. The task which we are to undertake, if the text of Mr. Edmunds's resolution is to be our guide, is no less than the military occupation of a vast extent of tropical country, infested with robbery and pestilence, whose permanent pacification will entail the waste of large sums of money, and no inconsiderable amount of suffering and loss of life. If any end is to be gained commensurate with such serious expenditure, we altogether fail to see it.

It should not be overlooked that Mexico has taken a hand in the affair, having despatched 15,000 soldiers to the Guatemala frontier, and that President Diaz is contemplating the seizure of the two or three disputed provinces which Secretary Blaine warned her that she must not meddle with. Evidently the limits of our interference would not be circumscribed by any defined boundaries.

A GLIMPSE OF IDA AND THE SPRINGS OF THE SKAMANDROS.

IN the golden sunlight of an October morning our little file of four Americans, headed by the gallant Zaptieh Ali Bey, and closed by a limping Greek muleteer dragging after him the ill-tempered beast which carried our blankets and provisions, left far below us the olive orchards and vineyards of the Adramyttian plain, and wound up into the belt of pines on the southern slopes of Mount Ida. But at noon the sky was overcast, and two hours later a hasty council was held, and it was decided to make at once for the logging camp of the Rumelian woodcutters, the only inhabitants of the upper range. Here for three days we shared their rude fare, crouched in Oriental fashion about the pot full of steaming soup, and for three nights we lay wrapped in our blankets on the damp earth, while the roar of Boreas in the pines, and the rushing rain on the leaky roof, almost drowned the crackling of the fire of great logs, and the bagpipe to whose screaming tones our swarthy hosts kept time in their uncouth dances. The noisy stream that came leaping down the ravine to turn the wheels of the sawmill swelled to a river. We likened ourselves at last to the good Knight Hildebrand imprisoned in the fisher-hut of Undine's foster-father, and beleaguered by her blustering kinsfolk. We were within an hour's scramble of the summit, but when, during a brief lull in the storm, we pushed on to the crest, it was shrouded in an impenetrable mist, which drenched us to the skin quicker than the heaviest rain.

At last, on the fourth morning, realizing that the voracity of our shabby old muleteer (or our own) was wearing our welcome something threadbare, we reluctantly turned our backs on the mill and our kind-hearted young entertainers, and, abandoning all hope of ever seeing the famous panorama of the Troad and the Ægean, started to descend the northern slope of the range. As our lugubrious little procession wound down through the dripping forests, clouds and sunshine were still chasing one another over the rolling ridges and plains beneath us, and occasional showers followed us all day down the mountain—and so, perhaps, our impressions were colored by circumstances; to us, at least, it will always be "many-fountained Ida." All the fountains of earth and heaven seemed opened.

Something less than half way down, we turned aside from our line of march and threaded our way into the lovely dell where the king of rivers is born. Our view was shut in by nearly perpendicular cliffs a thousand feet high. The pines cling to every projecting ledge. The damp grass was full of crocuses. A long succession of springs burst eagerly from the rock at the base of these cliffs, and form a brook that flows swiftly through the valley. Then at a sudden turn a cascade seventy feet high leaps down from a cavernous opening in the face of the cliff, breaks into foam as it falls, turns to a livelier green with its spray the mosses and ferns that cover the stones, and takes imperious possession of the rock-cut channel. A few minutes' walk further down is a large spring, which flows immediately into a bowl-like basin, whence a stream runs down a few yards and joins the little river. This is the famous "warm spring," though we found it only a few degrees warmer than the brook—just cool enough to drink.

The traveller must be world-worn indeed who does not feel the charm of this enchanted dale. It seems sequestered from the turmoil of the world and the rushing of the centuries. We

almost expected to see the long grass stealthily parted beside us, and the half-frightened, half-laughing face of a faun peeping through at us interlopers. Our comrade, who climbed to the cavern mouth from which the cascade fell, surely disturbed the Naiad with the rude blows of his geologizing hammer. At the very least it could have been but yesterday that the boy shepherd Paris, roving at will hand in hand with Oinone, and innocent as yet of any thought of far sea-wanderings or sinful love or the wild rush of battle, found his way into our vale, and gazed in wide-eyed wonder at the tumbling cataract. The singer of the 'Iliad' was our only companion on our pious pilgrimage, but even from the long rhythmic sweep of his verse our thoughts and eyes wandered, and we closed the book to listen entranced to the rushing of the many waters.

Like everything else in the Troad, this lovely scene has been drawn into the interminable debate over the true site of Priam's holy city, and the real origin of Homeric legend. In the twenty-second book of the 'Iliad,' Achilleus is chasing the panic-stricken Hector about the walls of Ilios. Passing in their headlong haste the various landmarks near the walls, "they came to the fair flowing springs, where the two sources of the eddying Skamandros leap up: the one flows with warm water, and, round about, steam rises from it as from blazing fire; the other runs forth cold as hail, or the chill snow, or crystal ice. There by the springs are the washing-troughs, beautiful, wrought in stone, where the dames and fair daughters of the Trojans washed their shining garments, of old, in the days of peace, ere the sons of the Achaians came."

We certainly cannot believe, as some writers would have us do, that Homer, having seen or heard of the head waters of the Skamandros here many miles away among the mountains, used a poet's freedom and brought them down into the plain to adorn his description. The two pictures are themselves as diverse as possible, and need only be placed side by side. In the Trojan plain there are numberless unfailing springs. Several have been discovered very near the hill of Hissarlik. It does not need much credulity to believe there were in Homer's day two springs near each other and the city wall, one cold, the other lukewarm. (It does not require water of high temperature by any means to give off steam. Hot springs are not, indeed, at all rare in the Troadic peninsula. The Greek word λιαρός is, however, merely "tepid," being applied, for example, to blood.) Of course the waste water from these two springs flowed down into the neighboring river. Now the Skamandros almost disappears in summer, the diminished stream sinking out of sight in its gravelly bed. These two springs might at such times have been apparently *the* sources *par excellence* of the enfeebled stream, though the Greek text does not expressly demand that. The traveller in the East at the present day often comes upon Laodike at the spring, or still more frequently Nausikaa at the riverside, "washing the shining garments." But she no longer greets him with the modest grace of the Phaiakian maiden. She draws her veil about her eyes, and turns her back upon him, only to stare curiously after he has passed.

Far down in the plain at the northern base of the ridge, where the free mountain-born river is already enslaved to turn the wheels of mills, lies the wretched little Turkish village of Evjilár. When we reached the rough street we turned about for a last look, and the rosy crest stood out bold and sharp against the sunset sky. Not a cloud was to be seen. Like a true Turkish maiden, coy Ida had drawn her veil aside, and was gazing at us in all her loveliness. We were young, enthusiastic, and Americans, and, of course, at dawn next day our grumbling old muleteer was disgusted by an order to turn out and prepare for a fresh ascent of the mountain. To trudge to the summit and descend again between sunrise and sunset of an October day is a serious task, but one never to be regretted. The road we followed was the good old one:

Πολλὰ δ' ἄναντα κάταντα πάραντά τε δόχμιά τ' ἦλθον—

"O'er steep, o'er glen, by straight, by winding ways,
They journeyed."

Evjilár means "Huntersville," and the mountain-range still deserves its Homeric name of μήτηρ θηρῶν, "mother of wild beasts." Wolf-tracks had appeared since the rain of the previous day. Everywhere the earth was torn up by the rooting of wild boars. We heard many stories of jackals, leopards, and bears. The crocus was very abundant almost to the summit, as well as a species of cyclamen. Half an hour before reaching the top we left the wooded belt and began the clamber up the bare cone of rock. Upon the very summit snow lay abundantly, and the cold wind compelled us to keep up a brisk walk. The traveller should visit all the chief peaks, which lie separated by slight depressions within reach of an hour's tramp. The magnificent view from the summit has been often described. The whole great island of Lesbos lay extended before us as if drawn on a map, and we could follow the outline of the Troadic peninsula almost unbroken from Adramyttion around the long point of Lekton to the Hellespont and Propontis. Further away, Chios and Lemnos, Imbros, and, high above all, Samothrake, lie along the horizon. We stand where Zeus stood to watch the battles in the Ilian plain; but we must be gifted with his power of vision before we can distinguish the Skamandros or the Simoeis, the promontory of Rhoiteion, or the tumulus of ancient Aisyetes. All the way from the sea-line at Lekton to our feet the ridges seem to come rolling up in unbroken waves to teach us the significance of a Homeric epithet, πολύπτυχος Ἴδη—"Ida with many folds."

Of one truth he who stands on the summit of Ida is sure, that the poet of the 'Iliad' had his eyes, and used them infinitely better than most men. There can hardly be a statelier conception than that he embodies in the word Ida, as the name of the whole mass of mountains that fill the Troad from Sigeion to Assos, rising in steady curves to the supreme crest of Gargaros. Surely the poet who sang of Herè, landing where the promontory Lekton meets the sea, and passing up to the topmost peak to win the heart of Zeus, must often have watched graceful cloud-shapes rise from the Ægean and roll up over ridge after ridge to rest at last on the lofty peak—a sight we ourselves saw with regretful eyes a few days later, as our little Greek caïque leaped over the waves of the Gulf of Adramyttion, and we were bidding a reluctant farewell to the land of Homer.

KAROLINE BAUER AND BARON CHRISTIAN VON STOCKMAR.

LONDON, February, 1885.

FAR from inconsiderable is the stir which the 'Posthumous Memoirs of Karoline Bauer,' or, rather, the first half of them, recently translated from the German, and published by the London firm of Remington & Co., have excited in certain social circles of England. Scandalous as they occasionally are, they abound with attractive matter, and record many an item, not by any means always unimportant, which would in vain be sought for elsewhere. Their chief value, however, consists in the light which they throw on the higher society of Germany during the first half of the present century. Among the episodical ingredients of this curious work may be specified, as markedly interesting, the narrative of the singular fortunes of Leonardus Cornelius van der Valck and Angés Barthelmy, and the very full biography of the famous songstress, Henriette Sontag.

To Karoline Bauer, who was bred an actress from her very girlhood, the only world that seems to have presented itself, ordinarily, as at all noticeable, was that which was made up of amusers and amusees. Her personality and circumstances considered, it could not, indeed, well have been otherwise. While, on the one hand, the fates had bestowed on her good looks and impressionableness, on the other hand her education and her special environment, both intellectual and moral, were such as could hardly have developed anything akin to austerity of sentiment or conduct. Taking into account her juvenile experience, we are not surprised to be told that, with the entire acquiescence of her mother, she consented, at the age of two and twenty, to "a kind of marriage ceremony"—the kind, namely, that conferred on her the style of quasi-wifehood which, to the subsequent solace of kings and princes innumerable, was sanctioned by the courtly obsequiousness of Luther. Significant, too, as being racy of her native soil, is the comment which, many years later, she made, or is alleged to have made, on the scantness of the farcical rite just referred to: "No clergyman placed his hand on my head, to invoke a blessing; no bridal wreath adorned my locks. . . . My mother pressed me to her heart amid tears of joy."

Many things gravely prejudicial to Karoline Bauer, which the original of the 'Posthumous Memoirs' contains, do not appear in the emasculated English translation; and her German editor, who claims to have known her well, represents her as having been most disingenuous and inveracious. On his evidence, such as it is, she was, in short, a person who, after whatever exertions bestowed with intent to bleach her, must remain hopelessly dingy.

Among the statements attributed to her is one, already alluded to, which an attempt, violently feeble and wholly inconclusive, has just been made to invalidate. The late Baron Stockmar, a relative of Karoline Bauer, proposed and ultimately brought about, she is made to have averred, a morganatic alliance between herself, while still a maiden, and Prince Leopold, afterward King of the Belgians. As both the Baron and the Prince were intimate associates and confidential advisers of the present occupant of the English throne, this matter, having once got into print, could not prudently be ignored by those who, whatever their private convictions, would fain have it scouted as mere vindictive romancing.

Hearing that it was in contemplation to publish the 'Posthumous Memoirs,' Baron Stockmar the son addressed himself to Herr Arnold Wellmer, their editor. Adverting to Karoline Bauer, he speaks with delicious euphemism of "that period of her life which she spent in England in the vicinity of Prince Leopold of Koburg." He goes on to admit that "my late father, to his great regret, was, in various ways, mixed up with the subject-matter of the 'Secret Memoirs.'" He then adds: "A sequel to the dissolution of that connection in England was the life-long estrangement of my father and his cousin"—that is to say, Karoline Bauer. The Baron further begs of the editor that he "would, with a gentle hand, cancel anything that might cause a public scandal," and deprecates the divulging of attacks on his father, and also on "Prince Leopold, in whose actions the memory of my father is compromised, inasmuch as he was the Prince's man of business." Once more, with reference to "so delicate and private a personal relationship" as that which subsisted between Prince Leopold and Karoline, "that episode," the Baron allows,

"was an error, soon enough recognized, in which there was hardly anything that can be regarded as beyond every-day experience." So far as is discoverable, the person by whom the error was "soon enough recognized" was the Prince, and that after the lapse of about a year, shortly before he remarried. His first wife was the Princess Charlotte, daughter of George IV., and his second was the Princess Louise, daughter of Louis Philippe; Karoline Bauer having humbly served to soothe some few months of his internuptial disconsolateness. As we now read, Karoline, when morganatically made over to her royal paramour, received the title of Countess Montgomery. It has not been revealed in what peerage she is registered under that title. Nor is the authority of the 'Posthumous Memoirs' corroborated, that the pension which she received as ex-mistress of Prince Leopold was derived from the pockets of British taxpayers.

The admissions of Baron Ernst von Stockmar which have been cited evince, despite the cautious vagueness in which they are couched, that his father was a party to transactions which redound nothing to his honor. How far his own version of those transactions would differ from that which lies before us can only be conjectured. Anyhow, it certainly behooves him to come forth with it, and to make the best he can of what is, beyond any reasonable doubt, more or less discreditable.

With a precipitancy which seems to be growing on him with growth of years, Prof. Max Müller has adventured to champion the late Baron Stockmar and also Prince Leopold. Looking to the suppressions in the English translation of the 'Posthumous Memoirs,' he calls them "a literary hoax," and he does not hesitate to ingurgitate, at one brave gulp, all the evil about Karoline Bauer that is found in the original German, just because it is what it is. "I know nothing," he says, "of the German editor of Karoline Bauer's Memoirs; but," he continues, without a break, "I must say this for him, that he has, at all events, warned the German public as to the character of his client." Avowedly ignorant of that editor's title to credibility, or of his want of it, he, however, pronounces him to have acted like "a man of honor," for reviling the dead, and, on his bare word, classes Karoline among "literary ghouls," speaks of her as an "assassin," believes her "to have been guilty of lying and falsehood, a swindler who for years had piled lie on lie, fraud on fraud," etc., etc. His accustomed mystification, his studied ambiguities, and his inexplicable hints, I shall not stop to comment on, or even to note.

The late Baron Stockmar initiated his connection with Prince Leopold by acting as his medical attendant, and rose to importance and rank only very gradually. These facts Professor Müller is careful to ignore; and one might also infer, from the tenor of his polemic, that, in his opinion, the servants and hangers-on of kings and princes are no longer capable, in modern days, of discharging pandaric offices for their masters. Although he does not categorically deny what he terms "the extraordinary charges" and "the silly charges" brought by Karoline Bauer against Baron Stockmar and Prince Leopold, he aims to produce the impression that they should be dismissed as totally without foundation. To this end, having freely bespattered his helpless victim with vituperation not exactly academic—at least, outside his fatherland—he clinches his argument in a manner which, no doubt, he reckons to be irrefragably demonstrative. Here are his words: "Lord Palmerston was not a man easily to be taken in, least of all by a German diplomatist; and he said of Baron Stockmar: 'Among politicians I have only met one man who was altogether disinterested—Stockmar.' As to the late King of the Belgians, I need not repeat the memorable words in which the *Times* passed judgment on his private and public character at the time of his death."

The implied sneer at German diplomatists would, of course, be interpreted by the Professor in Germany as, when rightly understood, not only not disparaging, but something highly complimentary. As regards the *Times*, in which he has been allowed to disport himself in large type, as above, its readings of character are, we all know, not quite irreversible. It was on the same authority that we were told, on the 7th of October, 1862, of President Lincoln, on the occasion of his issuing his famous Emancipation Proclamation: "He will appeal to the black blood of the African. He will whisper of the pleasures of slaughter, and the gratification of yet fiercer instincts; and, when blood begins to flow, and shrieks come piercing through the darkness, Mr. Lincoln will wait till the rising flames tell that all is consummated, and then he will rub his hands, and think that revenge is sweet."

Count Brol-Slater, who married Karoline Bauer, enables us by a letter written subsequently to the correspondence between Prof. Max Müller and Messrs. Remington & Co., to think considerably better of her than we might hastily be disposed to do otherwise. He is not, indeed, very communicative; but there is no obvious reason why one should not believe with him that what the Professor has said of her is "no less insulting than libellous." Besides this, Herr Wellmer, on his showing, is a person whose allegations we are under no obligation to accept oftener than we think fit. Karoline Bauer, it now transpires, lived to lose all confidence in him; and the publication of the 'Posthumous Memoirs' was in direct opposition to her known wishes.

To what extent Herr Wellmer has supplemented or distorted the information furnished him by the authoress is not ascertained. Her more flagrant self-malignment, at any rate, must, we should say, be due to his malicious invention. But her history, where the Baron and the Prince are inculpated, bears in its details an impress, all but unmistakable, of verisimilitude. Taken, moreover, as a whole, what Professor Müller is pleased to stigmatize as "these nauseous papers" and "these sickening and cadaverous memoirs" will be likely to present themselves to any unprejudiced reader under a very different aspect. Let him, in future, by all means confine himself to essay-writing, and eschew, as futile, the ambition to signalize himself as a controversialist. As such, he has, hitherto, miscarried well-nigh absolutely.

X. Y. Z.

POPULAR EDUCATION IN SWITZERLAND.

ZURICH, February 25, 1885.

THE small Republic of the Alps has published in C. Grot's seven volumes of statistics a record of the educational progress made since Professor Krönlein's 'Statistics of Public Instruction in Switzerland in 1871' took the first place among such works at the Vienna Exposition of 1873. From these two works I learn that the Federal Constitution of 1874 made the public schools free and compulsory. But the administration of the schools is left to the cantons, and the right of supervision and inspection which the Federal Government expressly reserved is practically nullified, for want of a Federal official charged with this duty. In 1882 an effort was made to create such a commissioner, but the project, approved by the Federal Assembly, was voted down by the people. The States-rights element voted against a measure tending toward centralization, and the conservative-clerical element opposed the appointment of an officer whose duty it would be to expose the bad management of the schools in cantons where the clergy rule, and compulsory education had remained a dead letter. States-rights prejudices are still deeply rooted among the people, and the commissioner was vetoed by popular vote on November 26, 1882.

Nevertheless, the Federal Government can and does indirectly ascertain the grade of educational activity of the cantons through its examination of recruits. This examination is required of every such youth as has not a school certificate of first or second rank, and is neither deaf-mute nor imbecile. The examination is conducted by a commission of teachers appointed by the War Department, and embraces the language of the canton (French, German, or Italian, as the case may be)—a short essay being required, among other things; arithmetic (rule of three and fractions), geography, history of Switzerland, and the elements of constitutional law. Such pupils as fail to pass are obliged to attend a supplementary school. The yearly report of the recruit examinations is published by the Federal Government, and acts as a spur upon the backward cantons, since it gives full and minute particulars about canton and township. The improvement registered by these yearly Federal reports is simply astounding. The recruit examinations were introduced in 1875. The recruits in round numbers reached in 1875 seventeen thousand; in 1876, eighteen thousand; in 1877, twenty-two thousand; and the number has varied between twenty and twenty-three thousand each year since. These figures embrace ninety per cent. of the Swiss male youth of twenty years of age, and serve as a fair basis for an estimate of the status of education in general, for the compulsory law applies to girls as well as boys, and the girls are conceded to be the more industrious.

The percentage of failures throws a flood of light upon the Swiss treatment of illiteracy. The average number of recruits failing to pass and condemned to enter a supplementary school was, for the first four years, 1875 to 1878 inclusive, 11.21 per cent. For the next four years, from 1879 to 1882 inclusive, the average had fallen to 8.3 per cent. In 1883 the number fell to 5.2 per cent. This enormous reduction of illiteracy—a reduction of one-half in eight years in the entire youth of the country, at the age of twenty years—is the more remarkable in view of the fact that the examination was made more difficult in 1879 by the introduction of "constitutional law." It is made still more remarkable by the appointment for each canton of examiners selected from the teachers of some other canton—an arrangement which effectually excludes undue leniency.

The stimulating influence of the publication of the Federal Government's annual report of the recruit examinations is strikingly shown by a comparison of the cantons which supplied the largest contingents of failures. In the four years 1875 to 1878 inclusive, the percentage was in Neuchâtel, 11.1 per cent.; Tessin, 12 per cent.; Graubünden, 13.6 per cent.; Schwyz, 23.8 per cent.; Bern, 14.8 per cent.; Glarus, 16.5 per cent.; Nidwalden, 13.6 per cent.; Freyburg, 24.6 per cent.; Uri, 25 per cent.; Valais, 40.6 per cent.; Appenzell, 47.1 per cent. In the next following four years, the percentages were, Neuchâtel, 7.8; Tessin, 11.1; Graubünden, 8.4; Schwyz, 19.4; Bern, 10.2; Glarus, 7.1 (a reduction more than one-half the total number of failures); Nidwalden, 8.6; Freyburg, 20.5; Uri, 15.5; Valais, 19.6; Appenzell, 30.2. In other words, the percentage of failures was reduced in four years, in the worst cantons, thirty, forty, and even fifty per cent.; while of the whole twenty-six cantons but three showed no improvement. The improvement was brought about chiefly by means of improvements in the elementary schools, by

enforcement of the compulsory law, and by the creation of supplementary classes, evening and Sunday schools. Compulsory classes have been formed in the nine most backward cantons for youth between eighteen and twenty years of age, with special reference to the examinations. These classes embrace about fifty lessons, and are a direct outcome of the publication of the Federal Government's annual report of recruit examinations.

So much for this special means of indirect central supervision of popular education. A second most striking characteristic of the Swiss school system is the now almost universal enforcement of the compulsory law. This compulsion extends over six, eight, or ten years, according to the canton. Out of 485,790 children of both sexes, of school age, 474,878, or 97 8-10 per cent., have attended elementary schools, and the remaining 2 per cent. include deaf-mutes, idiots, and sick children excused before reaching the end of the period in which attendance is compulsory. Besides the compulsory attendance, there are 20,000 children under six years of age in kindergartens, 13,000 above the compulsory age in high schools, and 20,000 in secondary schools. In many places these higher grades, arranged for children from twelve to sixteen years, are compulsory. Finally, 11,000 children are in the intermediate and 10,000 in private schools; and the total sum of all these numbers, added to the 1,700 students in the Swiss universities, is something more than 550,000 young persons undergoing instruction, or one-fifth of the whole population of Switzerland.

One of the chief causes of the excellence of the Swiss schools is the permanent tenure of office of the teachers, which atones in part for the meagreness of the salaries, though the same lamentable injustice prevails in Switzerland as elsewhere in the underpayment of women as compared with men. The salaries are, however, being gradually increased. In 1871 the average salary was 1,419 francs for men teachers of elementary schools, and 901 francs for women performing precisely the same duties. In the next ten years, ending 1881, the salaries were increased 42 per cent. for men, 38 per cent. for women, the old injustice being thus accentuated. Elementary teachers are best paid in Basel, Zürich, and Geneva, where men receive 3,213 fr., 2,228 fr., and 2,188 fr. respectively, women receiving 1,535 fr., 1,805 fr., and 1,227 fr. yearly. But these are municipal salaries, whereas the averages quoted cover the whole of Switzerland, embracing the pay of the young peasant girl in the village infant school, as well as of the head master of the highest municipal gymnasium. Moreover, the teacher usually receives a dwelling rent free, and in many cases young unmarried teachers have board and lodging (not "boarding round"), the money payment being a minor consideration. The length of tenure of office of Swiss elementary school teachers may be judged from the following averages: In 1881 the average age of such teachers was thirty-seven years for men and twenty-nine years for women. Out of more than eight thousand such teachers, less than six hundred were under twenty years of age, and but three hundred and sixty over sixty years. Very young and very old teachers are equally exceptional, and the *average* tenure is sixteen years for men and ten for women.

The long tenure and rising salaries make the teacher's lot a desirable one, and enable the Swiss people to require and obtain a high degree of qualification for persons filling this important office. Thus, of 8,365 teachers of elementary schools employed in 1881, 17 were university graduates, 63 were graduates of classical gymnasia, nearly 7,000 were graduates of normal schools, nearly 600 were graduates of progymnasia (equivalent to good American high schools), 376 had completed "courses of pedagogical instruction," 280 (having attended private schools) had obtained diplomas after special official examination; and out of the whole 8,365, but 85 teachers in the whole country were in possession of mere elementary school education. Thus, apart from the 80 elementary school teachers who boast university or gymnasial diplomas, nearly 7,000, or 83 per cent., have had special normal training. F. K. W.

Correspondence.

IRON IN THE MOUNDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the able review of Nadaillac's 'Prehistoric America,' which recently appeared in your columns, the question of the discovery of iron in the mounds is touched upon, and, on the authority of Atwater's well-known relation, it is claimed that those who built and buried in the Circleville mound must have been acquainted with the use of iron. Intrusive mound burials are, of course, out of court, and the object of an inquiry into this subject must be to determine whether the people who built mounds before the advent of Europeans were acquainted with the use of iron. The analytic (as distinguished from historical) literature on the subject of prehistoric iron in America is practically limited to two papers, that by Steenstrup on the use of meteoric iron by the Greenlanders, and one by Putnam on iron in the Ohio mounds (Am. Antiq., Soc., 1883). The latter, which for some reason does not seem to be as widely known and appreciated as its merits deserve, is in reality a little monograph. Atwater's story is examined in it, and, without necessarily impeaching his good faith, it is conclusively shown that his narrative affords no basis for any conclusions as to the prehistoric use of iron. For that reason the story was dropped from the book. The language used by me, that in "numerous excavations" "not a scrap" of iron had been found, was intended to be taken literally as it stands, and its exact accuracy is beyond question. That it was not intended to say that iron had *never* been found in excavations is evident, because its discovery by Putnam is immediately mentioned. The question is of serious importance in our anthropology, or I should not trouble you with so lengthy an explanation.

There is another point on which trustworthy information is sorely needed, viz.: archæological conchology. Most of the stories about tropical shells found in mounds in the North, etc., are entirely unreliable for want of verification. I have eliminated or modified, in the interest of truth, most of Nadaillac's statements or quotations of such cases. His assertion that the present Indians disdain to eat the *Ampullaria* and *Paludina* agrees with my own personal observation, at least as regards the first genus, in Central America; and in spite of Wyman's belief that the "crackers" do not hesitate to use them, I incline for the present to the opinion that an erroneous identification of the shells may have misled him, for reasons too lengthy to inflict upon your readers. Any information as to present consumption of fresh-water mollusks by existing Indians would be a real gain to science, for it is a most remarkable thing that this source of food seems now entirely neglected by tribes such as the Yukon Indians, who nevertheless suffer from almost annual periods of semi-starvation.—I remain, respectfully yours, Wm. H. Dall.

Washington, March 14, 1885.

[In giving some of the reasons why we believed that Atwater found the remains of iron implements in the Circleville, Ohio, mound, as he says he did, we were replying to the assertion (pp. 180–1) that "except meteoric iron . . . previous statements with regard to the discovery of iron in the mounds are, without exception, unsatisfactory"; and our object in so doing was to prove that this particular mound was built after contact with the whites, and not that "the people who built the mounds before the arrival of Europeans were acquainted with the use of iron." This, we think, is evident from the context; for in speaking of Atwater's testimony, we expressly say that it is "backed by evidence, that is believed to be decisive, as to the *recent occupancy* of the earthwork" within which this mound was situated.

In regard to the use of the *Paludina* and the *Ampullaria*, as food, by the "present" Indians (using that word in the sense in which it seems to have been employed in 'Prehistoric America,' pp. 57–8, and meaning thereby the red Indians of historic times) and the "crackers," we can only say, that, so far as the "crackers" are concerned, Wyman asserts it as a fact, not a "belief"; that in Laudonnière's time, the Indians, when "in necessitie," were not particular as to what they ate; and that if any of the fresh-water shell-heaps of the St. John's were built by the red Indians or their ancestors, as the mounds of the Mississippi Valley and the shell-heaps of the Atlantic seashore are generally admitted to have been, Mr. Dall himself (p. 58) answers the question in the affirmative.—Ed Nation.]

SPEAKER AND EX-SPEAKER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the letter of "G. B.," in your issue of March 12, occurs this passage:

"The spectacle of the *Speaker* deliberately using his official position to postpone action on the appropriation bills till the last minute, while expressing a quiet confidence that there would be no extra session, and then sending them to the Senate, the only place where there is any discussion, so late as to render discussion impossible, and to force a settlement in secret conference committees—it seems as if this was enough to convince anybody who was not wilfully blind of the necessity of some strong and responsible outside control."

If, in the above extract, "the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations" had been substituted for "the Speaker," the statement would have been substantially correct. As it stands, it does gross injustice to one of the purest and most conscientious men in public life, Speaker Carlisle. I am surprised that such a well-informed writer as "G. B." should have fallen into so palpable an error. The Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, by virtue of his control of all appropriation bills, which have the "right of way," has practically the command of the business of the House for the last weeks of a session, particularly when he holds the bills back, as was done in the session just closed. The rules permit this, and Mr. Carlisle is as powerless as any other member to prevent it. I know he felt annoyance at the course of business in the House during the late session, and indicated it, if I am not mistaken, in his valedictory address. To hold him responsible for it and not Mr. Randall is such a reversal of the truth of history as I know the *Nation* will permit me to correct.

C. W. E.

Washington, D. C., March 23, 1885.

OUR FOREIGN SERVICE—ITS DEFECTS AND THE REMEDIES THEREFOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As we are reasonably confident of having an era of reform in the various branches of the Government service under the new Administration, it may not be amiss to direct attention to the urgent need of change and improvement in a branch of the service which ordinarily receives far less attention than its importance merits. I refer to our foreign service, and especially to the consular branch of it, in which the writer has had considerable experience in various countries, and much opportunity for observation. Comparatively few understand and appreciate the importance of this branch. It is too far away from home. The press bestows but little attention on it except to criticise and belittle it. Travellers abroad are often rather disgusted at the kind of representatives they too frequently find, and the *mean* way they are compelled to live; and the commercial community does not rely upon it, because of its too general inefficiency. The popular idea at home is that it is ornamental rather than useful; and this idea has been encouraged by the "spoilsmen," and practically also even by our State Department, which has usually made appointments to it without regard to qualifications, and as if it regarded almost any one capable of performing the duties pertaining thereto. Hardly any wonder, then, that the author of 'The True Issue' should arrive at the conclusion that the reports of American consuls are not worth the paper they are printed on, as they undoubtedly frequently are not.

And yet our consular service is practically perhaps of even greater importance to our Government and people than the diplomatic branch of our foreign service, and stands in quite as great need, to say the least, of thorough reform. To show how important it is from a financial point of view, and the necessity of having a trained and efficient consular service, I need only refer to the fact that our entire import trade, from which nearly two-thirds of our entire Government revenue—nearly $250,000,000 per annum—is derived, has to pass under the inspection of our consuls, and the invoices therefor be examined and legalized by them to prevent frauds on the revenue. The most important duty our consuls have to perform, perhaps, is examining and legalizing invoices, on account of our system (as I believe, objectionable) of levying duties *ad valorem* instead of *specific*. If on arrival at the Custom-house the invoice price is suspected of being too low, the consul is subject to blame, and receives it very freely from a certain part of the press. But what can a new and inexperienced consul, with no knowledge of his duties, no knowledge of the prices of merchandise in the place where he is located, perhaps in nine cases out of ten with no knowledge of the language of the country to enable him to procure information—what, I ask, can such a consul do to protect the interests of our Government? However excellent may be his intentions, he is necessarily incapable of performing his duties efficiently, and our Government revenue must suffer the consequences. This duty of examining and legalizing invoices is special to the American consular service, no other country, I believe, except Spain to a limited extent, requiring it.

But our consuls have, in addition, to perform all the other duties usually incumbent on the consuls of other countries. They are expected and required to protect their fellow-citizens in case of need, to keep their Government informed as to all matters pertaining to trade, commerce, manufactures, labor statistics, etc., in their respective consular districts. Especially are they required to look out for outlets for American produce, notwithstanding the protective policy of our Government makes this such an up-hill business. They must show due courtesy to all travelling Americans, especially to M. C.'s, for fear of having their scant salaries cut down or abolished at the next session of Congress. They must loan money or head subscription lists for impecunious Americans who come their way, lest they should be called to account at the instigation of some M.C. whose constituent complains to him. If an American swindler happens to be caught, as is becoming too frequent of late, and imprisoned in his jurisdiction, the consul is expected to look very specially after his interests, as the writer happens to know from experience. Of course the consul must provide for destitute American seamen, but he must be exceedingly careful in so doing, or he will have the accounts therefor thrown back on him for some slight informality.

To perform properly all the varied duties required of him, the consul should have special training, skill, and experience. He should have, at least, a general knowledge of international law, and should be well acquainted with the treaties and conventions between his own country and the country to which he is sent. He should be familiar with the general laws of trade, commerce, and exchange. An indispensable requisite for most European countries ought to be a current knowledge of the language of the country to which he is sent, or, at least, of French; and for Mexico, South, and Central America, of Spanish. A consul who is not able to converse freely with those he has to, or *ought* to, come in contact with, is unable to inform himself properly as to his duties, and is necessarily dependent on others, and too frequently on those whose interest it is to deceive him. The importance of this has not generally been sufficiently appreciated by our State Department. I have known serious questions to arise out of misunderstandings purposely created by the dragoman class in the East, and well-meaning consuls in Europe to be the helpless dupes and tools of unfit and designing clerks. The only remedy for this is to lay more stress on a knowledge of foreign languages for our consular service.

Some seem to have the idea that our foreign service is more stable and less the football of favoritism and the "spoils system" than the home service, and especially that the late Administration so treated it. I am convinced, however, that this is a very erroneous idea. I am assured by the highest authority—Mr. Eaton—that Mr. Arthur executed the Civil-Service Law in entire good faith, for which he should certainly have due credit. But was he not on oath to execute the laws? And does he merit special credit for doing so palpable a duty? It will be remembered, however, that the Civil-Service Law, as it now exists, is made applicable to a very small part of the public service. But if this law is good in principle, ought not its spirit to be carried out in all branches of the public service, and especially in our foreign service, where special training, qualifications, and experience are so absolutely essential? The frequent and gross violations of the principles of civil-service reform in our home service, and the recent almost scandalous cases of nepotism and favoritism, have been duly held up to public attention and condemnation by the most respectable part of the press. But the same practices in our foreign service have usually passed unobserved, or have been only barely mentioned. Yet I am convinced that statistics would prove that the spirit of reform has been more frequently and more grossly violated in our foreign than in our domestic service.

I have not the material in hand to establish this in the various countries. But in Italy, for instance, I am acquainted with what has been done. There, out of ten full consulates, including the Consulate-General at Rome, eight were filled anew by the late Administration; one of the other two (Venice) had just been filled with a new man by President Garfield. Of these eight new appointments made by President Arthur, only one, I believe—the new Consul-General at Rome—had had any previous experience in the consular service, or any special qualifications for the performance of its duties. If, then, Italy may be taken as a fair sample of what has been done in other countries—and I presume it may—four-fifths of our consular service was changed by the late *pretended* reform Administration, and very largely filled by new, inexperienced, and totally unqualified men. Was this not "rotation in office," the "spoils system," nepotism, favoritism, and all that reformers condemn?

The new Administration, then, will likely find good reason for making very many changes in our consular service on strictly civil-service grounds—that is, for incapacity and unfitness. Only let us hope that in making changes it will be careful not to simply substitute one unfit person for another, but will pay strict attention both to qualifications and character.

I have thus endeavored to point out a few of the present evils existing in our foreign service. With your permission, I shall in another article suggest what I think would remedy these evils, and gradually make the service more efficient and in every way more useful and creditable to the country.

B. O. D.

THE ARTISTIC VALUE OF IMPERFECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Whistler and Mr. Oscar Wilde have been having their say once more about "loveliness" and "hideousness," coats and costumes, and, in general, how things look to a painter and what things are of worth to him; and those of us whom it amuses to listen to them have once more answered inwardly Yes and No to their doctrines. Mr. Whistler's setting forth of the interchangeableness to a painter of beauty and ugliness in the objects he treats seems to have been effectively put, and one welcomes all discourse which may do something to enlighten the "general" mind on this point. For it is essential that the truth of this fact should be clearly recognized to arrive at any sound judgment, not only of the painter's works but of the novelist's. When it is recognized, we shall not hear so intolerably often the complaint, "Why doesn't he choose nicer people for his personages?" And much that is now so crudely called and foolishly considered "art for art's sake" will be seen to be art based on the deepest need of art—the desire to express what lies beneath the surface.

A passage from the Swiss traveller Topffer, quoted by Sainte-Beuve for a different purpose, is worth considering in this connection as being an admirable presentation, taken figuratively, of what is equally true for the novelist as for the painter:

"One often sees the landscapist—who at bottom seeks things to express much more than things to copy—pass by sometimes a magnificent rock, sometimes a majestic group of vigorous oaks, verdant and splendid, to establish himself at the end of a footpath bordered by a few meagre bushes, or in an unused road which loses itself in the mire of a marsh, or by a little pool of black water into which dip the straggling branches of a mutilated, hollow, decayed willow. . . . He does so because this decay, this mire, this rough grass, this pathway, which, considered as objects to be beheld, are either ugly or without beauty, considered contrariwise as signs of thoughts, as emblematical of things in nature or in man, as expressing something broader and higher than themselves, have really or may be made to have every advantage over oaks which would be only beautiful, verdant, and splendid."

* *

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce a new enterprise for the young, "a series of graphic historical studies," telling 'The Story of the Nations.' The Jews, the Goths, the Normans, and the Saracens will each have a chapter like the several countries. Prof. J. K. Hosmer will treat of the Jews, Mr. Arthur Gilman of Rome, Prof. J. A. Harrison of Greece, Mr. Charlton T. Lewis of Byzantium, Prof. H. H. Boyesen of Norway, Rev. E. E. Hale and Miss Susan Hale of Spain, etc. The volumes will be 12mo, and will be sold separately.

The same publishers have undertaken 'The Scriptures for Young Readers: an Introduction to the Study of the Bible,' edited by Prof. Edward T. Bartlett and Prof. John P. Peters. It will be constructed by selections, omissions, rearrangements, and paraphrases, with supplementary historical data drawn from all sources for the period between Malachi and Jesus. The first volume will include Hebrew story from the Creation to the time of Nehemiah, as in the Hebrew canon; the second volume will be devoted to Hebrew poetry and prophecy; the third will be derived from the New Testament.

Simultaneously with the appearance of the Revised Old Testament, Funk & Wagnalls will bring out a 'Companion' to it, by the Rev. Talbot W. Chambers, one of the Revision Committee. It will enumerate and explain the changes made.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, we are glad to learn, are about to issue a new and improved edition of Mr. W. H. Whitmore's 'Ancestral Tablets.' No one with the least bent for genealogical research ever examined this ingeniously compact substitute for the "family tree" without longing to own it. It provides for the recording of eight lineal generations, and is a perpetual incentive to the pursuit of one's ancestry.

Dr. Charles Mackay has prepared for the Messrs. Blackwood 'The Founders of the American Republic,' who are taken to be our first four Presidents plus Franklin—Hamilton being conspicuous by his absence.

Mr. John Bigelow, writing to the *Critic*, desires to learn who is the present possessor of a sketch, made by Victor Hugo, of the house occupied by Franklin during his eight years' residence as Minister to the Court of France. It was sold at the great fair for the relief of our wounded soldiers held in this city "in 1865" [1864?].

The "Riverside Aldine Series" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) opens with two pretty 16mos, freighted with Mr. T. B. Aldrich's 'Marjorie Daw, and Other Stories,' and Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's 'My Summer in a Garden'—works eminently fitted for this handy and dainty embodiment. A plain blue cloth gives an elegant simplicity to the exterior, while the Aldine-Pickering device, of dolphin and anchor, ornaments just enough the stamp upon the back of each volume. As a matter of taste in the typography, we should prefer a different letter from that employed on the title-page for the New York address of the firm. But this is a trifle. The total effect is worthy of the reputation of the publishers.

Mr. Edward T. Mason's well-conceived and well-executed 'Personal Traits of British Authors' (Scribners) is concluded with a volume embracing Hood, Macaulay, Sydney Smith, Jerrold, Dickens, Charlotte Brontë, and Thackeray. A good deal of the material was naturally found in American books; and the observations of our own countrymen must, in the case of foreign celebrities, always have a peculiar value, both because of its presumable objectiveness and because we can rate the observer for what he is worth. From the same publishers we have a paper-cover reprint of Mr. George P. Lathrop's 'In the Distance,' and the fourth volume of Dr. Philip Schaff's 'History of the Christian Church'—Mediæval Christianity, 590-1073.

Mr. Augustus J. C. Hare's 'Sketches in Holland and Scandinavia' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) probably serve to remind the author and his friends of enjoyable excursions; but we can see no good reason for offering them to the public, such slight information as the book contains being already easily accessible.

We have from A. D. F. Randolph & Co. a series of decoratively-bound poems for Easter—Tennyson's "In the Children's Hospital," "The Old, Old Story," illustrated in outlines, and "Daybreak," an Easter poem, by Julia C. R. Dorr; and in the same series, "A Tiny Footfall within the Golden Gate," a religious child-story. Also, from E. P. Dutton & Co., "The Unknown Way," of Bryant, very copiously and very cheaply illustrated, but in a beautiful limp binding; from White, Stokes & Allen, in their usual silk-fringed and flower-illustrated style, arranged by Susie B. Skelding, "Easter Bells"—four chromo-lithographic flower groups, with illuminated cover.

The series of French reprints entitled "Contes Choisis," published by Wm. R. Jenkins, reaches its third number in 'Un Mariage d'Amour,' by Ludovic Halévy. A parallel series in German has just been begun in Chicago by L. Schick, who gives his own name to the "Collection Schick." Rudolf Lindau leads off with three short stories, and Fanny Lewald follows with two. The print is good of its kind, though the type has too many hair lines, and the paper is far too glossy. The "Contes Choisis," by the way, will have also original features. 'Peppino,' a French romance, by Prof. L. D. Ventura, of the Sauveur School of Languages, Philadelphia, will be shortly added to them, and will probably be, says Mr. Jenkins, "the first original copyright French novel published in the United States."

Parts 4-7 of the new 'Allgemeine Geschichte' edited by Theodor Flathe, Gustav Hertzberg, Ferdinand Justi, Martin Philippson, and other scholars (Berlin: G. Grote; New York: B. Westermann & Co.), deal in a popular manner with the early history of the East from Chaldæa to Greece. Few works of this kind have been more profusely or better illustrated. Every new part is introduced by a group of full-page maps, landscapes, or designs, often from photographs, while the text is thickly interspersed with excellent woodcuts. Such an enterprise seems native to Germany, and it is perhaps a little singular that, in default of original historical compendiums, our English-speaking public is denied even the benefit of translations. These would be easier to procure than first-hand work from our students.

Khartum having been already disposed of under the letter C in the new 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon,' there is but little in Parts 136-139 (New York: L. W. Schmidt) of what the world is now talking about. One may consult articles on Cameroons, with an account of its acquisition by the German Empire; on Canton, with a good text-map, and on Kelung, relating the French operations against Formosa down to November last. The other chief geographical articles in this rather barren letter K are Cape Colony and Caucasus. Kant and Kaulbach are the chief celebrities, except the royal and imperial Charleses, who are all included here.

We have already made mention of the great undertaking of the Paris house of Victor Palmé, in reproducing in facsimile the 'Sacrorum Conciliorum Collectio' of Joannes Dominicus Mansi. B. Westermann & Co. now send us the first fasciculus of the work—a small folio. Doubtless better progress will be made than with the original thirty-one volumes, which were published at Florence and Venice from 1758 to 1799, in spite of their stopping short at the fifteenth century. This first instalment is not continuous. It gives the table of contents of the first volume; a fragment of Mansi's preface; the first thirty-two columns of the text proper (beginning with the so-called "Synodus Apostolorum quadruplex"); and finally a hundred columns beginning with No. 669 and the Concilium Pergamense. This represents about a ninth part of vol. i; and although the present arrangement recalls Hood's middle-cut of salmon—"You can't make head or tail of it"—it will all come out right in the end for the binder. The quality of the facsimile is to be praised for clearness and legibility.

We receive from F. W. Christern a specimen number of a French illustrated dictionary of the fine arts, the subject being Bouguereau, with numerous illustrations in photogravure and otherwise. It is hardly to be regarded as a serious art publication, and the selection of Bouguereau as a sample perhaps indicates fairly its level.

The first number of the *American Journal of Archæology* will not disappoint the hopes of the friends of the science in America. It opens with a most interesting notice by Prof. C. E. Norton of a work which, though almost unknown, is one of the most remarkable of early studies on the prehistoric remains of the classical field, and one which, in its cautious and sagacious induction, has not been surpassed by many later studies, even with all the advantage of the progress of the science since it was written. This is a book by J. J. Middleton on Grecian remains in Italy, published in 1812. Next in order is a careful study on the Panathenaic Festival—an anticipation of a part of Doctor Waldstein's forthcoming book on Phidias; and a peculiarly interesting essay, by Professor Merriam, on a collection of vases found at Alexandria and now in the possession of Mr. Feuardent—a new type of inscribed ceramics. This essay will, we are convinced, do honor abroad to American epigraphy. Doctor Frothingham contributes the first of a series of studies on sculpture in Europe in the thirteenth century, and Mr. Marsh a review of Dorpfeld's essay on ancient brick work in Doric architecture. News, reviews, etc., make up the latter half of the number of 103 pages, and three good heliotype illustrations accompany the text. If the *Journal* is not well supported, it will be because there is little real interest in America in classical and mediæval archæology.

We imagined that the frontispiece of the *Art Journal* for March was as insignificant and vapid an example of modern art as could be seen. We were mistaken, for that of the April number is worse in every way, nor is there anything else in the number worthy of special notice. "Facilis descensus" seems to be especially true of art journals.

The American Institute of Electrical Engineers was organized in this city in May of last year. It has now begun publishing its transactions in a first volume, which includes papers read and discussions down to and including October, 1884. The contents make interesting reading. In connection with the question of underground wires, we have once more a section of ideal Broadway on the arcade plan. The office of the Secretary is at No. 9 Murray Street.

The valuable series of papers read before the Military Service Institution of the United States from time to time, appear in the quarterly *Journal* published by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The number for March contains General Sherman's discourse on the militia, and much other interesting matter. Gen. J. B. Fry reviews Gen. G. W. Smith's 'Confederate War Papers,' with special reference to the battle of Seven Pines, during

which General Smith was superseded by General Lee.

It is stated that Mr. Henry W. Grady, of the Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution*, is the author of the reply to Mr. Cable's "Freedman's Case in Equity," which, as was promised in the *Century* for March, will appear in an early number of that magazine.

The current issue of the *Library* of Cornell University promises in the next a list of the works lately presented by Mr. Eugene Schuyler —partly the sources of his 'History of Peter the Great,' partly philological works on the Slavic and Turanian languages, with a valuable folk-lore collection, especially rich on the Slavic side.

The double number of the *China Review* for November-December, 1884, contains a noticeably full sketch of the island of Formosa, by A. R. Colquhoun and J. H. Stewart-Lockhart.

The principal paper in the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society for March is an account of the expedition made last year to Mount Kilimanjaro, in Eastern Africa, by Mr. Johnston, the well-known author of a book on the Congo. He spent about five months on the slopes of the mountain, principally in collecting specimens of the fauna and flora of the region. In this he was very successful, bringing home about 300 plants, 20 or 30 of which were new to science, as well as many birds and insects. He was able to ascend the mountain only to the snow line, 16,315 feet, where the cold and driving mist prevented his further progress. The scenery is described as surpassingly beautiful, while in some places there was a wonderful glow of color from the profusion of flowers. Game, including buffalos and elephants, was to be found in great plenty. As this till recently unknown region, which from the accounts of Messrs. Thomson and Johnston seems to be a terrestrial paradise, is only six weeks distant from London, it is probable that in no long time it will become as familiar to tourists as Algeria.

At last we have an illustration of a coral island that may to advantage replace the well-worn cuts of our geographies. It is an imaginary bird's-eye view of Caroline Island in the far Pacific, lately published (where no one would expect to find it) in the second volume of the Memoirs of the National Academy of Science, as a full-page frontispiece to the account of the eclipse expedition of 1883. The value of the drawing does not lie altogether in its originality, for it is evidently based on a view accompanying a narrative of Janssen's expedition to the same island, that was published in *Le Monde Illustré* for October 20, 1884; but it is so great an improvement over this as to be essentially a new drawing. Neither can it be considered a precise representation of the atoll, for a comparison with the map also printed in the Memoirs shows that the view is largely idealized. But for all this, it is a well-designed drawing, the effect of which is satisfactory to a critical observer who has visited the island, and thus adds one more number to the slowly growing list of really good illustrations for use in teaching physical geography. The circular reef, with its white beaches and dark groves, lies close on the ocean surface; the smooth lagoon is enclosed within it, and the broad ocean stretches unbroken away to the horizon outside. Surely this is one of the most individual of all the geographic forms that a child must learn about at school, and it deserves better illustration than the poor drawings and unartistic sections that have hitherto been allowed it.

The opportunities for studying savage or uncivilized races in their virgin condition are fast disappearing. Recognizing the importance of prompt action, the officials of the Museen für Völkerkunde, of Berlin, sent out in 1881 an expedition under the command of Captain Jacobsen, a hardy Arctic voyager, for the purpose of collecting materials illustrating the manners and customs of the peoples of British Columbia and Alaska, especially of the latter before they had been seriously affected by intercourse with their new rulers, the "go-ahead Yankees." The scientific results of the voyage, which lasted from 1881 to 1883, are to be reported in a publication issued by the direction of the Museum, under the title, 'Amerika's Nordwestküste.' Two parts or numbers have already appeared, containing large colored plates, with descriptive text by A. Bastian. The narrative of the voyage has been prepared by A. Woldt, from Captain Jacobsen's log-book, and recently published at Leipzig by Spohr.

A valuable addition to the works relating to Leonardo da Vinci has lately been published by G. Uzielli, under the title 'Ricerche intorno a Leonardo da Vinci' (Rome: Salviucci). This author is favorably known from his contributions to the family history of Leonardo, published about ten years ago as the first series of the present work. Among the matters considered in this volume are the botanical researches of Leonardo, and the bequest of his manuscripts to the Ambrosian Library of Milan, to which is added a catalogue of his sketches preserved at Florence, Turin, and Venice. If Ravaisson's work upon the manuscripts of Leonardo, which he has begun upon such a grand scale as is shown in the two volumes already published, is carried out in accordance with his design, means will not be lacking for a full knowledge of this artist's wonderful accomplishments. Richter's collection of facsimiles of the manuscripts is a most important work, but is only a selection. Ravaisson proposes to reproduce all. He gives a facsimile of each page, with the Italian transcription underneath, and on the opposite page adds a French translation. A summary of the subjects treated precedes the translation, with an indication of the works in which any of the passages may have been published.

—Professor Newcomb writes us:

"Your kindly notice of my 'Analytic Geometry' gives me a credit which does not belong to me, in a way to cause misapprehension on the part of teachers who are not familiar with any forms of notation except those used in English and American books. The use of three parallel lines to denote identical equality is very common among German and French mathematicians; indeed, some such symbol is absolutely necessary in analytic geometry to distinguish between an equation and an identity. The use of the same symbol as one of definition was taken by me from the work of professors at Cornell University. I am persuaded that no confusion can arise from the different ways in which the symbol is used in different books, any more than in algebra confusion arises from assigning different values to x in different problems."

—A striking feature of the eighteenth volume (Orn—Pht) of the Encyclopædia Britannica, ninth edition (New York: Scribners; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is the large number of important papers contributed by non-British scholars. Among the most valuable and most readable of these contributions is part i of "Philology"—"Science of Language in General"—by Prof. W. D. Whitney, while part ii—"Comparative Philology of the Aryan Languages"—an equally elaborate but less generally attractive piece of work, is from the pen of Prof. E. Sievers. Professor Nöldeke is the author of the articles on the Pahlavi language and Persepolis, and of the principal portion of the very comprehensive ancient history of Persia, the rest of which is by Prof. A. von Gutschmid, while Professors Geldner and Ethé discourse on Persian language and literature respectively. Major-General Sir Frederic Goldsmid completes, with his "Modern History and Geography" of Persia, the extensive series of essays devoted to that country, comprising in the aggregate a full hundred pages, brimful with first-class erudition. Dr. Reinhold Rost writes on the Pali language, Dr. A. Führer on the Parsees, Professor Harnack on Paul of Samosata, and Professor Schürer on Philo. Professor Socin's "Palestine" is a mine of information chiefly geographical, and Professor Wellhausen's "Pentateuch" an admirable condensation of the leading criticism of our day on the age and composition of that part of the Old Testament. "Phœnicia" is mainly from the pen of Von Gutschmid, with additions by Socin. It is needless to remark on the excellence of the editorial judgment which thus apportioned the various fields to authorities so exceptionally competent, and safe to surmise that the selection is chiefly the merit of Prof. W. Robertson Smith, who himself contributes the important articles on Palmyra, Passover, and Philistines. What is surprising is the correctness, plainness, and idiomatic neatness of style in which the contributions of the German scholars are laid before the public. Only a very attentive perusal reveals solitary slips indicative of a foreign hand and editorial oversight. Thus Socin has "Rechoboth" (for Rehoboth) and "Akhzib" (Achzib), and Nöldeke "Merodakh" (Merodach), while Wellhausen's "Hakkeleiah" (for Hachaliah, p. 514) is apparently a German reflection, in a kind of aphasia, of the mentally pronounced English form. Too English is "M'Mahon," as the spelling of the name of the ex-President of the French Republic in the article "Paris" —a contribution by two French writers, more remarkable for minuteness of topographical and statistical detail than for historical or stylistic attractiveness. Among the most important contributions by British authors are "Ornithology" (by Prof. A. Newton, 48 pages), "Palæography" (E. M. Thompson, 23), "Pathology" (Dr. Creighton, 47), "Peru" (Markham), "Photography" (Captain Abney), and "Phrenology" (Prof. A. Macalister). Of notices referring to the United States we may mention "Parker" (Rev. J. F. Smith), "Pennsylvania" (Prof. J. P. Lesley and Rev. C. G. Ames), and "Philadelphia" (C. H. Hart).

—"Dynamiting and Extra-Territorial Crime" is the title of an interesting pamphlet by Dr. Francis Wharton, the author of several well-known legal treatises (Jersey City: Frederick D. Linn & Co.). His object is to show that the prosecution of persons sending dynamite abroad for criminal purposes belongs to the American States from whose soil the dynamite is sent, or within whose jurisdiction the plot is hatched, and not to the Federal Government. So far as the latter negative proposition is concerned, Doctor Wharton does not discuss the question in sufficient detail to enable us to judge exactly by what means he reaches his conclusion; but the positive part of it he maintains with great force. The bearing of the Orsini and Bernard cases on this point he makes out to be as follows: Orsini, an Italian, concocted a plot in London to assassinate the French Emperor and bring on a revolution. Bernard, a Frenchman, was either an accessory or a principal in the conspiracy. The means used were hand-grenades, which resembled dynamite explosives in one respect—that, whatever might be their ultimate political effect, they were sure to kill and wound innocent bystanders. On January 14, 1858, several of these grenades were thrown by Orsini and a confederate at the carriage in which the Emperor and Empress were driving to the opera. There was an explosion in which the Emperor and his friends and advisers escaped unharmed, but ten innocent spectators were killed, and one hundred and fifty-six wounded. Reclamations were made upon England, but Lord Palmerston was badly advised as to the law. Not only, as afterwards appeared, was it the opinion of the best English lawyers that such a conspiracy was a common-

law offence, but there was an express statute providing for the trial of "any of his Majesty's *subjects*" charged in England with murder out of England. Sir Richard Bethell (afterwards Lord Westbury), then Attorney-General, took the extraordinary ground that an alien living in England was not a "subject," and that the statute did not apply. An objection to a common-law prosecution was, that at common law the offence was a misdemeanor, and punishable only by fine and imprisonment. Lord Palmerston, to meet both these difficulties, the serious one being, however, wholly imaginary, introduced his "Conspiracy to Murder" bill. This was defeated by a vote of 215 to 234, and the ministry resigned. The debate and the discussion among the law lords which followed, showed that there was no question that a conspiracy to murder abroad by a British subject, alien or otherwise, was indictable at common law as a misdemeanor. Meantime, Bernard had been indicted under the statute, and he was now tried by Lord Campbell, who charged the jury heavily against him. Result—a verdict of not guilty.

—Although this case may show that every American State can take jurisdiction of dynamite plots within its borders, it by no means shows that their doing so will lead to the punishment of the criminals. The only certain way of breaking up a gang of dynamiters is that resorted to by Switzerland against the Anarchists—of expelling them from the country. But in the present condition of our extradition system, to say nothing of the bearing on the matter of the "Irish vote," an attempt to expel Ford or any of his accomplices would be no joke. If a new extradition treaty with England could be drawn so as to define what is a "political" offence, and so as to make the collection of money, and other overt acts, for the purpose of murdering and destroying property abroad, extraditable offences, we should at least be nearer seeing a way to punishing the dynamiters than if the State of New York were to undertake the work of justice alone. But if there is any way to deal with them, there seems every reason why Federal as well as State authority should be invoked.

—Shakspere and the Pythagoreans would hardly, one would think, find themselves in juxtaposition or companionship; but they are, nevertheless, found arm in arm, amicably interlinked, in 'Shakespeare: Untersuchungen und Studien,' by Dr. C. C. Hense—a volume of Shakspere studies lately issued from the press of the Waisenhaus in Halle. One of the chapters is devoted to Shakspere and philosophy, and numerous paragraphs are dedicated to tracing Pythagorean analogies, principles, and reminiscences in this, that, and the other play of Shakspere. The Stoics come in for their share of this rather overabundant and far-fetched reminiscence, and comparisons are drawn between the Stoic character as depicted in the 'Tusculan Disputations' and the writings of Seneca and passages in "Othello" and "All's Well that Ends Well." The Pythagorean doctrine of the transmigration of souls is riddled by the keen shafts of Shakspere's humor, and serves with him, as with other poets, as a theme for parody. The humor of Horace, however, anticipated Shakspere in ridiculing the Pythagorean bean (Sat. 2, 6, 59-64), while Lope de Vega parodied the philosopher under the title of *Doctor Cornagoras* in one of his plays. *Rosalind*, in "As You Like It," declares herself to have been a rat in the times of the philosopher, and the "wanderings of the soul" are a theme for the jest of the clown in "What You Will." Echoes of the Pythagorean cult resound, to Hense's delicate ear, in "Henry the Eighth"; but it is particularly in reference to the famous doctrine of the music of the spheres that this chapter becomes interesting. "All is number," said Pythagoras; which was developed into "All is number and harmony," based upon the notion that the planetary bodies, in their revolution around the central fire, gave forth a sound. We know how profoundly interesting to the artists of the Renaissance was the half-visionary figure of Pythagoras. He stands in the foreground of Raphael's "School of Athens," with his doctrine of numbers and harmony displayed on a table before him. Dante had already, in the "Paradiso," referred to the spheral music (I, 74). Montaigne used the idea of a spheral music for a comparison, and *Bianca*, in "The Taming of the Shrew," is called "the patroness of heavenly harmony." Passages, too, in "As You Like It" (ii, 7), "What You Will" (iii, 1), "Pericles" (v, 1), and "Antony and Cleopatra" (v, 2) show the deep impression which this Pythagorean theory made on Shakspere. All will remember the beautiful and wonderful passage in the "Merchant of Venice" (v, 1)—a passage which impressed Milton both in his poem, "At a Solemn Musicke," and in his Latin dissertation, "De Sphærarum Concentu," not to speak of a passage from the "Arcades"; while the memorable passage in "Faust" (*Prolog im Himmel*) recalls at once Shakspere and Pythagoras. If analogies between Shakspere and Pythagoras swarm in the realm of celestial music, Hense has still more to say about the singular coincidence between the Shaksperian and the Pythagorean silence. "Control thy tongue and follow the gods" is supposed by Hense to be ridiculed by Shakspere when he makes *Gratiano* say that silence is only to be commended to *smoked tongues* and maidenly souls. His critical method, however, becomes too ethereal when he applies the doctrine of the spheral music to an analysis of the characters of *Portia* and *Shylock; Portia* symbolizing harmony of soul, and *Shylock* disharmony, dissonance, discord, etc. The Pythagoreans, moreover, as we know from Quintilian and Cicero, employed music to rouse and inflame intellectual energy, and soothe the evil passions—facts which Hense correlates with the celebrated passage in the "Merchant of Venice" (v, 1) which classes the hater of sweet music among the lovers of treasons, stratagems, and spoils.

—The third of M. Coquelin's lectures on Molière has lately appeared, 'Tartuffe' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern). Like its two predecessors on 'Le Misanthrope' and on 'L'École des Femmes,' it is a discussion of a character which the actor intends to act. In the former, M. Coquelin sought to prove that *Alceste* and *Arnolphe*, although now informed with high serious purpose, were originally, and are essentially, comic parts; and he proved his case to the satisfaction of most students of the French stage. In the present lecture-essay he attempts a far more difficult task: he tries to show that *Tartuffe* also is a comic character because he, the generally accepted type of hypocrisy, is not a hypocrite at all, but a sincere mystic, profoundly believing the Jesuitic doctrines he has been taught. This is a sufficiently startling opinion, but it is the declaration of the manner in which M. Coquelin intends to perform the part in the immediate future. If he succeeds in Paris as he has already succeeded in Brussels and in St. Petersburg, the play, which is as important to the French drama as "Hamlet" is to the English, must hereafter be regarded from a new point of view. M. Coquelin notes that *Tartuffe* is one of the most difficult parts to act; while we all know that *Hamlet* is so easy that no actor of accepted rank as a tragedian ever failed in it. In support of his theory that *Tartuffe* is sincere, M. Coquelin cites the fact that he has not a single aside, "not a word which reveals what he thinks; one might say he avoids talking to himself for fear of deceiving himself." One point is to be noted against M. Coquelin's argument that *Tartuffe*, like *Arnolphe* and *Alceste*, is the chief comic part of the play: Molière did not act *Tartuffe* himself, but he did act both the others. The author-manager cast Du Croisy as *Tartuffe*, while he himself acted *Orgon*.

—The report of the Superintendent of the United States Naval Observatory, Commodore S. R. Franklin, exhibits the operations of that establishment for the year ending October 30, 1884. The present superintendent relieved Rear-Admiral Shufeldt in February, and appears to have been even more fully impressed than his predecessors with the difficulties and responsibilities attaching to the situation; and while it cannot be expected that all the changes he has instituted will be found to contribute to the value of the work of the institution, his general acquaintance with affairs has served him well in the administration of the establishment. The superintendent earnestly urges the necessity of beginning the buildings for the new observatory—for, apparently, no good reason except the fear that the progressive reclaiming of the Potomac flats will soon render the present site healthful, and thus cancel the chief ground for changing its location at all. The new site purchased about five years ago can never secure the unqualified approval of the best judges; and while there is serious doubt whether the advantages to be gained will fully compensate for so great an undertaking, the longer Congressional appropriations are delayed the better. The great telescope, in charge of Professor Asaph Hall, United States Navy, has been kept constantly at work on observations of the satellites of the outer planets, double stars, and stellar parallax; the transit circle has continued the routine work of previous years; the small telescope has been devoted to comets, small planets, stellar occultations, and visitors. The time-service has been greatly extended, through the lines of the Signal Service, and the Baltimore and Ohio Telegraph Company, and the noon signals according to the standard time of the fifth-hour meridian are now distributed from the observatory over eleven wires. Professor Harkness reports the work of the Commission of the Transit of Venus, from which it appears that the measurements of the photographic negatives of the transit of 1882 were completed in August, and very considerable progress has been made in the computations necessary for the reductions of these measurements. The Government stations of 1882 obtained nearly 1,200 available photographs, while Professor Young at Princeton, Professor Todd at the Lick Observatory, and Mr. Willson at New Haven, obtained nearly 400 more, giving thus a total of between 1,500 and 1,600 pictures, three-fifths of which were made at stations in the northern hemisphere. It will be remembered that the number of photographs of the transit of 1874 secured by the Government parties was only slightly in excess of 200.

GALLENGA'S MEMOIRS.

Episodes of My Second Life. (American and English Experiences.) By Antonio Gallenga (L. Mariotti). Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1885.

It was on the 15th of August, 1836, nearly half a century ago, that the author of these reminiscences embarked at Gibraltar for New York. Born in Parma, twenty-five years before, he inherited from his father, a Piedmontese of "a good old country family," who had served for ten years under Napoleon, a love of study and a taste for military life and adventure, which combined to make him, on arriving at his twentieth year, almost at once a conspirator, a soldier, a

state prisoner, a fugitive, and an exile. For five years he was without a country, wandering from place to place, and earning a scanty livelihood as what a lively acquaintance (who swindled him out of the savings of a year) scornfully called a *marchand de participes*. In this forlorn situation he determined, without much reason, except that it was a "new country," and therefore was supposed to promise the best opening for a young man, to try the United States.

It should be said here, that in his very candid preface the author admits that many of the facts which he narrates are blurred and faded in his memory, through lapse of time, to such an extent that "the *retentive* faculties must, almost unconsciously, fall back on the resources of the *inventive*." It would be easy for the American reader to discover many inaccuracies of recollection in the narrative, such as would of necessity arise from the substitution of the inventive for the retentive faculties; and had the book appeared a generation ago, it would probably have shared the fate on this side of the Atlantic which overtook the chronicles of Mrs. Trollope and the 'Notes' of Dickens—that is, it would have been extensively read, and have caused for its author much cordial detestation. But, having learnt to be less sensitive to the opinions of "abroad," if not, indeed, positively curious to know whether foreigners can say anything worse of us than we can say of ourselves, such a book is rather interesting as a picture of early American civilization as it presented itself to the mind of an intelligent stranger. We read on, not indignantly, but continually amused, from the time when Sig. Gallenga is strongly advised by the Hon. John Madison Leib, who is referred to as having been United States Minister to Tangiers, to give the Western Hemisphere a trial, to that of the refugee's final leave-taking. We say "referred to" as minister, because in our first interview with that official we find him "at work with his Vice-Consul, Mr. Cornelius K. Mullowney," which suggests that we must make a choice here between an improbable confusion in the diplomatic service, and an effort of memory in which retention has been subordinated to invention. But the conversation with Mr. Leib, though reported fifty years after it took place, we feel is in all essential particulars faithfully accurate. It was such a conversation as thousands of active emissaries of the United States were holding with inquirers about the country in all parts of the world, in which the phrases "a big country," "room for all," "your place all ready for you," "it is men like you we want," played an important part, and were accompanied by the most liberal offers of letters of introduction to eminent men on this side of the Atlantic, with whom the introducers often had little or no acquaintance. In Gallenga's case, the letters were to "my friend Edward Everett," Governor of Massachusetts, and "my friend Josiah Quincy," President of Harvard College, where, as Mr. Leib happened to know, they were anxious to create a professorship of Italian literature.

A dreadful voyage the young refugee had in the good ship *Independence*. It lasted fifty-two days, and gave him ample opportunity to become acquainted with his shipmates. The captain he describes as "coming up to the ideal I had, in my silly imagination, conceived of the typical Yankee," viz.: "a white-livered man, with all his blood turned to gall, and a natural intelligence hardened into low cunning." On the other hand, he lets us into the secret operations of the captain's mind, as well as his own, the former having been very curious about a passenger who was "the first Eye-talian he had ever met that was not an organ-grinder or an immidge-seller." They had the worst sort of Atlantic passage in the days when ocean voyages were nearly always bad, and did not reach New York until the morning of October 7, when, arriving half-starved, he was rejoiced to receive the unexpected information from the negro waiter of the hotel to which he found his way, that "feeding-time" was one o'clock in the afternoon.

His first day in New York is most vividly described. Like all foreigners before him, he found that it was a city of one street. He had seen nothing like the bustle and movement of Broadway. He was struck with the composite architecture, amazed at the big hotels, astonished at the lines of shop-windows. At one o'clock punctually he went in to dinner—not dinner as we know it, *à la carte*, with a small table, a special waiter, separate covers, and all the luxury of privacy in the midst of a crowd; but a regular old-fashioned Anglo-Saxon dinner, such as a hotel-keeper in the days of Athelstane might have provided—the board groaning under the smoking joints and profusion of vegetables; the Madeira brought on after dinner; the "guests" apparently all friends, and, we have no doubt, friends also of the gentlemanly host. At this table he fell in with a stranger, whose appropriate name was Peter C. Sconce, who pronounced "India wharf" "Injia hhhwaourf"—the spelling being explained by the fact of Mr. Sconce "rolling it twice or three times through his nose." Mr. Sconce befriended the Italian in various ways, and was "greatly surprised and half offended" when the latter handed him two dollars as remuneration.

But Gallenga was not destined to live in New York. His letters took him to Massachusetts, and there he remained sufficiently long to get a thorough acquaintance with the society to be found there. Cut off as New England was from the rest of the world in those days, the little invasion of it by the band of Italian refugees whom the revolutionary movements of the early part of the century brought over, was a curious historical and social episode. Foresti, Castiglia, Mariotti, Albinola, were names then as well known to a certain part of American society, and that no unimportant part, as Kossuth became afterward to the whole country. They belonged to a class of exiles which now exists no longer. All highly-educated men, most if not all were of good family; they had been driven to cast their lots in the New World through misfortune and disaster originating in the virtue which all Americans could then most easily understand—their love of country. The children and grandchildren of the men who had resisted the Stamp Act, and fought against the oppression of England with halters round their necks, and achieved the independence of their own country, could easily sympathize with the Italian gentlemen who, escaped from long years of persecution, exile, and imprisonment, came here, beggared in fortune and almost in hope, to wait for the signal that was to recall them to the struggle which was the mission and meaning of their lives. Some waited and died waiting; others lived to hear the signal of the liberation of Italy, and return, as Gallenga did, to share the dangers and triumphs of the final conflict. Their lives and hopes appealed most powerfully to the sympathy of all Americans, and gave for the time a romantic tinge to the garish daylight on this side of the Atlantic, which no refugees of our day are likely again to impart.

It must be admitted that most of those early refugees were entirely unfitted, both by habits and education, for a successful career in this country. It was true, as Mr. Leib had said, that their place was ready for them, but the place so reserved was almost in all cases that of an humble teacher of languages—the very career that Gallenga had left the Old World to avoid. Like all his compatriots, he fell into it from want of anything else to do, and the necessity of earning his bread in some way. Into the details of his life here we have not space to enter, but can commend the book to the reader as a vivid if not wholly accurate picture of the society of Boston and Cambridge—chiefly Cambridge—as seen by an "Eye-talian" fifty years ago. The author writes with a frankness unusual even in these unreserved days, and goes so far as to give a full account of his unsuccessful love affairs. It is a legal maxim that there is no better evidence than that which it is against the witness's own interest to give, and on this principle the reminiscences here bear the impress of truth.

In general the picture given by Signor Gallenga will not be found to do more than paint the reality which was caricatured in Dickens's 'American Notes' and 'Martin Chuzzlewit.' He evidently did not like the country at all. It was a barren wilderness to him, with a little oasis of enlightened, cultivated society at Cambridge. But his report is not tinged with malice, though lighted up occasionally with a sly humor, especially when he gives descriptions of some of the Massachusetts worthies of his day, as for instance in the following description of Mr. Everett:

"He was at the time forty-two years old, tall, flat-chested, with a white complexion, large, prominent eyes, a stately forehead, a bland grave countenance. He spoke with the purest English accent, and was remarkable for his sedate, well-bred, but somewhat stiff, overdone English reserve. Like many of the most polished Americans I have known, he seemed to labor under a double restraint: he was too anxious to keep his feelings under control, too much afraid of falling into some Yankee solecism of idiom or manner. . . . He achieved an almost unprecedented popularity as a sacred orator, and I shall never forget my friend, Miss Dwight, and other ladies, whose eyes filled with tears at the bare recollection of the 'sweet white hand' which the young divine waved in the air in the most thrilling moments of his heart-winning perorations—a painful recollection; for, after achieving complete success, he gave up the care of souls, and betook himself to a political career, both he and his brother Alexander being returned as members of the House of Representatives."

The book is full of that shrewd observation which has earned Sig. Gallenga such an enviable reputation all over the world. As a specimen, we may quote a line or two of what he has to say about the great Anglo-Saxon quality of good-will to helpless strangers. He has studied its influence both in this country and in England:

"If you wish to secure an Englishman's or an American's good-will, show him something that he can do for you. So long as he thinks that you need his assistance, not only will he put himself out of his way to serve you, but he will be thankful to you, and like and love you for the chance you give him to make himself useful. If he saves you from drowning, or rescues you from the flames, his affection for one who afforded him an opportunity to show his courage and humanity will know no bounds. But this helpfulness on his part should not be needed twice. . . . If you apply to him twice he will not deny you, but by overtasking his sympathy you will forfeit his esteem."

Sig. Gallenga is now seventy-four years old. He has, since he came here as an exile and a *marchand de participes*, risen to be (in the Old World, to which after a few years he returned) a historian and journalist, a diplomatist under the lead of Cavour, and was at one time called to take part in the Government of the country of his early love. Curiously enough, he admits, with his accustomed frankness, that his long absence from Italy, and his life as observer and critic in England, had denationalized him. From an ardent Italian he had become almost English, and when he went back to his own country his countrymen found him too English for their tastes, too unsympathetic, too much a reformer. But evidently he is enough of a philosopher not to mind this. He has seen the battle for which he

was always ready to give his life fought out, he has seen the dreams of his youth realized in a free and united Italy, and realized not by conspiracy and assassination, but by means of which any country might well be proud.

THE ENGLISH DRAMA BEFORE SHAKSPERE.

Shakspere's Predecessors in the English Drama. By John Addington Symonds. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1884. Pp. xix, 668.

Mr. A. W. Ward's two volumes on 'English Dramatic Literature to the Death of Queen Anne' (Macmillan, 1875) were the first work of the kind adapted to the wants of the general reader. Those who have had, like ourselves, constant occasion to consult them, will readily bear witness to their exceeding utility. Yet, as the years roll on, the need makes itself felt of bringing them more in accord with the results of recent investigation. Whether Mr. Ward intends making a thorough revision of his work is a point on which we are not informed. Such revision is undoubtedly called for, and the present book by Mr. Symonds is the best evidence thereof. The younger writer has, of course, profited by the labors of his predecessor. In most features this book, so far as it covers the same ground, is a decided improvement. It differs both in scope and in method. In scope, Mr. Symonds has naturally the advantage, giving as he does nearly 700 pages, in lieu of the corresponding 270 in Mr. Ward's first volume. As to method, we can scarcely characterize the difference more succinctly than by stating that, whereas Mr. Ward deals more with the statistics of the subject, Mr. Symonds gives more of its organic life, its movement. Hence the present work is much more readable. The reader will gain from it a much more vivid sense of what the old English drama really meant, the circumstances amid which it grew up, the agencies and forces at work upon it. On the other hand, we suspect that the earlier work, despite its need of revision, is, in the main, a safer work to follow. Mr. Ward's style, we admit, is often pragmatic and in places even arid. It is not a style to win the reader. Yet it is honest and healthful. It never seeks to bribe the reader's judgment. Whereas Mr. Symonds writes only too often in a manner that savors more of the lyceum and the debating-hall than of the historic page. On many points craving for effect warps his style into false rhetoric, blinds his judgment, and even deflects his assertions beyond the strict line of truth. What else can we say of a writer who informs us, p. 630, that "this epic [viz., the Faust story] is strictly Northern and Teutonic. There is no conceivable period of Italian literature in which it could have been created. The cold, remorseless revelation of Hell . . . breathes the scornful imagination of Beowulf's posterity. . . . The purchase of knowledge, power, and enjoyment . . . is a tragedy . . . which has for its dim background the sublimely sombre religion of the Eddas." And more in the same strain. Now all this is not true. Had Mr. Symonds taken the pains to study the genesis of the Faust story before trying to outdo Marlowe himself, he would have discovered that Italy *had* a good deal to do with its formation, and that the posterity of Beowulf and the Eddas had *nothing*. Does Mr. Symonds suppose that the posterity of Beowulf is to be found in England or in Germany? St. Augustine, Simon Magus, Cyprian the Magician, the Magician of Norica, Faustus Andrelinus of Paris, who contributed each his quota to the witches' cauldron of the Faust book—do they belong to Teutonism? Perhaps they reflect the religion of the Eddas?

In other places Mr. Symonds errs through following Mr. Ward too closely. We cannot otherwise account for the attempt, p. 98, to connect the beginnings of the mediæval church plays with the office of the mass. In the preface he alludes to the disadvantages of composing such a work in the High Alps, away from all libraries except his own. Yet surely a book like Aubertin's 'Histoire de la Littérature Française au Moyen Age' is procurable anywhere, and Aubertin, although not professing to be an original investigator, would have given our author an altogether different estimate of the liturgical drama. In general the third chapter, Miracle Plays, is the weakest portion of the book. It abounds in inaccuracies, and is altogether too meagre and superficial a treatment of a subject that appeals to the scholar. Yet even here the author flashes upon us a brilliant idea, as p. 116: "How little can we really judge the artistic effect of a Miracle from the libretto which was merely meant to illustrate a grand spectacular effect!" This comparison of such a text-collection as the Towneley or the Coventry to a libretto is happy, and admits of a stricter application than its originator seems to be aware of. The stanza-structure of many of the speeches tells us plainly enough that they were not declaimed, but either sung outright or delivered *recitativo*. Another suggestive passage is at pp. 13 and 25, where the author calls our attention to the fact that whereas other European nations in the Elizabethan period had various modes of art-expression, England had only its poetry, still more narrowly, its drama. The stage was the sole place where the national heart could find itself. Put thus bluntly, this seems to ignore non-dramatic poets like Sidney and Spenser. Yet Mr. Symonds keeps within proper bounds.

Comedy is much harder to treat of than tragedy. Hence chapter v is inferior to chapter vi. In fact, we suspect that Mr. Symonds has not yet cleared up his mind upon the fundamental difference between true comedy and farce. Apparently he is of the opinion that the moralities developed into comedy, and that John Heywood was a prominent founder of English comedy. To our mind the morality never got and never could have got beyond the farce. And Heywood is a mere writer of farces. The late William Wagner announced this axiom seven years ago, in his searching review of Mr. Ward (*Anglia* I, 168). The latter had committed the startling blunder of ascribing to Heywood an "Aristophanic" vein. But our author matches this by discovering in the same Heywood the spirit of Chaucer, p. 185, calling him, p. 188, "a prose Chaucer," a "Chaucer without his singing robes." Whoever can find in bluff, crude John Heywood one atom of Chaucer's *Schalkheit*, *esprit*, and *grazia*, must have an uncommonly keen eye. Besides, how can the Interlude be called "a specifically English form of comedy" (p, 184)? The whole species has an unmistakably Gallic twang, as Aubertin would have shown, had he been consulted.

Mr. Symonds's critique of the Senecan tragedy and its baleful effect upon the nascent drama of Italy and of France is excellent. We do not remember seeing this part of the subject put more forcibly. Yet he overlooks, as Mr. Ward does not, one practical gain from Seneca for the modern stage, viz., the five-act arrangement. On the other hand, he gives us, and Mr. Ward does not, a realizing sense of the conflict in sixteenth-century England between the Senecan spirit of the "Gorboduc" writers and their university clique and the folk-spirit which was to triumph in Marlowe and Shakspere. We call especial attention to p. 259: "Perhaps we cannot penetrate deeper into the definition of the Romantic Drama than by saying that its characteristic was to be a represented story. In this it differed from the classic or Athenian drama; for there, although there lay a myth or fable behind each tragedy, the play itself was written on some point or climax in the fable." Without pausing to cavil at the term "Romantic" (now fashionable in England), let us admit that while we have all felt more or less the distinction thus drawn, no one before our author ever drew it so boldly and clearly. All that remained for him to do was to point out the direct influence of the church-plays and chronicle-histories in rendering the "Romantic" drama possible. This he has neglected.

With chapter viii, on Theatres, Playwrights, etc., the subject will become more familiar to the general reader. Doubtless it would be possible to detect an occasional slip; but in the main the chapter is very instructive reading. In speaking of boy-actors, the author suggests, p. 302, "that plays expressly written for them—those of Jonson [why not also Lyly?], for example—took a certain fixity of type and hardness of outline from the exigencies under which the poet worked. Compared with Shakspere's art, that of Jonson is certainly distinguished by formality." This may be true. Yet we are disposed to search for the "formality" in Jonson and Lyly themselves. And then, did not Shakspere write the parts of *Rosalind*, *Juliet*, *Desdemona*, *Cleopatra* for boys, but without a trace of "hardness of outline"?

The chapter on Masques is interesting and extremely valuable, but it seems to us out of place in a work on Shakspere's predecessors. It belongs properly to the Jonsonian period. By far the most novel and most valuable chapter is the eleventh, Domestic Tragedy. Here more than anywhere else has Mr. Symonds improved upon Mr. Ward. Jusserand, in his 'Théâtre en Angleterre,' made a fair beginning, it is true, but the present chapter leaves Jusserand far behind. It is a just and ample treatment of a commonly ignored branch of the dramatic art. We hope that some of the German readers of Mr. Symonds will utilize it in their Lessing studies, for Lessing was a stanch admirer of the English *tragédie bourgeoise*.

In the group of dramatists immediately preceding Shakspere, Lyly has fared the best at Mr. Symonds's hands. At least the chapter devoted to him is fresher, more original. What our author has to say concerning Greene, Peele, and Marlowe (for Lodge the reader is prudently referred to Mr. Gosse's 'Seventeenth Century Studies'), moves within lines too conventional to satisfy us. At the present day it is not hard to get a partial hearing for Marlowe. His genius is patent. Yet there are many points in his style and treatment which demand more minute investigation than Mr. Symonds has deemed it worth while to give. One of the English reviewers of Mr. Bullen's recent edition of Marlowe has said naïvely, that "it is next to impossible to say anything fresh about Marlowe." Is this the language of plaintive despair, or of complacent satisfaction? Either way it is absurd. "Faustus" alone can give employment to a school of critics. What we need is, not rhetorical disquisition, but exact and exhaustive scholarship. For instance, which of the Marlovians, past or present, has bethought him of the simple device of reprinting verbatim, side by side, the editions of 1604, 1609, and 1616? Yet until this is done, no student of "Faustus" can be sure of his foundation. Then as to Marlowe's blank-verse, it is not enough to praise it; one should understand it. We regard our author's account of the genesis and structure of blank-verse in general as not only unfortunate, but actually misleading. It spreads darkness rather than light. Vainly have we tried to understand such oracular utterances as these (p. 593): "The heroic line . . . is native to our language; combining, as the language itself com-

bines, indigenous Teutonic and exotic Latin qualities. The omission of the rhyme, to which it was originally linked, does not structurally alter it." What is the heroic line? The five-measure rhyming couplet, *e. g.*, as used by Chaucer. This was borrowed from the French, and has not a trace of indigenous Teutonic quality. And who can admit that the discontinuance of rhyme is not a radical alteration of the structure of verse?

Robert Greene meets with scant justice. We read the old story of debauch and death-bed repentance, of time wasted and friends alienated, of writing for ready sale and wilfully foregoing true fame. The story may be true. But we have our doubts. No one yet, to our knowledge, has sifted the evidence upon which the story rests. Is Gabriel Harvey a trustworthy witness? Are Greene's pamphlets truly autobiographical? To us the 'Story of Francesco' and the preamble to the 'Groat's Worth of Wit' do not differ, in essentials, from hundreds of the so-called moral tales of the Italian and French "novelists." If our readers will turn to the *Englische Studien*, vii, 111-124, they will find there reprinted a story entitled 'A Pennyworth of Wit,' which is at least first-cousin to 'Francesco.' It is quite among the possibilities that Greene anticipated the nineteenth-century trick of trading on a reputation for wickedness. And if we hunt down the autobiographical too closely, what will become of the author of 'Captain Jack' and 'Moll Flanders'? Greene was the most versatile writer of his day. He had, what Marlowe had not, a clear sense of humor. His "Friar Bacon" is a fair travesty of the grim horrors of "Faustus." The tone of his writings is healthy, and he certainly preaches no false doctrine. We hope that some one with the opportunities will rehabilitate him.

To revert to Lyly, we think that he has been well handled. He is, we know, caviare to the general. His pretty lines have mouldered as effectually as the lace ruffles of Queen Bess or the embroidery of Sir Walter Ralegh's cloak. Yet they are undeniably pretty, and Mr. Symonds is not slow to acknowledge it. "The lyrics are as neat and delicate as French songs. Some of the scenes suggest antique sculpture, or the subjects of engraved gems. After making due allowance for the alloy of conceits which mingles with the finer ore of his productions, Lyly's style deserves to be called Attic," p. 516. Again: "In clear simplicity and perfect outline this picture [of Diana cutting Cupid's wings and burning his arrows, in 'Gallathea'] resembles an intaglio cut to illustrate some passage of Anacreon," p. 529. Mr. Symonds calls attention to the underplot of *Phyllida* and *Gallathea*, two girls disguised in male attire. Each, knowing herself to be a girl, falls in love with the other, supposing the other to be a boy. The situation is brilliant, all the more so when we remember that the girls of the Elizabethan stage were only trained boys after all. And Lyly's handling is faultlessly delicate. "Gallathea" must have taxed to the utmost the children of Paul's, and the audience must have appreciated its cleverness. Of course it is a trifle; but was it less for the sixteenth century than the "Sleeping Car" and the "Elevator" are for the nineteenth?

How Mr. Symonds, who is in general at his best in treating Lyly, should write of Euphuism as he does, is a puzzle. Landmann's essay before him, he reiterates the old confusion of Guevarism and Italianism, speaks of Shakspere as Euphuistic, and in general obscures everything that Landmann and his reviewers have just succeeded in clearing up. We have neither time nor patience to discuss the matter here. Taken all in all, Mr. Symonds's book will attract many a reader to the study of our early drama. In view of this great practical gain, we can afford to close our eyes to many minor defects of style and inaccuracies. Perhaps a more careful writer would not have succeeded so well. The usefulness of the book would be greatly enhanced by an index.

RECENT NOVELS.

In War Time. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Madame. By Mrs. Oliphant. Harper & Bros.

Bound Together. Tales by Hugh Conway. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Noble Blood. By Julian Hawthorne. D. Appleton & Co.

Prince Saroni's Wife, and the Pearl-Shell Necklace. By Julian Hawthorne. Funk & Wagnalls.

True, and Other Stories. By George Parsons Lathrop. Funk & Wagnalls.

Peril. By Jesse Fothergill. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

My Lady Pokahontas, Writ by Anas Todkill. With Notes by John Esten Cooke. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Doctor Grattan. By William A. Hammond, M.D. D. Appleton & Co.

Daddy Darwin's Dovecote. A Country Tale. By Juliana Horatia Ewing. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

THE author of 'In War Time' has sketched a group of very life-like personages. He has, moreover, surrounded them with an atmosphere which has a tint of its own. Nor is this effect produced by means so obvious as names of streets or the use of local customs. There is no attempt at disguise of them, but it is not through them that the stranger who may not know Philadelphia is made to recognize a society and its surroundings that are clearly neither of New York nor of Boston. One cannot cite paragraph or page, but, taken as a whole, the nameless something is in the book by which one social circle is distinguished from another. What makes this little world seem more easy and less self-conscious than Boston, more steady than New York, is not to be hit off in a single phrase about Quaker traditions, nor have we room to analyze the subtle differences. Suffice it to say that it is there to give charm to Dr. Mitchell's story.

The idea which underlies the whole can be put in more than one way, even if we forbear any special application to the medical profession: for the soul ignoble by nature there is no hope. A man capable of one cowardly act will surely fail again, under strain. Dr. Wendell could desert his helpless patients in the field-hospital when it was reached by the advancing fire of the enemy, so he can shield his own fatal mistake at the expense of others. This theme is clearly presupposed and carried on throughout the book. The people who surrounded Dr. Wendell are, as we have said, life-like. They are interesting. Some are beautiful and some are brilliant. Given, then, a well-considered theme, and characters in themselves of much more than ordinary promise, why does the book fail of great success? Simply because the third indispensable element is wanting. The story, the incidents, the action—the three terms mean the same thing—lack point and coherence. The power of combination is wanting. The moment the people who are so delightfully described are set to do anything, they become futile or illogical. More than one path is opened in which the reader's conjecture loses itself for nothing. More than one thread is started only to break off abruptly. The war furnishes only a background (and a remote one at that), not motives. A chance meeting at a hospital provides the heroine of the *ingénue* type, but the other incidents taken from the war, except the affair at the field-hospital, are not essential. Dr. Mitchell expects too much credulity from his readers. That a man endowed with every keen and fine sense becoming a gentleman should go to tell the lady who has refused him, that the man he fears she may marry is an arrant coward, is too unlikely. The same keenness of sense which is supposed to prompt him to such a duty would have told him that either the lady herself would have discovered the defect of nature, or that in the other alternative his mission would be hopeless and humiliating. The final catastrophe is too shocking. True, life itself is more dreadful than any fiction; but life proves itself always inevitable. Here the reader saves his sympathy by more than one too obvious chance of escape, and insists it might have been otherwise—so, or so.

It never can be wise to neglect the old rule, discovered long before the evolution of the modern novel, that the principal figure must, so to speak, command the reader. It will not do to make him either a villain or a coward. Be the end never so tragic, the feeling excited must be only terror or pity. If the pity passes into contempt of the man, it is all over with admiration. The sorrowful fate may be heroic, the craven heart never. To have made a man like Dr. Wendell the centre of the action involves the double difficulty, that the reader cannot care for him, and that no other character seems to be natural in any relation to him, for a high-minded, sensitive nature must have felt the fatal want in him. Let the reader drop the last quarter of the book, when it is clear that the young lovers are to be happy, and there is yet hope that Mrs. Westerley may rouse some latent good in Wendell's nature, and he will remember the pleasant pictures, the delicate characterization, the bright sayings in it, rather than the inadequate construction which the reviewer is forced to point out.

Mrs. Oliphant, in 'Madame,' shows us how the well-practised hand will make use of such a character as Wendell's only as a side figure, to supply secondary motives for the action. The small nature, incapable of anything noble or elevated, accepting any sacrifice, is never brought forward for any strong contrast. It is only a very young girl or a very silly old woman to whom he can be of consequence, except for the unquestioning, unfailing devotion of a mother. The story is slighter than we have had of late from Mrs. Oliphant, but it is a beautiful treatment of a subject by no means common—the devotion of a daughter to the father's second wife, who has been grossly wronged by him in a momentary fit of impatience. The old servant woman is the one figure that does not harmonize. She had prototypes for her harshness and violence in the earlier 'Chronicles of Carlingford,' and we are sorry to find her again.

'Bound Together' means nothing more than the binding which holds together a dozen short stories, three of them reprinted from *Blackwood's*. Like the three on our list by Mr. Julian Hawthorne, they almost without exception end with a sudden turn, a surprise. To be thus astonished is rather a pleasant experience in the mood in which one turns to a magazine story, but in a collection the sameness palls. Not that there is not great variety in the endings before us, but it is the surprise that remains in the mind, not the particular kind of it; and we grow tired. The most of the subjects are old, not to say trite. A mistaken identity, a madman's revenge, the beautiful temptress, a long-hidden right to nobility—every one can tell such a story beforehand. The best-sustained of Mr. Conway's is the shortest, "A Speculative Spirit," which is so well managed that for once the surprise is unexpected.

As to Mr. Hawthorne, his aim at effect seems to result in intensity of momentary impression,

which is by no means real strength. Realism depends for its success upon the accuracy and force of the details and upon the skill with which they are grouped. Romance depends upon the subtlety of the suggestion. If Mr. Hawthorne means to be realistic, the work is too hap-hazard; if romantic, it is too crude and bald.

Mr. Lathrop's little story of 'In Each Other's Shoes' is welcome in permanent form to those who enjoyed it as an unusually good presentation of the possible results of a happy accident, befalling a man already endowed with brains and with pluck. 'True' is a small novel, rather rapidly worked out, on the old plot of two brothers in love with the same girl. It is rather a heavy strain on the theories of heredity to apply them to imaginary descendants of the colonists lost from Roanoke Island.

Miss Fothergill loses rather than gains in her successive efforts. Even 'Kith and Kin' hardly made good the promise of 'The First Violin.' She now attempts to portray in 'Peril' the danger of yielding to caprice, and balances the weakness of her heroine by her suffering and her repentance of the consequences. It is hard to like her, for her first caprice is nothing less than a wicked fit of jealous temper; and the second, while it might be a despairing struggle for reparation, is made to seem more like the freeing of her own soul from a burden, no matter what it costs others. The plot looks so impossible when reduced to its lowest terms that we produce it, to astonish our readers.

Peril, exasperated by the discovery that her cousin Hugh loves not herself but another, betrays a kind deed of his to their old grandfather. He, being a hard-headed, unrelenting old millionaire, disinherits Hugh, leaving all the fortune to Peril, on condition that she does not marry before she is twenty-five, and dies forthwith. Peril bitterly repents, and insists on giving all to Hugh, who, of course, refuses. She will not touch a penny of the money, and goes off into the country, while Hugh learns a carpenter's trade and sets out for Australia. In no long time there turns up in the country, as the brother of a new-made friend to Peril, a clerk from her grandfather's counting-room. He has loved Peril from a distance, knowing her slightly, but she has no suspicion of this. It occurs to her (whether out of the fathomless depths of her despair, or out of the author's ignorance of feminine human nature, may be according to the reader's point of view) to ask this man in so many words to marry her. Queens do that. Mrs. Oliphant's pretty Zaidee did it, but she was a child. There is no occasion to be shocked about it, as propriety might suggest. The insurmountable difficulty is, that the idea would never come to a woman with the experience of at least one love affair. However, Lawford accepts Peril, not daring to betray his own love, and trusting to save her from misery. He discovers directly, or thinks he discovers, that she has supposed him capable of being bought off after the will is frustrated, while she discovers that Hugh is believed to be dead. Here Hugh's original love appears and sends Lawford off to find him. It is not quite clear how, but somewhere Peril's love for Hugh has died; so when he is brought back by Lawford she is ready to love the latter, after there has been a due amount of mutual misunderstanding and self-torture. It is plain that not one of the incidents is new except Peril's offer, and that does anything but give an air of reality. The style is, to say the least, rough. The mastery of a woman by a man is an accepted figure of speech, but it is not an agreeable stretch of the metaphor to say, "If Lawford should once succeed in getting a grip of the girl's spirit, . . . the crisis would be over." This, it should be noticed, is "the inner conviction" of the beloved of Hugh, of whom it is said, "Mentally and morally she was well-endowed, perhaps even in the aristocracy of that invisible world." The context supplies no antecedent for the phrase "that invisible world" except in the adverbs "mentally and morally."

'My Lady Pokahontas' is a very graceful and pleasing sketch of the Indian princess. It purports to be the tender recollections of one of Smith's companions set down when old and garrulous in his English home. "I who had laughed at Smith for calling the blessed maiden his guardian angel, now bowed down before her, and, though no vain and foolish Papist, but a good Puritan of Puritans, made her my Saint Pokahontas." To say that the author has not fully succeeded in an archaic style, is but another way of saying no one has, unless it were Thackeray. It makes but little difference, since the manner throughout is so agreeable and the handling now and then shows so true a poetic touch. By an admirable ingenuity, the notes which in fact supply the authorities, are so worded as to produce the effect that the page before us is a new and added corroboration to them, not made up from them. The book ought to find its way where it can give the first impression to young minds of the most picturesque episode in annals which they find for the most part colorless. With this thought in view we should have preferred to be spared the uncouth figure on the cover. Old Todkill's "gracious image" and "the fair flower of her small head" had better have been left to fancy. The figure we suppose taken from the De Passe engraving, which certainly is itself somewhat grotesque; but those who have seen the original picture say that it has great delicacy and beauty of expression. When from this woodcut we can reproduce the three white ostrich feathers of the fan and the golden band about the hat which should have the effect of a coronet, while the hat is merged in the background of the picture, then we can understand of the face that "she looks at once royal in birth and in nature." In all other respects the little volume, with its open type and wide margins, is most attractive.

It will be just as well merely to refer to our judgment of 'Lal' as to repeat it, for nothing better can be said of 'Doctor Grattan.' The professional part of the book is occupied with the craze of Francis Lamar, a man who believes himself to have been "a slave captain." Anything may happen within the domain of the alienist, and therefore this may pass. Grattan falls in love with the insane man's daughter, and meanwhile fills up the leisure of life in a small remote village by writing 'The Doctor's Novel.' On the last page he shows it to Miss Lamar, saying, "See how beautifully I have brought the hero and the heroine out of all their troubles!" She replies: "You have such a correct idea of women that I am sure every woman in the land will want to read your book, and see the man that wrote it." Why did not Dr. Hammond give us Dr. Grattan's novel instead of his own? The latter is very severe upon "the insipid stuff which has recently been lauded to the skies by a narrow coterie as segments of the long-looked-for American novel. . . . He skimmed over, with an indifference amounting almost to contempt, the pages filled with descriptions of uninteresting and lack-lustre men and women." What could he have thought of Dr. Hammond's description of himself? "The doctor was a widower. He had never again entered into the marriage state, though he had not arrived at the determination to remain single with that mature consideration of the subject which he gave to every matter of any importance." The climax is reached under the shelter of a friendly rock, where hero and heroine are benighted in a wild snow-storm. "He had thrown off the actor's trappings, and his true nature was once more in the ascendant." The decisive moment arrives. "And now I tell you without impulse, but with a calmness which I hope is based on my knowledge of right and wrong, that I love you." Is this "lack-lustre," or is it not? There is something amusing in the way in which the inexperienced and the unwary supply the critic with verdicts upon themselves.

From all these exaggerations and discords between intention and execution, it is like turning to the perfection of a flower to open Mrs. Ewing's last sketch. 'Daddy Darwin's Dovecote' is less than 'Jackanapes' only in that its simpler, homelier theme does not offer quite such full felicity of subject. How well done was "the setting of a wild graft on an old standard" is told from the talk of two old gaffers gossiping on a sunny wall. There is the same delightful, suggestive commentary in homely proverb or tender household word as made the earlier story a poem.

Flatland. A Romance of Many Dimensions. By A. Square. London: Seeley & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros.

In this charming little volume a mathematician imagines a vast plane filled with a highly civilized two-dimensional race of beings, who think they know all about the universe, but who have never conceived that there is a third dimension existing on either side of them. Their mode of life is very cleverly worked out from our point of view, but of course to form a picture, free from inconsistencies, of life in a plane is no more possible to us than to conceive of a fourth dimension. The book purports to be written by a square who has been granted a vision of three-fold space, and whose attempt to enlighten his countrymen receives its natural reward in life-long imprisonment. His own initiation into a third dimension was only brought about by violent means, the argument from analogy having fallen upon dull ears. A Square is, of course, a being who imagines himself to be entirely shut in by his periphery. It is inconceivable to him that his inside can be got at without breaking through his boundary lines; and when a three-fold being suddenly knocks him out of his own plane and into another, it seems to him that he has received, by some magical means, a blow from the interior of his body, by which he is moved, but in such a way that no point passes through a point previously occupied by another point. The most amusing passage in the book is that in which the square, delighted with his new achievement, and thirsting for yet deeper knowledge, turns against his teacher his own argument from analogy, and insists upon his turning himself inside out without breaking his skin, and moving himself about in such a way that no point in his body moves in the direction of any point of the surface.

The question, What is the fourth dimension? is, we may add here, discussed by Mr. C. E. Hinton in a pamphlet of that title, but he does not propose any decisive test for its existence. Imagine a lot of threads stretched at different angles to a moving plane; an inhabitant of the plane would be aware of them only as moving points. Conical configurations of the threads would give him shifting figures in his plane, and all the phenomena of life and motion could be explained as the successive cuts made by his moving plane in the stationary threads. There would be no such thing as cause and effect, but only a gradual realization in a superficies of an already existing whole. So what seems to us a succession of events may be only the gradual passing of our space through a world of figures of a higher order; our consciousness of things may be a spatial profile of some higher actuality; semblance of change may be merely due to the shadows cast in our space by real existences of four dimensions.

Thus mathematics comes to the aid of philosophy, and shows that it is quite possible that the world as known to us exists only in the mind of the four-dimensional being who conceives us.

History of Gustavus Adolphus. By John L. Stevens, LL.D., recently United States Minister at Stockholm. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884. 8vo, pp. 427.

It could be said with truth, a few years ago, that the Thirty Years' War was less understood (or more misunderstood) than any event of equal magnitude in modern history. By the publication of Mr. Gardiner's little work in the "Epochs" series, and still more of the recent translation of Gindely's history, this obscurity has been largely cleared up, and the great contest has taken its proper place in its relation to other historic events. It is very well that the publication of Gindely's work is followed so soon by a biography of the principal character of the war. The historical sketch needs for its completeness a just conception of the personality of its hero; and the biography, on the other hand, gains in effectiveness by a better knowledge of the series of events. It is as a biographer, rather than an historian, that Mr. Stevens has best success. The leading characters of his work—Gustavus himself, Wallenstein, Ferdinand, and others—are delineated with care and skill; and the events of the career of Gustavus are narrated in a clear and animated manner. The historical sketch which introduces the book is, on the other hand, neither lucid nor always accurate; from the revolution which placed Gustavus Vasa upon the throne, there is an improvement in these respects, and the chapter which describes the causes of the Thirty Years' War is really good, although inferior to the biographical chapters in merit. The descriptions of battles are clear and animated, but suffer from the want of plans and maps. For an example of confused narration in the historical sketch, we will refer to the account of the origin of the Folkungar (pages 14 and 15).

We will mention a few errors or misprints which we have noticed. On page 3 the *Suiones* of Tacitus are called *Sueones*. The Union of Calmar is placed (p. 15) in 1387 instead of 1397. The son and successor of Christian I. in 1481 is said to have been Christian II., instead of John (Hans); but a few lines below Hans is spoken of as "the son of Christian"—by which the reader would certainly understand Christian II. On page 76, where the controversy between Skytte and Oxenstiern is described, "the first" is used, evidently of Oxenstiern, while the grammatical connection would require it to relate to Skytte. There is an excellent portrait of Gustavus Adolphus, but no index.

The Continuity of Christian Thought. A Study of Modern Theology in the Light of its History. By Alexander V. G. Allen, Professor in the Episcopal Theological School in Cambridge. Pp. xiii, 438. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

In the *Princeton Review* for 1882-83 there appeared two articles by Professor Allen, upon the "Theological Renaissance of the Nineteenth Century," in which he laid down the proposition that the tendency of modern religious thought was toward an ideal of God and of Christ which could only be found by going back to the writings of the early Greek fathers. This same thesis was still further maintained by the author in a series of lectures given at Philadelphia in 1883, and now these lectures have been expanded into a considerable volume. Mr. Allen writes in a beautifully simple and vigorous style. His leading thought is clearly defined in his own mind, and hence becomes absolutely clear to the reader. He approaches his subject from the dispassionate point of view of the historian seeking after truth rather than from that of the theologian having his truth already in hand. Naturally, the greater part of the book is occupied with an explanation of how the gap between Athanasius and Schleiermacher has been filled up. If we are to accept Mr. Allen's conclusion, we must believe that fifteen out of the nineteen Christian centuries have been wholly off the track in their speculation upon the relations of God to his universe. At all events, the dominant theology of the Latin church, from Augustine to our own time, has been opposed to that view of the divine nature and activity which is found in the writings of Justin, Clement, Origen, and Athanasius, and which now again is coming to the front in the influence of Schleiermacher and his school, and in the higher thought of the "New Orthodoxy." It is, therefore, the author's purpose to show first the distortion and corruption of theology which this dominant tendency produced, and then to trace the lines of opposition, feeble and obscure, which through all this middle period were never wholly put out of sight.

The root of all evil in the Latin theology is found in the conception of God as a being removed from the universe, and governing it as an outside manager; this conception carrying with it another—the necessity of a restoration of unity between God and the universe by means of some scheme of reconciliation. From these fundamental errors we are shown how the whole great structure of mediæval theology grew up. In the reform of the sixteenth century these same errors were perpetuated. The Calvinistic God was even more sharply separated from humanity, the scheme of reconciliation even more coarsely material, than the Roman. Yet in these reformatory efforts, and growing out of the freedom of thought which they made possible, we are led to see the rise of a wholly new form of speculation, sweeping on in the eighteenth century to such extremes as agnosticism, deism, or atheism. Then, as the religious need of men began once more to make itself felt, came the reaction which Mr. Allen calls the modern renaissance in theology. In this new theology he discerns a restoration of the early Greek thought. Once again theology rises to the conception of Deity as a power indwelling in the heart of man, and of Christ as an eternal incarnation of God, not restricted to the historic Jesus, but, as Justin and Clement also believed, co-eternal with God, existing from all time, an essential element in the divine nature.

These two ideas alone—or, rather, the one idea of the incarnation in his meaning of the term—Mr. Allen regards as the sole essential of Christian theology. His list of non-essentials, given in an introductory chapter, includes almost every point upon which we have been accustomed to hear the loudest controversy. It includes the questions which have divided almost all sects from each other, which have caused this or that form of church government to seem the only proper one, which have caused persecutions and inspired martyrdom. In one word, from this point of view the whole history of Latin Christianity appears like a vague and empty contest over things which in themselves were wholly foreign to the spirit of that religion for which they seemed to stand. And, on the other hand, the recognition of the two fundamentals here pointed out would seem to break down all barriers, and open the way for a gathering of all extremes into one united church of God, resting upon the Eternal Reason as the reconciling agency between God and man.

This book cannot fail to commend itself to that great body of persons, in or out of the sects, who are tired of controversy, but who will not seek repose at the cost of either their religious instinct or their own reason. It is a valuable contribution to the literature of broad and liberal faith, but is sure to meet vigorous opposition from the narrower tendencies of all sects—perhaps most of all from that sect to which its author, by formal connection, though it is hard to see by what community of spirit, seems to belong.

Victor Hugo. By Paul de Saint-Victor. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

The late Paul de Saint-Victor's notices of such of Victor Hugo's books as were written in exile or since his return to France and of some of his dramatic works on the occasion of their reappearance on the French stage after an interval of forty years, have been collected by admiring friends and are presented to the public in the handsomely printed volume before us. Opinions vary as to Saint-Victor's merit as a critic. While some extol him to the skies as the peer of Jules Janin, "ce roi des critiques," others hold that he lacked that most essential quality in a critic, judgment, while they accord to him a rare facility of expression, a dazzling and very effective use of the brilliant imagery of the Romantic school. Neither of these opinions can be accepted *in toto*. Viewed from a certain standpoint, their contradiction is more apparent than real. Janin, like Saint-Victor, was gifted with rare facility; but his style was more free from Romantic exaggeration, very brilliant, witty, and perfect in its correct elegance. No man ever wrote better French. Yet, how many of his *feuilletons*, after keeping the reader captive under their subtle charm, have left him completely ignorant of the merits or faults of the book or play discussed by the critic! It was like following the flight of a butterfly and losing sight of the particular flower from which the beautiful insect had sipped the honeyed dew. Saint-Victor never flutters so daintily; he soars high, as becomes a true Romantic, but he does not lose sight of his subject. If, as in the case of Victor Hugo's books, his affection and admiration are concerned, he raves about the author's genius, quotes and repeats to satiety what is beautiful, clothes in tinsel whatever is obscure, and shows himself so much in earnest that he almost convinces us against our will.

His style does not dazzle us with sparkling wit: it moves us by its vehemence and earnestness. He does not lack judgment, but his judgment is sometimes warped by his feelings, though only as regards the literary merit of the work before him. When he has to deal with facts or principles, he does not hesitate to speak the truth; not harshly but plainly. An ardent admirer and loving friend of Hugo, he finds excuses for the incongruities which so startlingly appear in the midst of the poet's finest inspirations—"faults as rugged and salient as the knots of an oak or the asperities of a mountain—the whimsical conceits, the metaphor carried to excess, the uncouth puns, the incongruities of thought and rhyme." To him all this is but "the overflowing of poetic animation in strength—the playfulness of a colossus. Hugo's Herculean jokes remind one of those of Samson, the Biblical hero." Well might Victor Hugo write to him, apropos of his article on 'The Toilers of the Sea': "One could write a book merely for the pleasure of having you write a page."

But the critic is more uncompromising when he takes the poet to task, regretfully, for his contempt of historical truth in portraying Mary Tudor as unchaste, or in robbing Henry of Navarre of the legendary kindness of heart and solicitude for his subjects' welfare which have so endeared him to the popular heart. Nor can he admit that the poet who found such patriotic

strains in which to deplore the misfortunes of France in 'L'Année Terrible,' can be justified in shedding tears over the vanquished Communists, and establishing a parallel between the frantic efforts of madmen and the heroism of patriots.

To conclude, let us say that this collection of articles, written at different periods, not only is interesting for the anecdotes and the dissertations on men and things in which it abounds, but will be found an excellent guide to the study of Victor Hugo's stupendous work as a poet (Saint-Victor prudently ignored him as a political writer). One of the best pieces in the collection is an unfinished review of 'Les Misérables.' The first chapters of this book were hailed with so much fervid admiration by Saint-Victor, in the journal *La Presse*, that the imperial police deemed his articles dangerous to the public peace, and an official warning checked his enthusiasm. The half-written review was hid away in the critic's drawer, whence it emerged only after his death.

Some Heretics of Yesterday. By S. E. Herrick, D.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. 320.

THIS is a course of lectures, called out by the Luther centennial of last year and delivered by Dr. Herrick to the young people of his church. They cover a considerable range of time (from Tauler to Wesley), but make no pretence at completeness—are rather a series of independent sketches than a continuous work. We have lectures upon Melancthon and Calvin, but not upon Luther or Zwingle; upon John Wesley, but not upon George Fox. Under the title "Coligny" we find an interesting sketch of the French Huguenots; under "William Brewster," of the "Independent" movement in England. The object of the course is ethical rather than historical—"to show that the revolt [against traditionalism and authority] neither began nor ended with Luther—if indeed it can be said to be finished yet; to follow it in its gradual development in principle, and trace it in geographical and national expansion; at the same time to exhibit it concretely in the lives of its leaders, and so to bring the reader into personal sympathy with them and awaken an interest in personal investigation." For this end the lectures are excellently suited: their style is that of the *lecture* rather than the *essay*, adapted to hearing rather than reading. Nevertheless they read well, and, while "no new facts are brought to light," and there is no claim of originality, the author has evidently taken pains to consult the most recent writers, and to acquaint himself with the best results of scholarship.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Tiny Footfall within the Golden Gate. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 25 cents.
Aldrich, T. B. Marjorie Daw, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Alexander, Francesca. Roadside Songs of Tuscany. Part V. John Wiley & Sons. 75 cents.
Austin, A. At the Gate of the Convent, and Other Poems. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Bandmann, D. E. An Actor's Tour; or, Seventy Thousand Miles with Shakespeare. Edited by Barnard Gisby. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $2.
Barker, Lady. Letters to Guy. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Campbell, Helen. The What-To-Do Club; A Story for Girls. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Chesneau, E. The English School of Painting. Preface by Ruskin. Cassell & Co. $2.
Claus, Dr. C. Elementary Text Book of Zoology. 2 Vols. General Part and Special Part: Protozoa to Insecta. Special Part: Mollusca to Man. 1,197 woodcuts. Macmillan & Co. $8.
Discriminate: A Companion to 'Don't.' A Manual for Guidance in the Correct Use of Words and Phrases in Ordinary Speech. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents.
Dobson, A. At the Sign of the Lyre. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Dorr, Julia C. R. Daybreak. An Easter Poem. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 40 cents.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth edition. Vol. XVIII. Orn-Pht. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Haggard, H. R. The Witch's Head. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Humphreys, Prof. M.W. Aristophanes: Clouds. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Jackson, Helen (H. H.). Easter Bells. An Original Poem. With Illustrations. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50.
Jessen, Prof. C. Der lebenden Wesen Ursprung und Fortdauer. Berlin: Abenheim; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Karaka, Dosabhai Framji. History of the Parsis, including their Manners, Customs, Religion, and Present Position. Illustrated. 2 Vols. Macmillan & Co. $15.
Keary, E. A Casket of Pearls. Selections from Scripture for Morning and Evening. Frederick Warne & Co. 35 cents.
Keary, E. Rays of Light: A Daily Text-Book for Divine Guidance. Frederick Warne & Co. 35 cents.
Keenan, H. F. Trajan. A Novel. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year Book for 1885. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Lathrop, G. P. In the Distance. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Lindau, R. Hans der Träumer, etc. Chicago: L. Schick. 20 cents.
Mason, E. T. Personal Traits of British Authors. Hood—Macaulay—Sydney Smith—Jerrold—Dickens—Charlotte Brontë—Thackeray. With Portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Miles, H. I. A. The Old, Old Story. In two parts. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.
Murrey, T. J. Fifty Salads. White, Stokes & Allen. 50c.
Norris, W. E. A Man of His Word, and Other Stories. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Obiter Dicta. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Oliver, Grace A. Arthur Penrhyn Stanley: His Life, Work, and Teachings. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. $1.50.
Perrin, R. S. The Religion of Philosophy, or the Unification of Knowledge. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.
Perrot-Chipiez. History of Art in Phœnicia and its Dependencies. 2 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $15.50.
Platt, Sarah M. B. An Irish Garland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Ponce de Leon, N. Diccionario Tecnológico. Part 11 Nail—Ply. New York: N. Ponce de Leon. 50 cents.
Praed, W. M. Poems. Revised and Complete Edition. With a Memoir by Rev. Derwent Coleridge. 2 vols. in one. White, Stokes & Allen. $2.
Probyn, J. W. Italy: From the Fall of Napoleon I., in 1815, to the Death of Victor Emmanuel, in 1878. Cassell & Co. $2.
Rabillon, L. La Chanson de Roland. From the Seventh Edition of Léon Gautier. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Reeves, Marion C. L., and Read, Emily. Pilot Fortune. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Reid, C. Roslyn's Fortune. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Romanes, G. J. Jelly-Fish, Star-Fish, and Sea-Urchins. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Saint Victor, P. de. Victor Hugo. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Schaff, Dr. P. History of the Christian Church. Vol. IV. Mediæval Christianity, A. D. 590-1073. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Schiller's Das Lied von der Glocke. With introduction and notes by C. P. Otis, Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co.
Shapcott, R. Mark Rutherford's Deliverance. Being the Second Part of his Biography. London: Trübner & Co.
Sherwood, S. R. The Lays of a Bohemian. Brentano Brothers.
Sime, W. Boulderstone; or, New Men and Old Populations. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
"Siva." A Man of Destiny. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Skelding, Susie B. Birthday Flowers. White, Stokes & Allen. $1.50.
Smith, W. H. The Evolution of "Dodd" in his Struggle for the Survival of the Fittest in Himself. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. Emma D. E. N. The Bride's Fate. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.
Warren, Dr. W. F. Paradise Found. The Cradle of the Human Race at the North Pole. A Study of the Prehistoric World. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 2, 1885.

The Week.

THE President's latest appointments are based upon the same principle as his previous ones; that is, fitness rather than party service or "pressure." It is noticeable that the President's critics are able to find no serious fault with them. The selections for important foreign posts seem to be excellent in all cases. Especially to be commended is that of Professor Anderson for the Denmark mission. He has the distinction of being the first Mugwump to receive office from the Administration, but he undoubtedly owes his appointment to his fitness much more than to his support of Mr. Cleveland for President. The only objection which is made to some of the other nominations is that they are a further recognition of the Confederate Brigadiers. The Blaine organ says that a "better way to show the magnanimity of the North toward former Rebels could hardly be devised than by sending them abroad as representatives of the Government they tried to destroy." Could a better way be devised to make them feel that they are citizens of a restored Union than to send them abroad as representatives, not of a section, but of the whole country? They go as Americans, not as Southerners, and our gloomy contemporary ought to be glad to have them there rather than in Washington working to have the Rebel debt and Rebel pensions paid out of the national Treasury, or in the South working to have the negroes put back into slavery, while he cannot send any more Mahones, Riddlebergers, Kelloggs, Spencers, and Claytons to Washington to help save the country. They cannot do much harm abroad unless they plot to have this country invaded by the Czar or some other foreign potentate.

The despatch of German-Americans to Berlin and Vienna as Consuls-General is an especially good idea. So is the transfer of the fiscal agency to Brown Brothers. This was held, apart from politics, as it ought to be, almost from the foundation of the Government by the Barings, when it occurred to the unclean band who surrounded General Grant during his first term to make it "spoils," and they took it away and gave it to a new house, which soon after "burst up," causing the Government a heavy loss. It is high time it were taken out of politics. We believe the appointment of Mr. Isaac Bell, jr., to the Dutch Mission is very acceptable to the Rhode Island Independents, though he is himself a regular Democrat. Italy goes to a highly respectable Virginian, Mr. Keiley. The appointment of Mr. McMullen to the Appraisership at this port is the first sign of the view taken by the Administration of the needs of the Custom-house, and it is a good one, for he is, we believe, a confirmed civil-service reformer, and, unlike his predecessor, will have better advisers than Mr. George Bliss.

That the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson is a most commendable act, in harmony with all of the President's professions, fulfilling the spirit as well as the letter of his engagements—an act tending to encourage and stimulate in all branches of the public service those qualities which have distinguished Mr. Pearson and made the New York Post-office a model of efficiency and public usefulness—must be acknowledged by all candid men. The credit of such an act belongs necessarily to the party in power. As the responsibility for all errors in national affairs must fall at last on the party as a whole, so the honor of successful and praiseworthy administration in all its branches must be awarded to the political body intrusted for the time being with the executive branch of the Government. To award praise to the President alone would be to come far short of the truth, since it is known that some of the most earnest advocates of Mr. Pearson's retention in office were Democrats of standing and repute, such as Mr. Hewitt, Mr. Ottendorfer, Mayor Grace, Mr. Henry Richmond, Judge Schoonmaker, Mr. Willis James, Mr. Algernon Sullivan, Mr. Sidney Webster, and Governor Tilden. These and many other representative Democrats have been quoted from time to time as favoring Mr. Pearson's reappointment upon grounds of public utility as well as of party policy. If the petitions on file at Washington were carefully scanned, they would be found to embrace the names of a goodly portion of the business men of New York who habitually vote the Democratic ticket, but who never take leading positions in the party councils. Indeed, it may be said that the Democratic politicians generally expected Mr. Pearson's reappointment from the beginning, and were prepared to acquiesce in it without a murmur, and that only the delay in making it produced the opposition which was latterly raised up against it. This delay, it is now known, was caused by charges against Mr. Pearson left on file by the late Administration, which needed to be examined by the Department and answered by the Postmaster. But for these charges, the existence of which was unknown to Mr. Pearson himself, we have good reason to believe that the appointment would have been made among the earliest acts of the President after the selection and confirmation of his Cabinet.

Mr. Phelps, our new English Minister, makes a dignified denial of the authenticity of a speech which he was reported to have made in 1864, and in which he was represented as speaking of Lincoln in very coarse language. He says that he has no recollection of making any such speech, but that he may have made at that time a speech saying that the war was unnecessary, and criticising the manner in which it was carried on. He adds: "While I was not in accord with the majority of my people in respect to the necessity of the war, or to some things connected with the prosecution of it, my opposition to the doctrine of secession and to any steps leading to the dissolution of the Union was well known. My views were the same as those entertained by Mr. Webster, and are to be found expressed in various addresses of mine." Mr. Phelps remarks that when this alleged speech was first attributed to him in 1880, he treated it with contempt because it had circulation only where he was personally known. He makes denial now only for the benefit of those who do not know him. It is doubtful if any person capable of intelligent judgment believed for a moment that he used the language attributed to him about Lincoln. Even the newspapers which have been circulating it, and who are in such deep concern about the "loyalty" of everybody who finds favor with the new Administration, know as well as anybody that it bears all the marks of gross and palpable forgery.

The *Civil-Service Reformer*, of Baltimore, gives a large share of space in its April number to the Higgins case. The mistake made in the appointment of Higgins, it says, "is such a huge one, and is so universally regretted by the true friends of the Administration, that it in some measure loses its character of a mistake, and assumes that of a valuable object-lesson, wherein an admirable opportunity is offered for the community at large to express its opinions in regard to that particular class of persons which Mr. Higgins so worthily represents." It has drawn the attention of the whole country to the methods of Senator Gorman, who was virtually Chairman of the Democratic National Committee in the last campaign. Mr. Gorman derived much *éclat* from the result of the election. He obtained a national celebrity, and secured for himself a much firmer hold upon the politics of his own State than he had previously enjoyed. People outside of Maryland said to each other: "Here is a man of note—why have we not heard of him before?" Rumors did get around that Mr. Gorman was merely an adept in low cunning, having no conception of nor belief in the larger forces which move the public mind and produce unexpected political results. But these rumors were confined to a narrow range of circulation. They did not reach the masses, to whom, on the other hand, Mr. Gorman appeared to be a rather remarkable new light in the political firmament. The appointment of Higgins has drawn attention to him again, and has exposed him to public scrutiny of the most searching character.

Secretary Bayard is evidently not at all alarmed by the charge of being "un-American" which the dynamite Irish make against him. In a letter to an Irish society in Philadelphia, which had invited him to its banquet on St. Patrick's Day, he wrote:

"The obvious and many duties of my public office here speak for themselves, and to none with more force than to American citizens of Irish blood or birth who are honestly endeavoring to secure liberty by maintaining a government of laws, and who realize the constant attention that is needful. In the midst of anarchical demonstrations which we witness in other lands, and the echoes of which we can detect even here in our own free country, where base and silly individuals seek to stain the name of Ireland by associating the

honest struggle for just government with senseless and wicked crimes, there is no class of our citizens from whom honest approbation can be more confidently expected than such as compose your respected and benevolent society. Those who worthily celebrate the birthday of St. Patrick will not forget that he drove out of Ireland the reptiles that creep and sting. The Hibernian Society can contain no member who will not resent the imputation that sympathy with assassins can dwell in a genuine Irish heart, which will ever be opposed to cruelty, cowardice, and whatever form either may take." The letter was not read at the banquet, and the chief organ of the "base and silly individuals who seek to stain the name of Ireland with senseless and wicked crimes," the *Irish World*, says that the society thus "indicated their freezing contempt for Bayard by severely ignoring his puppyism."

The letter is extremely likely to aggravate the already painful uneasiness in Irish-American circles concerning the Americanism of everybody connected with President Cleveland's Administration. The new Minister to England, in spite of the ungracious comments of some of the London journals, is heavily under suspicion. One Irish paper alludes to him as the warm friend of Edmunds, "that Mugwump who refused to support Blaine," and of Judge Field, "that brother of Cyrus Field, the well-known American who erected a monument to the British spy André." In fact, the number of public men who are really good Americans is narrowing down so rapidly, that we fear there will not be enough left presently to edit the Irish press and stand guard over the various Emergency Funds. No man born in this country is at present free from suspicion of the taint of un-Americanism. The day may not be far distant when it will be necessary for the Irish-Americans in this country to rise in dynamite warfare to shake off the "oppression" which the native Americans, like Cleveland, Bayard, Phelps, and Edmunds, seem disposed to fasten upon them.

Reports from Washington concerning the investigation now going on in the Treasury Department with reference to the mode of preparing the monthly balance sheet, showing the state of the public debt and the cash in the Treasury, encourage the belief that some wholesome reforms tending to greater clearness and closer adherence to facts are to be introduced. It seems quite certain that the thirty millions of fractional silver heretofore counted as cash on hand, and estimated as available for the payment of demand obligations, is to be cast out of the reckoning, and as a necessary consequence that its place is to be made good with legal-tender money of some sort. As we have heretofore pointed out, the money market is now in such a condition as not to feel the loss which this addition to the Treasury reserve implies. On the other hand, such an addition to the reserve would strengthen the hands of the Secretary in his endeavors to ward off the silver crisis, by giving him a fund equal to fifteen months' coinage in excess of his present supply to meet this waste. This is the great problem which Secretary Manning has to deal with, and he seems to understand how to manage it. The suspension of bond calls in the interval will not produce any discontent except among the silver fanatics, and these, it may be assumed, are as angry now as they can be, President Cleveland's letter having filled them brimful before the new Administration came in.

The troubles of Mr. John Roach about the *Dolphin* cruiser are well calculated to excite sympathy, but he has himself to blame. He ought to have got her ready for acceptance before Secretary Chandler went out of office, and he would doubtless have done so had he not been so sure of Blaine's election. All the 'cute men doubtless told him that everything was "fixed" for a Republican victory, so he made no haste. He did one smart thing, however, before Chandler went out, in securing the payment, in violation of the contract, of the 10 per cent. on each of nine instalments of the price for the ship, which, as well as the whole of the last instalment, the Government was to reserve until after she was delivered, as a security against possible undiscovered defects. He has not delivered the *Dolphin*, but he has got all the 10 per cent. reservations. That under these circumstances Mr. Roach was greatly alarmed at the prospect of seeing "the Confederacy again in the saddle," may well be imagined. The *Dolphin* was to have had steel shafts, but one of them broke on the first trial. Then Mr. Roach got leave to put an iron one in, and finally the ship on her trial did not develop the speed provided for in the contract. He says she will do better, however, with different coal and a better engineer, and in the meantime wants his "last payment," which Mr. Whitney withholds. It seems as if the Navy Department had existed for twenty years to provide Mr. Roach's yard with profitable work. This is now at an end, and we may guess how he feels about the future of the negro and of American industry.

The *Economist* quotes President Cleveland's letter on the silver coinage in full, and then observes:

"It would be difficult to put the argument against the Silver Coinage Act more forcibly or more conclusively than is here done; and the hope must be that when the people of the United States have had the issue thus plainly put before them they will not long continue to tolerate so mischievous a piece of legislation."

As Mr. Blaine has been very quiet of late, we are reluctant to refer to his political economy again. But when one recalls his exposition after the election of the effect it would have on wages North and South, one can hardly help conjuring up the kind of letter *he* would have written on the silver question, and comparing it with Mr. Cleveland's terse and forcible statement. He would probably have made one of the efforts for which he is famous to satisfy the bi-metallists, the mono-metallists, the no-metallists, the Irish, the French, and the Hindus, and the result would have been unspeakable nonsense.

This letter, and the vote taken in Congress just before the adjournment, have caused a spasmodic stir in the bi-metallic faction in England, which the *Economist* takes notice of, Mr. H. Schmidt having taken advantage of the occasion to read a paper on the subject at the Institute of Bankers. Mr. Schmidt's contention is that the continued coinage of silver in the United States is necessary to sustain the prices of the agricultural products of the West and South. Of course this beneficial effect can only result from a depreciation of the standard of value, for as long as silver dollars and silver certificates remain at par with gold in the circulation, no farmer can pay his debts or purchase his supplies at less than 100 cents on the dollar. In case of an actual depreciation, however, Mr. Schmidt assures his hearers that India would derive an advantage over America as an exporter of both wheat and cotton—that is, the American agriculturist would gain in the home market and lose in the foreign market. Both contentions the *Economist* shows are false, but if they were true the position of the American farmer and planter would certainly be worse than it is now, since the loss in the foreign market through the greater competition of India could not possibly be made good by the home market, the latter being governed absolutely by the former. The *Economist* sees no objection from the British point of view to our adopting the silver standard, but insists that the compulsory coinage and storage of two millions per month is a loss of that much capital to American trade and by consequence to British trade also, since any abstraction of wealth from business channels is a detriment to the world's commerce.

The protocols of the Congo Conference have, it is understood, been received at the Department of State. The stipulations and understandings formulated at Berlin are not binding upon the United States until they have been formally accepted by this Government. The whole subject of the Conference and its doings was carefully considered by the Foreign Affairs Committee of the last House, and the Committee was unanimous in condemnation of American participation therein, although there was some slight difference among the members of the Committee over the language in which that condemnation should be expressed. We have already referred to the elaborate report made by Mr. Perry Belmont and presented to the House. In it he discussed the question respecting the manner in which the stipulations of the Conference could be adopted by this Government if at all. Must the ratification be by the President alone, or by the President and Senate, as in case of a treaty? Probably the President will decide to pigeon-hole the protocols. As much is to be inferred from the language used in his inaugural address, which was, perhaps, intended to cover the Conference at Berlin.

The Riel insurrection in the Northwest, which is creating as much excitement in Canada as the prospect of a war with Russia is causing in England, is an almost exact revival of the insurrection led by the same man in 1869. The causes for it seem to be precisely the same, except that they are said now to be somewhat aggravated by Catholic influences. In 1869 the Hudson's Bay Company, which had for many years held complete authority over the Northwest, sold the greater part of their lands to the Canadian Government. When the Government surveyors appeared to lay out the country for settlers, the half-breeds and Indians who occupied the sections of it

fronting on the rivers objected. Under Riel's leadership they organized a fighting force, and issued a bill of rights. A brief struggle followed, but Riel and his force were suppressed in the spring of 1870, by an expedition under the command of Colonel, now Lord, Wolseley. Riel was banished for five years. The Government, as a means of quieting the half-breeds, gave each of them a grant of 240 acres of land. This insurrection of 1869 was confined to the Province of Manitoba. The present trouble has arisen in the settlements at Prince Albert, along the Saskatchewan, 500 miles northwest of the capital of Manitoba, where the Government surveyors have recently gone for the first time. The half-breeds demand substantially the same concessions which were made to the half-breeds of Manitoba, together with other rights similar to those demanded by Riel in 1869.

The speculations in Wall Street as to the effect of war on business are not always as rational as they might be. Most of them are based on the old idea that trade always means a loss to one side or the other, instead of being, as it must be in order to continue, a gain to both. Europeans cannot engage in a great war, slaughter thousands of men, destroy vast amounts of property, without becoming, for a time at least, worse customers for every country with which they deal at all, although the demand for some of our commodities may be temporarily stimulated. Every nation but China is interested in every other nation's peace and prosperity. One gentleman in Wall Street, talking to the *Herald* reporter, thought that the hostilities in India would stimulate the demand for our wheat, because the great armies would consume so much, and thus raise the price of Indian wheat. But the men who compose great armies eat just as much wheat in peace as in war. In fact, they probably eat a good deal more, because in peace they have more time for their meals and are nearer the markets. Moreover, the dead stop eating wheat altogether. Mr. Henry Clews, we observe, expects a great benefit to the American laboring classes, and to the American people generally, from having so many Europeans engaged in the work of mutual destruction, because the demand for "grain, provisions, and clothing, and war ammunition" will be greatly increased. But wars nowadays do not last long, and a "demand" for grain, provisions, and clothing, is only profitable when those who feel it have the wherewithal to make purchases. After the war is over, the demand will be less profitable than ever, because there will be fewer purchasers, and those who are left will be poorer. Nothing apparently needs more to be taught in schools than the effect of war on trade. No country was ever enriched either by its own wars or by those of other peoples, although many individual dealers and contractors make fortunes out of it.

The fall of the French Ministry followed promptly, as was expected, on the news of the defeat in Tonquin, and had the curiously characteristic accompaniment of a howling mob outside the Chamber door kept back by bayonets. It is at this writing supposed that M. Freycinet will be called on to try his luck again; but probably every politician of prominence will be reluctant to risk his reputation in the place, with the programme now prescribed by the popular fury, which includes nothing less than the capture of Peking, with a force of 60,000 men, to be paid for out of a Treasury burdened with annual deficits. Clémenceau is talked of, but Clémenceau probably knows better than to exchange the rôle of critic for that of performer before such an audience as the Parisian public in its present mood.

A year ago the French, after a contest of some months, had got everything they wanted in Tonquin. They had driven the Chinese marauders known as the "Black Flags" out of the Delta of the Red River, and had taken the fortified towns of Sontay and Bacninh without any opposition from the Chinese, who claimed suzerainty over the whole region, although the latter had formally announced that an attack on either of these places would be treated as a casus belli. In fact, it was plain that the Chinese did not want to go to war about Tonquin. The treaty known as the Convention of Tientsin was accordingly concluded between France and China in May of last year. It left the French in possession of everything they occupied; it gave up the Chinese claim of suzerainty over Tonquin, opened the Red River to navigation as far as Yunnan, and the three principal towns to foreign trade, and to the residence of a French consul in each. More than this, it gave France the fortified town of Langson, commanding the principal pass in the northern mountains through which the Chinese obtain access to the Red River Delta. Peace seemed to be secured, and a small body of French troops started to take possession of Langson. On the march they came on a Chinese post barring the road. The officer in command said he had no orders to allow them to pass, and had heard nothing of the treaty of peace, and proposed a halt, until he could get instructions. The French, however, refused to wait, attempted to force their way, and were repulsed with heavy loss. This was really an unfortunate accident. There was no reason to doubt the good faith of the Chinese. But the French would receive no excuse. They demanded an enormous indemnity for the repulse inflicted on their troops. It was refused, and they then withdrew their Minister from Pekin, but, instead of declaring war, began to make "reprisals," such as the bombardment of Kelung in Formosa, and that of the Foochow arsenal and the forts on the Min River. These operations were successful enough, but they only stung the Chinese without frightening them. The Chinese Empire is, in spite of its paternal organization, so loosely constituted that attacks on its frontier make no serious impression on the Government at Peking—a fact which the allies recognized in 1860 when they marched on the capital. Consequently, the operations of Admiral Courbet along the coast seem simply to have roused the Chinese Government into active and formidable preparations for attacking the French where they were most vulnerable, namely, in the Tonquin mountains, into which they had successfully penetrated, and had captured Langson.

As to the future, the little that can be said is not very promising for the French. The losses from sickness in Tonquin, though not published, are probably very great. During the coming hot weather they will be still greater. The earlier successes in the Delta, which turned their heads, were achieved with the aid of the gunboats, which were able to penetrate in every direction through the numerous bayous, and support the troops with the fire of their heavy guns. In the mountains, this advantage is gone. The difficulties of transportation are enormous; and the population is hostile to a man. The Chinese, too, are attacking in great force, or in other words bringing into play their enormous superiority of numbers, and that indifference to loss of life which is the strong point of the Chinese military organization. The Chinese troops of to-day are by no means the half-armed rabble they were in 1860. The experience of Gordon in suppressing the Taeping rebellion has raised them greatly in European estimation, and increased the number of European officers in the service. The men are fairly drilled, armed with the Mauser rifle, and have a large number of breach-loading guns. The force supposed to be immediately available for resistance in Tonquin is 120,000 strong, well armed and fairly disciplined, and it is recruited, of course, from a population which for military purposes may be considered limitless. Behind this, there is a territorial force or militia, estimated at 200,000, which could not keep the field against French regulars, but has probably great powers of harassing. As to the advance on Peking, the best French military authorities in Tonquin are said to doubt whether it would be safe to attempt this with less than 60,000 men. Its difficulties have been immensely increased since 1860. Entrance to the Peiho River was then found to be impossible. The forts had to be turned by a land attack. Since then they have been increased in number and completed on the land side, and are armed with Armstrong and Krupp guns, and the river is full of torpedoes as far as Tientsin.

The Graham campaign on the Suakim-Berber route is having one useful effect in silencing the noisy Jingoes in England, who were sure that that was the way Lord Wolseley ought to have gone to Gordon's aid. It is now quite plain that had he done so he would have had very few men left fit for active work by the time he reached Berber, at which place he would still have been some 200 miles from Khartum. It is more and more evident that a force advancing on that line must be followed by the railroad, and that guarding the road will be very costly work. Newspaper strategy in distant and little-known regions is always amusing reading, but it has probably never been more so than in the case of the Sudan campaign. The *St. James's Gazette* thinks General McNeill brought the late "military scuffle" on himself by neglecting precautions which any cadet would have taken. But there is probably not a camel-driver in the force whose opinion about "precautions" is not worth five times as much as that of the editor of the *St. James's Gazette*, and yet the latter is considered worth telegraphing across the Atlantic.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 25, to TUESDAY, March 31, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Wednesday nominated Samuel S. Cox, of New York, to be Minister to Turkey. Mr. Cox is sixty-one years of age, and for many terms has been a well-known Congressman from this city. He is the author of several books. Among the postmasters nominated on Thursday was Aquila Jones for Indianapolis. This was a victory for Vice-President Hendricks's faction. On Friday it was announced that the President had nominated Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, of Virginia, to be Commissioner of Railroads, and Norman J. Coleman, of Missouri, to be Commissioner of Agriculture. Mr. Coleman is a resident of St. Louis. He is about sixty years of age, and was for many years the editor of the *Rural Home*, an agricultural paper published in St. Louis. Mr. Alexander McCue, of Brooklyn, has been nominated for Solicitor of the Treasury. Mr. McCue is a lawyer of good reputation and a man of considerable means. He is about fifty-five years of age, and has just retired from the bench of the City Court of Brooklyn.

The President sent a long list of nominations to the Senate on Monday, among which were the following: To be Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary of the United States: Thomas J. Jarvis, of North Carolina, to Brazil; Alexander R. Lawton, of Georgia, to Russia; Anthony M. Keiley, of Virginia, to Italy. To be Consuls-General of the United States: Thomas M. Waller, of Connecticut, at London; Frederick Raine, of Maryland, at Berlin; Edmund Jussen, of Illinois, at Vienna, Austria. To be Ministers Resident of the United States: Isaac Bell, jr., of Rhode Island, to the Netherlands; Rufus Magee, of Indiana, to Sweden and Norway; George W. Merrill, of Nevada, to the Hawaiian Islands. To be Ministers Resident and Consuls-General of the United States: Edward Parke Custis Lewis, of New Jersey, to Portugal; Rasmus B. Anderson, of Wisconsin, to Denmark. To be Consuls of the United States: A. Haller Gross, of Pennsylvania, at Athens, Greece; Evan P. Howell, of Georgia, at Manchester, England.

Mr. Jarvis, the Minister to Brazil, is an ex-Governor of North Carolina. Alexander R. Lawton, the Minister to Russia, is a prominent lawyer of Savannah, Ga. He was born in South Carolina, was educated at the West Point Military Academy, served in the army a number of years, resigned, studied law at Savannah, and engaged in the practice of his profession there. When the civil war broke out he entered the Confederate service as a Brigadier-General, and subsequently became Quartermaster-General of the Confederacy. He is a lawyer of distinction and is about sixty years of age. A. M. Keiley, the Minister to Italy, is a lawyer in successful practice at Richmond, Va. He has been Mayor of that city, was for many years Chairman of the Democratic Funders' Committee, and is also well known as one of the counsel for the Virginia bondholders in their prolonged litigation. Edward Parke Custis Lewis, the Minister to Portugal, is a resident of Hoboken, N. J. He is said to be distantly related to Secretary Bayard, and has been a member of the Legislature and a Presidential Elector. Isaac Bell, jr., nominated to be Minister to the Netherlands, is a wealthy citizen of Newport, R. I., and a prominent Democrat, and has several times been the Democratic candidate for Governor. He is a brother-in-law of James Gordon Bennett. Thomas Waller, who receives the Consul-Generalship at London, is the ex-Governor of Connecticut. Frederick Raine, of Maryland, who is appointed Consul-General at Berlin, is the editor of the *Deutscher Correspondent*, one of the leading German newspapers of Baltimore. Edmund Jussen, of Chicago, who is appointed Consul-General to Vienna, is another prominent German-American. He is a brother-in-law of Carl Schurz.

Rufus Magee, of Indiana, the Minister to Sweden and Norway, is an especial friend of ex-Senator McDonald. Rasmus B. Anderson, of Wisconsin, Minister to Denmark, is an eminent Scandinavian scholar, and is the author of a number of books upon Scandinavian folk lore and mythology. He is a professor in the University of Wisconsin, and was a Republican when Blaine was nominated.

The most significant of the nominations of President Cleveland on Tuesday was that of Henry G. Pearson to succeed himself as Postmaster of New York city. A gentleman very near the President, and undoubtedly speaking from actual knowledge, says that the reappointment of Mr. Pearson was made after a most patient examination of all the facts connected with the charges against him, and his answer to the same, which was on Monday read by the President, and which may therefore be considered as a complete vindication. Postmaster Pearson's case was considered exceptional by President Cleveland because he has made the New York Post-office a complete illustration of the successful application of civil-service-reform principles to an immense governmental establishment. "To retain him," said the gentleman in the confidence of the President, "insures faith and confidence in the movement, which would receive a shock from his removal. His retention was earnestly requested by a large number of business men of the city, both Democrats and Republicans, and very generally by the Independent Republicans, who did such good service in support of the Democratic candidates in the last campaign." It is further authoritatively learned that this act of the President must not be regarded as indicating that in other cases persons opposed to the party of the President will either be appointed or retained after the expiration of their terms of office.

Among the other nominations made on Tuesday were: William R. Roberts, of New York, to be Minister to Chili; Charles W. Buck, of Kentucky, to Peru; Richard B. Hubbard, of Texas, to Japan.

The sentence of the Hazen Court-martial is a reprimand, which, if approved by the President, will be administered in a general order issued by the Secretary of War in the name of the President.

Pension Commissioner Black issued an order on Friday forbidding the advancing of any pension claim out of its order.

Senator Mahone's son, who is under bonds to appear for trial for assault, was discharged from a $2,220 sinecure in the United States Senate on Thursday. Ex-Auditor Allen, of Virginia, a Mahonite, takes his place. Mahone immediately appointed his son to the similarly lucrative position of clerk of his own committee.

In the New York Assembly on Wednesday the Niagara Reservation Bill was passed by 84 to 24. On Thursday a resolution for the investigation of Tontine insurance was passed by 78 to 34.

There were grand ceremonies at St. Augustine, Fla., on Friday, to celebrate the anniversary of the landing of Ponce de Leon in 1512, and the founding of the city by Menendez in 1565.

The Music Hall in Buffalo, which cost $175,000 and seated 5,000 persons, was burned on Wednesday night.

The illness of General Grant took a very unfavorable turn on Saturday night. He was almost choked to death by a secretion of phlegm in his throat. On Sunday he rallied somewhat, but continued to be in a very critical condition. He is fast losing his vitality, and it is believed that he cannot long survive.

Frederick S. Winston, President of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of this city, died in Florida on Friday. He was seventy-nine years of age. He became President of that company in 1853, and during his administration its assets have increased $100,000,000. During the war he was noted for his energy in helping the Government and his profound faith in the Union.

Gen. Anson Stager, prominent in the development of the telegraph system of the country, died in Chicago on Thursday at the age of sixty.

Perry H. Smith, the well-known railroad manager, died in Chicago on Sunday, aged fifty-seven years.

General James McQuade died in Utica on Wednesday at the age of fifty-six. He was twice Mayor of Utica, a member of the State Assembly of 1860, Colonel of the Fourteenth Regiment of New York Volunteers during the war, Inspector-General on Governor Hoffman's staff, Quarantine Commissioner at New York for two terms, a founder of the Loyal Legion, and Department Commander of the Grand Army of the Republic in 1879.

Mrs. Edwin D. Morgan, widow of ex-Governor Morgan, a lady whose many charities have made her name a household word in New York, died on Thursday.

FOREIGN.

A despatch was received in Paris on Thursday from General Négrier, dated Dong Dong, March 24, which said: "The Chinese attacked Dong Dong on Sunday. I advanced Monday and captured the first line of forts defending their camp at Bangbo. To-day renewed efforts were made by us against the enemy, but these proved unavailing in the face of superior numbers. Our artillery ammunition was exhausted and we returned to Dong Dong. Our loss in killed and wounded numbers 200."

After the Tonquin debate in the French Chamber of Deputies on Saturday a vote of confidence in the Government was passed by 273 to 227.

It was officially announced in Paris on Sunday, that the Chinese troops on the Tonquin frontier on Friday made a desperate attack upon the intrenched camp which had been established by General Négrier between Langson and Kilua, and from which General Négrier had been making reconnoissances beyond the frontier separating Tonquin from China proper. The Chinese, numbering about 50,000, drove the French back to Langson and recaptured that town, and all the strategic points in its vicinity. During this series of fights General Négrier was grievously wounded in the chest, and the French casualties were very serious. The latest accounts represent the French troops to be in full retreat, with the Chinese vigorously pursuing them. A vast quantity of commissary and other stores has been lost. The total French loss in killed and wounded is not yet definitely known, but it is put at 1,500. General Brière de l'Isle, who is in chief command in Tonquin, telegraphed for assistance in an imploring tone, which led the Parisians to expect further disasters. Intense excitement prevailed wherever the bad news became known in France. It is expected that General Négrier will recover. The French Cabinet decided to despatch immediate reinforcements to China, and to ask a war credit of $40,000,000.

Long before the hour for the convening of the Chamber of Deputies, on Monday, the streets in the vicinity were packed with crowds of excited men. A strong force of military was on duty to prevent a riot and preserve order in the Chamber. Notwithstanding this precaution, the galleries were crowded with people who plainly showed their irritation over the French defeat at Langson by keeping up a noisy discussion. When M. Jules Ferry, the Premier, arose to announce the decision of the Cabinet Council he was loudly hissed by those in the galleries. He had barely finished the declaration when a number of Deputies of the Right sprang to their feet, yelling "Down with the wretch!" while above the din could be heard M. Clémenceau screaming "Traitors!"

Prime Minister Ferry in his statement asked for the credit of $40,000,000, previously agreed upon by the Cabinet, moved for the appointment of a committee to examine and report upon the credit, and demanded that the motion be given priority. His motion was rejected by a vote of 308 to 161. M. Ferry immediately announced the resignation of the entire Ministry, and President Grévy accepted it.

President Grévy asked M. Henry Brisson, President of the Chamber of Deputies, to form a new Cabinet. M. Brisson declined. The President then asked M. de Freycinet to form a Cabinet. The latter asked twenty-four hours in which to reply. The vote against M. Ferry included the Republican Union, the Extreme Left, and the Monarchists. No group appears to be strong enough to insure a compact Ministry. At 9 P. M. on Tuesday M. de Freycinet announced to President Grévy that he had not yet succeeded in forming a Ministry.

The Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday afternoon unanimously voted the first instalment, amounting to $10,000,000, of the Tonquin credit of $40,000,000, asked for by M. Ferry before the resignation of his Cabinet. The Deputies voted to reserve action on the remaining $30,000,000 until the formation of the new Ministry.

The tension between Russia and England on the Afghan question increased on Wednesday. British consols fell ½ of 1 per cent. The Cabinet held a special session on Wednesday afternoon. It was resolved to demand of Russia that she begin forthwith the work of delimiting the Afghan frontier in accordance with the understanding by which Sir Peter Lumsden and the British surveying party have passed so many months in the Amir's dominions.

The alarm was increased on Thursday when Queen Victoria sent the following message to Parliament: "The present state of public affairs, and the extent of the demand on Her Majesty's military forces for the protection of the interests of the Empire, having constituted, in the opinion of Her Majesty, a case of great emergency, Her Majesty has deemed it proper to provide additional means for the military service. She has, therefore, thought it right to communicate to the House of Commons that she is about to cause the reserve forces, and such proportion of the militia as might be deemed necessary, to be called out for permanent service." The War Office immediately issued orders in accordance with the message. It is expected that 25,000 men in all will be called out. Fifteen thousand troops are, it is said, to be sent to India. War preparations proceeded with the greatest activity at Woolwich, Aldershot, and Portsmouth.

The decision to call out the reserves was taken in view of Queen Victoria's intended departure for Aix-les-Bains on Tuesday, in order to be prepared for an emergency.

A special Cabinet Council was held at Windsor Castle on Thursday afternoon, by command of Queen Victoria. Important despatches from the British Minister to Russia and the Viceroy of India were received and discussed. The Council of India has been authorized to raise a credit of £1,500,000 on account of the Indian Treasury for war purposes. Earl Dufferin, the Viceroy of India, will give the Amir of Afghanistan the grant which he demands to pay the Afghan troops and allay the discontent of tribal leaders. The Amir promises to place 50,000 troops on the frontier and in the forts at Balkh, Panjdeh, and Herat.

The war excitement was increased on Friday by an announcement in the London *Globe* that a proposal partaking of the nature of an ultimatum was telegraphed by the Government to St. Petersburg on Thursday. It was requested at the same time that the Russian Government would send an answer that should reach Downing Street not later than Monday. The *News* (Liberal) denied this on Saturday.

The *Globe* also declared that Earl Granville on March 16 proposed to Russia that both the Russians and the Afghans should withdraw from that portion of territory which is at present the subject of dispute, and should remain outside of it during the continuance of negotiations between Russia and England, then in progress at London. To this proposal Russia sent no reply until Wednesday. She then refused to accede to England's proposition, on the ground that the withdrawal of her troops would be a source of humiliation to Russia. After this answer was received from Russia the Cabinet decided to embody the reserves and the militia, and to send the ultimatum already referred to. In the event of war, 25,000 militia will be assigned to garrison duty in Ireland, and that number of regulars will be released for active service.

Earl Granville said, in the House of Lords on Friday night, that the Afghans occupied Panjdeh before Sir Peter Lumsden had received instructions.

Lord Dufferin has arrived at Rawalpindi, and has been given an imposing reception by the Amir of Afghanistan. The London *Times* on Saturday asserted that the Russian Government had ordered 50,000 troops to be massed at Baku, on the Caspian Sea.

The reply of Russia to England on the Afghan question was received in London on Tuesday. It is understood that it contemplates an early meeting of the Boundary Commission. The positions of the troops are to remain unchanged. The Russians are now within eighteen miles of Panjdeh.

It was announced in the House of Commons on Monday by the Government that the outlook for a peaceful settlement of the Afghan question was very promising.

In the House of Commons on Thursday evening Mr. Gladstone said that England protested against the action of France in declaring rice a contraband of war.

In the House of Commons on Friday evening the Egyptian financial agreement was adopted by 294 to 246. The Parnellites voted against the Government.

General Graham moved the headquarters of the British camp about two miles nearer to Tamaai on Wednesday. A convoy of Indian troops went on Wednesday morning to General McNeill's zereba on the Tamaai road. It acted as escort for the balloon corps. Arrived at the zereba, the balloon corps immediately sent up a captive balloon. The observers descended with valuable information concerning the positions and movements of Osman Digna's men.

A convoy of the Grenadier Guards, under command of General Graham, accompanied the Shropshire, Surrey, and Sikhs (Indian) regiments on Thursday morning on their departure for Tamaai as far as General McNeill's zereba. The start was made at 7 o'clock. The zereba was reached with a loss of but three men, who were wounded in a fight on the way. A force of Arabs recklessly charged, but were repulsed with a loss of 100 killed. Twenty thousand men, under Osman Digna, are reported entrenched at Tamaai. It was rumored at Suakim on Saturday that Osman desired to surrender.

A despatch from Dongola states that hundreds of disaffected Arabs are flocking to the standard of El Santuisi (or El Makki), who has appeared as a prophet in rivalry of El Mahdi. It is said that he has occupied El Obeid.

The examination of Cunningham and Burton, the London dynamiters, having been finished, both men were on Friday afternoon formally committed for trial on a charge of treason-felony.

Oxford defeated Cambridge in the annual boat-race on the Thames, on Saturday, by three lengths; time twenty-one minutes, thirty-six seconds.

Hanlan, the Canadian oarsman, was, on Saturday, defeated by six lengths in a sculling match by William Beach, at Sidney, N. S. W. Beach had defeated him once before, on August 16, 1884.

Despatches from Moscow show that a commercial crisis exists in that city. Within the past thirty days five of the largest tea and sugar-importing firms have failed. Their liabilities aggregate more than $10,000,000.

Prince Nikolai Orloff, the Russian diplomatist, is dead at the age of fifty-eight. He was made Minister to France in 1872, and in 1875 President MacMahon conferred on him the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor.

A serious outbreak of a disease resembling cholera in the Province of Valencia, Spain, has caused a panic among the people.

Granada and Malaga, Spain, were on Monday visited by shocks of earthquake, which damaged many houses and injured many people in both places.

Considerable excitement has prevailed in Winnipeg and Canada throughout the week, owing to the rebellion of about 1,000 half-breeds under the leadership of Louis Riel (who headed the Red River outbreak) at Prince Albert, about 500 miles northwest of Winnipeg. There were rumors on Wednesday of fighting with the mounted police at Carlton. It was said that 15 of them had been killed and that the rebels had captured 40 white men. In the Canadian House of Commons on Friday night a telegram was read announcing that Major Crozier, in command of 100 men at Fort Carlton, had advanced that morning toward Duck Lake to secure a large quantity of supplies stored there. They were met by a body of Riel's rebels, who held a good position. The rebels fired first, and in time Major Crozier withdrew, having lost 10 civilians and 2 policemen killed, and 4 civilians and 7 constables wounded.

Troops at Montreal, Toronto, and Quebec were on Saturday ordered to hold themselves in instant readiness for service in the Northwest. The greatest excitement prevailed throughout Canada. There were rumors of another battle at Fort Carlton, and that eleven men had been killed.

Despatches were received at Winnipeg on Sunday that Colonel Irvine, with 260 police, evacuated Fort Carlton on March 27, and fell back upon Prince Albert. The fort has been burned.

News from Regina on Tuesday stated tha Riel is in a position successfully to resist a force double the strength of that now under General Middleton. Riel is getting assistance from American half-breeds. The belief that Fenian influences are at work in the Northwest is held in Canadian Government circles. On Tuesday the Indians and half-breeds captured and burned Battleford, west of Prince Albert.

Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and San Salvador have entered into a formal alliance to resist Barrios, who leads the forces of Guatemala and Honduras. President Zaldivar, of San Salvador, commands the triple allied forces, which will amount to about 20,000. Several skirmishes have already occurred between the forces of Honduras and San Salvador.

The steamer *Colon* was seized at Aspinwall on Monday, by the Colombian revolutionists, who demanded the delivery of a shipment of arms on board. Mr. Connor, local superintendent of the Pacific Mail Company, the captain and purser of the steamer were placed under arrest on board. Subsequently Captain Dow, general agent of the Pacific Mail Company, Mr. Wright, the United States Consul, and a lieutenant of the American man-of-war *Galena* were arrested. They were released at 6 o'clock on condition that the arms should be delivered. The Americans are indignant at the insult to the flag. The United States Navy Department on Tuesday ordered Commander Kane of the *Galena*, which is at Aspinwall, to afford all protection possible to Americans and their property at that place. The *Alliance* was ordered to proceed immediately thither.

THE PRESIDENT AS A SHEIKH.

When the "spoils system" was introduced into the Government of the United States, the population was about 13,000,000, there were about 8,450 post-offices, and the postal revenues amounted to $2,000,000, and it took a large part of a month to get from the Ohio or Tennessee to Washington. To-day the population is 55,000,000, the number of post-offices is 51,000, and the postal revenues $43,000,000 in round numbers, and it takes six days to reach Washington from the Pacific Coast. The business of every department of the Government, except the army, navy, and diplomatic service, has increased in much the same ratio as the post-offices. The number of offices to be filled is probably on the whole four times as great as in Jackson's days, and it is four times, at least, as easy for office-seekers to get to Washington from any part of the country, and fully ten times as easy to make written applications for places.

Nor is this all. When the act of 1820 was passed substituting a four years' term for tenure during good behavior in the case of officers having charge of public moneys, it was intended simply to insure that at the end of every four years the books of every such officer should be balanced and his accounts and vouchers filed. It was not intended that he should be removed at the end of the four years, as a matter of course, in order to give somebody else access to the public crib. This view of the intent of the law sprang up afterward, by a perfectly natural process, until it became a party custom to treat every office as vacant when the term for which the incumbent was appointed had expired, and finally it came to seem party treachery on the part of a President not to fill such vacancies with new men.

The effect of all this on the transaction of the public business we need hardly point out. The spectacle which is witnessed at Washington at the beginning of every administration would, but for use and wont, strike every business man in the country with amazement. The President is one of the most highly-paid public officers in the world. He is charged with weightier responsibilities than any public officer in the world except the British Premier. The Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General, too, have duties more serious and various than corresponding officials in any other country. The time of all three belongs, all day long, from the rising to the setting of the sun, to the people of the United States—that is, to a modern commercial nation, 55,000,000 strong, possessing a vast trade and industry, and carrying on an immense correspondence, and exposed, as all highly organized communities are, to serious injury at a thousand points from very slight agencies. It will seem a hundred years hence almost incredible, however, that the Chief Magistrate of this great modern nation, and his two principal Ministers, have in the earlier part of their official career to pass a large part of their day, just as the Arab Sheikhs and the earlier Caliphs used to pass it, in listening to individual complaints and petitions. That is to say, at the very time when all their faculties and all their moments are required to give them even an imperfect acquaintance with the vast machinery of administration in this great commercial state, they have to sit under a big tree every morning outside the city gate, listening to individual boastings or tales of sorrow or wrong, giving this man a robe of honor, and ordering that one to receive one hundred blows of a stick, hearing what the widow has to say against the knavish baker, and the blind man against the bazaar thief. There is, we venture to say, not one in one hundred of the people who take up the time of the President, or of the Secretary of the Treasury, or of the Interior, or the Postmaster-General, every morning, whose business with him is one whit more important to the community at large than that of those to whom an Emir in an Arab village listens every day. Nay, more than this, we believe, in a large number of cases, their business consists in efforts to get the national officers to do some injury to the public by removing somebody whose experience makes him valuable, or appointing somebody for whose fitness there is not one word to be said.

This abuse, though it is less grave under President Cleveland, owing to the working of the Civil-Service Law, than under some of his predecessors, has reached a point at which speedy change is inevitable. The notion that the few hundred people who go to Washington, and swarm into the White House and into the departments in working hours, to gratify their curiosity, or set forth their petty personal troubles and aspirations, have stronger claims on the time of public officers than the 54,800,000 taxpayers who stay at home and attend to their business, is one of the many delusions born of the spoils system. It has been nursed in no inconsiderable degree by the four years' term. The belief that the President can make vacancies of course breeds the desire to urge him to make them, and the four years' term, naturally enough, furnishes the excuse for making them.

But the abuse has now reached an excess, owing merely to the growth of the country, which must, paradoxical as it may seem, result in cure. It promises to break down by its own weight. As long as Presidents made it their business to yield to "pressure," it was natural enough that they should give up their time to listening to the people who pressed. But President Cleveland has set an example of not yielding to pressure. So far so good. The next step in reform is to give no time to the pressers, because the Presidential time belongs to the American public. It is for attending to their business that he receives $50,000 a year, and their business has reached such proportions that no man who charges himself with anything else can attend to it adequately. The chief support of the Sheikh system is that it is "democratic" in a public officer to be always ready to receive all comers. This may be democracy, but it is tribal democracy, the democracy of primitive and simple communities who assigned legislative, administrative, and judicial functions to the same officer. The business of large modern democracies has to be done through writing, and the place of the officer all day long is at his desk, and the only persons whom he is bound to see are those who have business which concerns the State. Private woes and aspirations should be attended to by courts of justice or charitable associations. Indeed, it is safe to say that nine-tenths of the business on which the President and the chief Secretaries just now pass their mornings in Washington is business for a police justice or a philanthropist, and not for a statesman. The President of the United States, receiving all comers in working hours, is as great an anachronism as Moltke would be heading a charge of Hadendowah Arabs, armed with a buckler and spear.

WORKINGMEN AND THE CHURCHES.

The line of severance between our American Protestant churches and the working classes has become sharply marked. It is not our purpose to discuss the causes which have brought about the fact that workingmen have little to do with organized Christianity. Explain it as one pleases, the general fact is as stated. Perhaps the best proof that it is so, the only proof we need adduce to justify our assumption of the fact, is seen in the admissions and attitude of the churches themselves. No topic is given a more prominent place in discussions of church congresses, in the editorials and contributed articles of religious newspapers, in plans for church support and church extension, than the question how to stay the growing alienation of wage-workers from the churches.

This fact, so general and so generally admitted, is often declared to be a serious element in the present state of the labor question. It is very common to hear it alleged that the growing restlessness and turbulence of the laboring classes are due to their increasing freedom from religious restraints. Appeals are often made to the selfishness of the large capitalists, in order to induce them to contribute to the support of a city mission, for instance, on the ground that Christianity will make the workingmen more contented. The pulpit frequently takes occasion to point its assertions of the dependence of social order and stability upon Christianity, by instancing the destructive tendencies of those Socialists who have lost faith in the Church and her creed. The common implication allowed to go unquestioned is, that if workingmen were only regular attendants at church, and would put themselves in contact with "the restraints and consolations of religion," the present strained relations of labor and capital would be very greatly eased if not entirely relieved.

Now, it seems to us unlikely that such a result would follow. By the "restraints" of religion are ordinarily meant the motives drawn from the fear of future punishment, or from the desire of future bliss. But the truth is, that these motives are urged from the modern pulpit only with extreme rarity and reserve. There has been a great change of emphasis in preaching since Edwards. It is true that there are still heard perfunctory appeals in the old style from those who exhibit in the pulpit simply the acquired momentum of a past age; but as a general thing the stress of instruction and urgency is very differently placed. The exhortation no longer is, Restrain passion and limit indulgence and shun lawlessness, or you

will be everlastingly damned in the world to come; but rather, Do these things, or you will waste and wreck this life. Conduct is put in the light of a present social duty. It is the day of the gospel of the "secular life." All this seems to us a great gain. It tends to make church teaching a much more practical and vital thing. Yet it tends just as surely to make the gain which, it is supposed, would result if workingmen were regular church-goers, extremely problematical. There might be a "restraint" in their being told, if they believed it, that unless they were patient and submissive here they would never attain eternal happiness; but when preaching is so largely made a matter of the present life, there does not seem to be a strong likelihood that it would make them more contented with their lot, while they felt it to be one of hardship or injustice.

So, too, would it prove, we fear, with the hopes of the influence upon the working classes, if they could be brought into the churches, of the "consolations" of Christianity. By this term is meant the comfort, and help, and resignation which the Gospel is supposed to yield to those who are in affliction or in circumstances of trial or suffering. It is maintained that church-going workingmen would be more contented, under the influence of these "consolations," in times of labor depression and agitation. Now, we have nothing to say against the assuagements of grief which Christians undoubtedly find in their religion; but we may be permitted to observe that, so far as it is a question of contentment with a lot of poverty, it is a pious fiction to say that such contentment is the general characteristic of Christians. The great mass of American Protestants are found in the middle and wealthy classes. Workingmen do not see in them a placid satisfaction with straitened circumstances, but, rather, fully as much desire and striving for the good things of life as the man of the world exhibits. It is singularly opposed to the tendencies of human nature to suppose that a workingman who has to fight for a bare existence, would be made meekly content if he were only in the habit of sitting in the gallery of a church, once or twice a week, and looking down upon a collection of the prosperous and wealthy. There is something about this which irresistibly reminds one of the French Convention condescendingly "decreeing" the immortality of the soul, "ce principe consolateur."

Turning to the other side, and looking at the attitude of Socialism toward Christianity, we discover two positions taken, diametrically opposed to each other. The Extreme Left passionately denounces all religion which "advises the poor," to quote a specimen sentence, "to submit without murmuring to injustice, insult, oppression, degradation, and even death, on the transparent fraud that full compensation will be made in the land of the hereafter." Henry George and his followers, however, are at the other extreme, and present the surprising spectacle of an appeal from Christians to Christianity—of an agitation which professes to be not alone in the interests of justice, but also in the interests and in the spirit of Christianity. We have no thought to rule out the church as an element in the great and complex question of labor and capital. Doubtless it has its place there. But we are very much disposed to doubt the efficacy of mere church-going as a solution of the labor problem.

COLLEGE GRADUATES IN GERMANY.

A YEAR or two ago Prof. Conrad, of Halle, one of the most sensible of the learned men of Germany, published an investigation of the attendance of students at the German universities during the last half century. The enormous increase in this attendance had already been the object of attention, and even of anxiety, among the Germans; and Professor Conrad laid before them the exact facts. He showed that while in the period 1861-66 there had been only about thirty-four university students for every 100,000 inhabitants, there were in 1883 as many as fifty-two and a half students for every 100,000 inhabitants, the increase being particularly noticeable in the "philosophical" branches—that is, in what we should call the non-professional studies, such as the languages, history, natural science. He pointed out that in these liberal branches the supply of highly trained and educated men, who had made a profession of study, teaching, and writing, went greatly beyond the demand. On the other hand, in branches like medicine and Protestant theology, the supply of trained men, if excessive at all, was by no means so much in excess of the demand. Of Catholic theological students the supply did not even meet the demand.

Since the publication of the volume containing these investigations two university semesters have gone by; and now there are published in the *Jahrbücher für National-Oekonomie* (which are edited by Professor Conrad), a series of tables on the same subject. The tables are printed without comment, but the facts brought out in them are very curious when taken in connection with the previous investigation. The whole number of university students shows an increase since the winter of 1883-84; it goes up from 25,478 at that time, to 26,494 in the present winter semester (1884-85). But in those departments of which Professor Conrad had said that they had too many students, we find a decrease in the attendance, whereas there is an increase in those branches in which he had noted an insufficient, or at least a not excessive supply. The theological students, both Protestant and Catholic, show an increase. Of the former he had said that there were not too many, of the latter that there were not enough. The medical faculty has a larger attendance than that of two semesters ago; here again the previous investigation had shown that the universities were not as yet turning out more doctors than there was room for in the country. On the other hand, the law students are actually less in number, being 4,914 now, in place of 4,946; while in the class of philosophical students there is a still more marked decrease—from 9,529 to 9,259. Of both the last mentioned (the law and the philosophical students) Professor Conrad had said there were altogether more of them than the demand for their services warranted. Now, of course, it may be a mere accident that these two things go together—that the branches in which there were said to be not too many students, now show a larger attendance, while those concerning which a note of warning was sounded, show a falling off. But the coincidence is certainly very remarkable. Professor Conrad's book attracted a good deal of attention when it was published, more particularly among the university men whom it specially concerned; and it does not seem rash to infer some connection of cause and effect between his warnings and the shifting in the choice of studies which has taken place since he published them.

The most striking fact brought out by the general tables is the enormous increase in the number of what we should call non-professional students. The total number of university students has about doubled in the last fifty years; but the number of philosophical students has nearly quadrupled in the same time. It may be an indication of the drift of the time that, on the other hand, the number of Protestant theologians shows only a slight increase, and that of Catholic theologians an absolute decrease. As regards the philosophical students, the impetus to the study of natural science is one great cause of the larger number of devotees. But in other branches of those liberal studies which are lumped together as "philosophical," *e. g.*, in history and philology, there is still a disproportionate increase. One great cause of this is to be found, as Professor Conrad has pointed out, in the social conditions of Germany. The career of the scholar and professor enjoys high social consideration. A man who has written learned books and has added a crumb to the stock of the world's knowledge, can hold up his head with the bureaucracy and aristocracy. The merchants and manufacturers, the men whom we call business men, are rather looked down on, unless they succeed in making very large fortunes; for even in Germany money paves the way to social position, if there be only enough of it. In general, however, a "business" means a comparatively low place in the hierarchy of polite society. Now, there is probably nothing which exercises a stronger influence on the choice of a career than the social consideration which it brings. In Germany there has been enormous pressure and competition in the occupations which have the stamp of public esteem—the profession of the scholar, and the Government service, whether in administration or in the military. The consequence is, that in both these occupations a degree of perfection has been achieved that astonishes the world. In this country, on the other hand, success in business is a ready, if not the readiest, means to social success, and our greatest achievements have been in the line of industrial and commercial ventures. The Germans are now complaining that trade and industry have been too much looked down on by them, while we might readily complain that they have been too much looked up to by us. It is not unlikely that public consideration in the two countries will shift in opposite directions, and will eventually bring about in both a less arbitrary and irrational scale of social distinction. The stir about Professor Conrad's book is one of the signs that the overcrowding of the scholarly profession in Germany is being followed by a natural reaction; and certainly with us, on the other hand, the partiality to business and money-making as the

most brilliant of careers is less strong than it was a generation ago, and shows a steady abatement as time goes on.

BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY.

LONDON, March 19, 1885.

THE irony of fate has seldom been displayed on a more conspicuous scale than in the history of the Gladstone Cabinet during the last five years. They came into power on the express understanding that domestic legislation and social reform were to be the main aims of their policy; that in foreign affairs they were to reverse the unquiet and aggressive tendencies of their predecessors, to promote peace and harmony all over the world, to limit in all possible ways the liabilities and responsibilities of Britain. Nor were these the mere pretences of partisans anxious to displace their antagonists. No fair-minded man can doubt that Mr. Gladstone and his lieutenants were as sincere in setting these objects before them as were the crowds who cheered the admirable moral doctrines which he expounded with so much earnestness on so many occasions. What has been the issue? Only two measures of first-rate domestic importance have been passed during these five years—the Irish Land Bill of 1881 and the Parliamentary Reform Bill of this present session, which, important as its results will be, is certainly not a measure of social reform. All the other great domestic topics discussed in the electoral campaign of 1880 remain untouched, and the time of Parliament has been almost wholly occupied either by Irish troubles, Coercion Acts and Crimes Acts, or by discussions on foreign affairs. And how has it fared with foreign affairs? An enormous addition has been made to the liabilities of England by the occupation of Egypt and the expedition to the Sudan. Large annexations of territory have been made in Africa and the Eastern Archipelago. Fighting has gone on in South Africa. Three campaigns have been conducted in Northeastern Africa—that of Tell el-Kebir in 1882, that near Suakim in 1884, and a third still unfinished in the present year. A grave dispute has arisen with Russia regarding Afghanistan, and at this moment peace is preserved on the frontier north of Herat with the utmost difficulty.

Pretty well, the Tories say, for the most cautious and pacific of Governments! They find an easy explanation in the incompetence of the Ministry, which has never (according to their view) foreseen and therefore never been able to avert coming troubles, and in its willingness to abandon pledges and principles for the sake of retaining office. Observers in other countries will of course look for some deeper-lying causes, and will also ask, as many persons in England ask, why it is that England seems to find foreign policy so difficult, and succeed so ill with it. During the great war with Napoleon we gained immense credit, even under Ministers vastly inferior to Pitt, for the vigor and consistency we displayed. This reputation was on the whole maintained during the decades which followed; and unpopular as Palmerston became on the Continent, no one could in his days affect to laugh at England, or accuse her of weakness or unwisdom. Have our statesmen declined since his time? or has the bold spirit of the people been exchanged for lethargy and cowardice? The French and German newspapers, whose occupation has of late years been to rail at England, tell us so. They paint us as at once grasping and timid. We are selfish, keenly alive to our smallest commercial interest, meanly anxious to keep competitors at a distance, insensible to large views of progress and civilization, using Christianity and humanity as a mere cloak to our greed. At the same time we are short-sighted and timorous, without the courage to make good our pretensions by force of arms, unwilling to undergo the sacrifices necessary for securing an imperial position. We have retained all the ambition of the days of Lord Chatham and his son, without the energy and self-confidence which alone dignified and seemed to justify that ambition. Thus our power is vanishing, and Europe need no longer trouble itself about us, for no threats we may make will be carried into effect. That this picture is untrue appears not only from its self-contradictions, but from the extent to which Europe still occupies itself with England. Were we really insignificant we should not be so closely watched nor so passionately abused. But in any case, confident that we know ourselves better than the French or Germans do, and feeling that neither the level of capacity in our statesmen nor the courage of the nation has declined, we need some other explanation of the failures and humiliations which we have had frequently to experience of late years in our foreign relations. I will endeavor to suggest one.

England is in a period of transition. Eighty years ago the middle classes and the multitude left foreign affairs entirely to the Crown and its advisers. The upper class, or rather that small section of the upper class which practically ruled, influenced the Crown and the Ministry; the mass of the people did not. Hence British foreign policy, whether wise or unwise, had in general the merits of vigor and consistency. The Executive commanded the whole force of a wealthy and martial nation. It adhered steadily, whether Whigs or Tories were in power, to a few cardinal doctrines, and its attitude scarcely changed with changes of ministry, because the class to which it belonged, and by which it was controlled, was little divided in opinion upon these matters. But since 1832 the middle classes, and since 1867 the poorer classes also, have obtained their share of power. They are supreme in all such domestic questions as are large enough to excite them. They have, through a reformed Parliament, the means of guiding and checking the Executive upon all questions, foreign policy included. Hitherto their views on foreign policy have been vague and crude, because their interest in it has been slight and their knowledge still slighter. They have usually left the Executive to itself, interfering only when their moral sentiment was roused, as it was by Mr. Gladstone against Lord Beaconsfield's pro-Turkish action in the years 1876 to 1878. But the fact that they are all-powerful and may at any time strike in, has distracted and weakened the Executive. It has no longer to look to a small class with which it is in social sympathy; it has to attempt to discover and obey the opinions of a multitude which has no opinions, but may suddenly develop them. To be sure, there is the House of Commons, consisting of better informed men, from whom some guidance might be expected. But the ordinary member of the House of Commons has little independent judgment on foreign affairs. He is far more disposed to follow than to guide, and throws back the responsibility on the Executive. Thus the Executive falls between two stools. It dare not act on its own judgment and that of the small ruling class which is chiefly interested in foreign policy, because the multitude has to be reckoned with. It cannot follow the lead of public opinion, as it would do in domestic questions, because upon foreign policy public opinion does not exist, or exists only in the form of a very few tendencies and veins of feeling too vague to give guidance in most of the emergencies which arise. Hence the uneasiness and timidity which beset our Government, and which marked Lord Beaconsfield's quite as much as they have done the present Cabinet.

That democracies were not made for foreign policy, or foreign policy for democracies, is a conclusion which many here feel themselves driven to. It is at any rate true that till we carry the democratic principle further, applying it to foreign as we have done to domestic affairs, and take no action abroad till we have secured the approval of the country to it, our present perplexities are likely to continue. They appear even in the constitutional machinery by which this part of the Administration is dealt with. Foreign affairs are still in theory the province of the Crown, and of the Crown only; the right of declaring war and making treaties is in point of law as much a part of the royal prerogative now as it was under Elizabeth. Unless where a money grant is needed, the approval of Parliament is not asked till after the decisive steps have been taken; and as negotiations must usually be conducted secretly, it is hard to arrange otherwise. Hence, Parliament is not consulted till the thing is done, and the Executive is obliged to guess how much support Parliament, and the country which Parliament obeys, will be disposed to give to its acts.

There is, it may be suggested, one way out of the difficulty. The Executive may, instead of waiting on the opinion of the country, undertake to form and lead that opinion; they may instruct the people, lay the problems of foreign policy fully before them, and then assume the responsibility of acting on their own views. It is certainly to be wished that more was done in this direction, for, ignorant as the English masses are about whatever lies outside their own islands, they are both teachable and loyal, ready to give ungrudging confidence to leaders whom they have learned to respect.

But here another trouble appears. The ruling class is larger than it used to be, and far less homogeneous, and its opinion is much more divided on principles of foreign policy than was formerly the case. That bold, unhesitating, slightly unscrupulous selfishness which used to guide England as it still guides most of the great states of Europe, has been qualified, and in many minds superseded, by sentiments of international justice, of humanitarianism, of an aversion to war and annexation so strong as to counsel the abandonment of much that we hold lest it should involve the acquisition of more. Views are much divided even as to the extent to which we are bound by existing treaty engagements, when those engagements might require a resort to arms for no plainly defensive purpose. While the bulk of the aristocracy and those who belong to the military and naval services talk and indeed exaggerate the haughty language of Nelson's and Wellington's days, many of those who aspire to lead the working class preach non-intervention, oppose an increase of armaments, and inculcate conduct which would soon bring the British Empire to an end. We have the principles of Julius Cæsar and the principles of the Sermon on the Mount commended to us with equal warmth, and the nation hangs uncertain between them. These differences reappear even in the Cabinet, where, if rumor speaks truly, there have repeatedly been dissensions which only Mr. Gladstone's unequalled personal authority sufficed to allay. Hence ministries do less than they ought to instruct the people and give them a lead in foreign troubles. Themselves distracted and hesitating, they catch on indications of public opinion, and tend to prefer a middle to a decided course, because they thus postpone the necessity for a final decision, and give themselves a better chance of keeping step with the impulses of the masses. The less responsible Opposition is in this respect no better than the responsible Government. It is equally anxious to follow rather

than to lead the nation, and even less disposed to indicate positive views of policy. Though naturally more inclined to warlike and aggressive courses than is the Liberal party, it fears to commit itself to the advocacy of any particular war or aggression, lest the multitude should turn out to be on the other side. And thus the nation loses that light and leading which it has a right to expect from its foremost men, and without which no Democracy can prosper.

It is not surprising that under these conditions we should meet with rebuffs, and find our relations with other Powers occasionally strained. Consistent boldness or consistent non-interventionism would either of them give us a better chance than an alternation of the two. That things have not gone more against us has been owing partly to the great strength which the nation can put forth, and which makes foreign states shy of quarrelling with us; partly to the good sense of the people, who are on the whole disposed to support the Executive because it is the Executive, even when not satisfied of its wisdom in the particular case. The circumstances of our present dispute with Russia illustrate this disposition. There is a general notion that the Ministry have not shown skill in their management of the Afghan and Central Asian question. There is some doubt whether the particular point now at issue is really worth fighting about. But public opinion holds that the Government must be trusted in a matter of which it knows the ins and outs, and that as Mr. Gladstone is known to be a peace-lover and has always been rather friendly than hostile to Russia, any cause which induces him to take up arms is likely to be a sufficient cause. Much as the masses of the people dislike war and the taxation it involves, hardly a voice has been hitherto raised to urge any concession on the Government, because it is felt that the national honor is involved. Considering how near we may have been to a breach, or may be still, although the wisest heads think the cloud is passing off for the present, it is surprising how little the pulse of the country has been quickened. Were England once embarked in a struggle, she would go through with it with as much constancy as in the beginning of the century. But considering how many risks she runs of being involved with civilized as well as barbarous foes or rivals in different parts of the world, it is impossible not to feel anxious at the growing difficulties of maintaining a firm and steady attitude in foreign affairs, and of adapting to their management the ancient and almost obsolete forms of our monarchical constitution. Y.

TWO NOTABLE PICTURES.

London, March 7, 1885.

The exhibition of Holman Hunt's great painting, "The Triumph of the Innocents," was opened to the public on Monday, the 2d of March. The general expectation about this picture, of which for several years we have been hearing so much, was very great, so that the room of the Fine Art Society in Bond Street in which it is shown is constantly thronged this week with visitors. The room is arranged with graduated benches, like a theatre, and the darkness secured by heavy dark draperies makes the light falling on the picture, and the picture itself, extremely brilliant. It is an understood thing that a work of Holman Hunt's cannot be seen in a hurry, and that any expressions of surprise or any remarks on the work will keep till one is outside the room; so the spectators grope their way into the first vacant seat, and gaze in awe-struck silence. The picture, the prevailing tone of which is bright blue-green, is placed on a rich background of mulberry-colored plush, which is draped behind the frame. We see a wide extent of cold wind-blown landscape, finely rendered, lighted by the moon. The Virgin, seated on an ass of the Mecca race, followed by its foal, is in the act of dressing the divine Child. She has passed his arm through one sleeve, while the Child is stretching backward and calling her attention to the holy throng of martyred children supposed to be invisible to all but his eyes. St. Joseph, with all the implements of the carpenter in a satchel on his back, is leading the ass by a rope, which he is pulling vigorously, and looking back into the landscape, fearing pursuers. They are passing over a stream, having stepping-stones, by which a tangle of Eastern cactus-like plants is growing. The travellers form the central and important group of the composition. Joseph and Mary, being clad in sombre Eastern garments, come dark against the landscape. Mary's head-dress alone is white, and some silver ornaments round her forehead catch the green light of the moonbeams. From the left corner above the Virgin and Child commences the garland of Innocents. The first group of three are just awakening to the new life: one seems stretching himself after sleep; his two companions are still asleep. One little darling sad-faced baby is hugging a dead bird as he floats along through the air above the central group, with his head resting on the shoulder of a third. Their crowns or halos are still unformed, and we see them shaping themselves in light above them. Below, from the left corner, round the ass and foal, begins a string of dancing glorified Innocents, which continues below the central group and leads out of the picture. Some seven of them are holding hands, and seem to be keeping watch round the travellers, whom they are protecting. They are garlanded and crowned with flowers, and some of them bear branches of pomegranate and almond blossom. One little child is examining a cut through its garment, in surprise that no wound shows where the death-blow fell. The foremost leads the way in priestly attitude, bearing incense in a silver cup which he holds aloft; his vestment is red and very beautiful. The brook is strewn with flowers which the children have scattered; and immense globules or bubbles, one representing as in a crystal ball the millennium,* dance along with the children.

The string of Innocents and the globules of the brook are supposed to be lighted with a celestial glowing light, in strong opposition to the rest of the picture; and this double system of coloring, treated, as Holman Hunt does everything, in a very realistic manner, brings about a garishness and inharmonious effect which are very painful. Some of the children have light bits of drapery of brightest tint; one little cap of intensest blue is prominent. The colors about them are magenta reds and pink, and the garlands of flowers, which ought to be so telling, are indicated in coarse touches of most vivid vermilion, yellow, blue, and red. The draperies are unfortunately very hard, and as if they had been melted upon the forms in metal. The children are beautifully drawn and most exquisitely composed; as to grouping and line and pathos, nothing could be more lovely. They recall the Donatello dancing group, because the action is somewhat similar. The flesh has the usual opalescent quality of Holman Hunt's flesh; the modelling is often too thoroughly insisted on; the shadows are unfortunately black. As to the types chosen, there is great variety: Syrian, street Arab, and blue-eyed English babies are holding hands together in this triumphant dance. The child Christ is beautiful. His action as he leans in delight toward the children is very fine. The Virgin is the least agreeable of all the figures. She is Eastern but very common-looking, thin and plain, and not young enough. The lazy smile and fatuous expression with which she contemplates her good fortune in having saved her son, do not at all come up to the artist's intention as he explains it in the little book which earnest admirers buy at the door, for the modest sum of sixpence, in order to understand the symbolism of the work.

We find quoted also, in this pamphlet, Professor Ruskin's laudatory remarks from the 'Art of England,' and a history of the troubles which Mr. Holman Hunt went through in the making of this work, painted firstly in the East on a linen which would not stand, and finally repainted here since 1882. We hear that £40,000 is the price the picture ought to realize; £20,000 has been offered and refused at an early stage. Those who understand these things assure me that, with the exhibition and the engraving, the price desired will be certainly attained. It is a matter of regret to true lovers of art that so much exquisite intention and such earnest study of the subject should be marred by overwork and hardness, and by a pervading dissonance in the color.

Múnkacsy's "Calvary" is now here, exhibited at Egyptian Hall with all the paraphernalia and solemnity which picture-dealers delight in—a darkened room reached through obscure passages; seats arranged; explanations printed on fans; and a wide, roped-off distance, so that no one shall get near the picture. This immense canvas is intended for a companion of the "Christ before Pilate," which excited so much attention three years ago. The qualities of Múnkacsy's work are exactly those which appeal to the general public—strong and realistic painting without any subtleties or refinements to puzzle the beholder; the drawing firm and correct; the dark and light effectively distributed; the *tout ensemble* exactly giving the effect of a tableau at the theatre. In "Calvary" Múnkacsy depicts the moment when, after having crucified Christ and the two malefactors, the spectators and perpetrators of the deed are turning to come away down the hill. The cry of the dying Christ, "It is finished," arrests many in their downward course: they turn and look at him with different expressions of terror, hatred, or fear. The crosses are placed at the summit of a hill; rocky ledges of gray stone slope downward to the left. Christ and the thieves are on the extreme right. The Virgin, in black robes, her head swathed in white, kneels in an agony of grief at the foot of the cross, embracing her son's feet. The Magdalen, in blue, with loose red hair, kneels beside her, hiding her face with her hands. St. John, in a deep-red garment, looks compassionately on the kneeling mother as he stands to the right of the cross. A centurion, admirably painted, sits in the extreme foreground to balance the composition, as the crowd is rushing toward the left corner downward from the cross. The background is formed by a hedge of centurions, very black against a murky sky, composed of yards of dirty blue and black and gray color. The composition is emphasized by the distribution of whites leading the eye to the Christ, whose white body-cloth is the highest note below the Virgin's white coif; and at the extreme left a Rabbi, in splendid white, warmly-toned vestments, on a white charger, is the lowest white note, from which our eye naturally reverts to the Saviour. The models are well-known Jewish types of the lowest order, recalling the Ghetto of Amsterdam or, in some of the more refined heads, the Paris Bourse. The

* To quote the descriptive pamphlet: "The stream is portrayed as ever rolling onward and breaking—where it might if real water be dissipated in vapor—into magnified globes which image the thoughts rife in that age in the minds of pious Jews, particularly of those in great tribulation, of the millennium which was to be the mature outcome of the advent of the Messiah."

executioner is one of the most degraded figures I have ever seen; the thieves also. The crowd of spectators rushing downhill are real and individual in movement and in face. The Rabbis discussing are very vivid figures throughout. Light against dark and dark against light is the system observed; but the want of beauty, the want of feeling, the theatrical effect, and the absence of any distinction of type or spirituality in the Christ, makes it very evident that this is not a subject to be approached by our nineteenth-century painters, however skilful they may be. As to the technique, I should judge it to be rather coarse, but the rope kept me at a respectful distance, and the attendant presented me with a pamphlet declaring this to be the finest picture of our century.

THE RÉMUSATS.

PARIS, March 12, 1885.

THE correspondence of Mme. de Rémusat has reached its fourth volume. Some families destroy all their letters; it is very fortunate that the Rémusats are not of the number. In our time of telegrams and railways, there are, I suppose, very few people who cultivate the art of letter-writing. We live too fast, we have too much to devour and to digest, we have no leisure, we are the slaves of society. Few among us have a small number of chosen people to whom we confide, year after year, day after day, our inmost thoughts; before whom we can, so to speak, think aloud. Mme. de Rémusat was, in that respect, as fortunate as Mme. de Sévigné; she was even more fortunate, for her son Charles de Rémusat was a young man of extraordinary intelligence, open to all ideas, full of wit, who took an extreme interest in all the affairs of his time, political as well as literary. Mme. de Grignan was herself a good correspondent, and her letters are sometimes charming; but she was, in many senses, inferior to Charles de Rémusat. The letters of M. de Rémusat and his mother make a sort of perpetual dialogue; and in this dialogue we must give the first place to the mother: her letters are decidedly the best. He is a little too paradoxical, he runs too much after wit; she is perfectly natural, and she has the precious faculty of saying good, sensible things with a degree of charm, with an elegance, a simplicity, which gives them their full value. Her style is like her mind—it is what we call in France very *coulant:* it runs, like a clear and gay brook, without any noise; it leaves an impression of ease and pleasure. The style of Charles, her son, is a little too much *travaillé;* he is a little more personal, and cannot forget himself.

It is to me, I confess, delightful to see Mme. de Rémusat read her classics as we read the latest magazines: "Your father is well; he reads aloud the comedies of Molière, which charm us, or the 'Lutrin' [of Boileau], or the fables of La Fontaine, or the *Contes* of Voltaire." She was then a *préfète* at Lille (in 1818). "Do read again 'George Dandin'; your father reads admirably. . . . Why should you not play it next year with Mme. Molé? I should be delighted to play the part of *Mme. de Sottenville.* But why should you not also play 'L'École des Femmes,' with the 'Critique' as a small piece, which is charming? Well, I dote just now upon Molière, and I find a hundred occasions to cite him, to the ministers, to everybody, and even to myself, in default of something better." Mme. de Rémusat was somewhat alarmed by the extraordinary interest her son took in the politics of the day. Not that she was indifferent herself, but she did not wish him to lose himself entirely in the small parliamentary and journalistic gossip. He had a curious and somewhat pedantic way of referring every possible subject to his political preoccupations. In order to counteract this tendency she always brought him back to literature. Is not this very good advice?

"You must sometimes give your mind and your heart to something different from politics; rest them both by studies of another kind. Purify your imagination with letters, which I believe more and more to be useful to mankind. They transport us into an ideal world, which contrasts with ours; they soften the bitterness which contradiction necessarily creates. If I may be allowed to use a trivial comparison, it seems to me that they give a new coat of paint to the mind fatigued by political discussions; and when you are refreshed and purified by them, you will see that you will return to business better disposed to judge of things than those who have not ceased to look at them minutely day after day. I assure you that the reasonable and fixed opinions which you see me hold are due in part to the fact that I only think momentarily of what is going on. It is quite possible that I owe to Rousseau, to Fénelon, to Molière, with whom I spend my evenings, the lucidity which allows me to pass an impartial judgment on the papers which I read in the morning."

Her son's answer to this excellent advice is characteristic. He maintains that politics has devoured everything; that to be political is merely to consider human nature in all its aspects. "Politics," says he, "is now the only source from which serious men can take their meditations, fanatical men their enthusiasm, gay men their epigrams." He finds it very pleasant, very amusing. For instance, is he not pleasant, this M. Tollivet, who the other day, when he ascended the tribune in order to speak to the ministerial proposition, felt somebody seize him by the arm and say, "What are you going to do? why speak for the Ministers? your six children are well placed"; and who answered, "Yes, but I am expecting another."

Rémusat was still very young, though his letters are often a little pedantic. He discussed the character of Louis XIV. with his mother, compared Fénelon's political views in the 'Télémaque' with Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois.' His mother once tells him, "Do you know that if I keep your letters and if you keep mine, and if by chance a third person ever puts his nose into our correspondence, this third person will perhaps find us a little heavy?" No, she is never heavy; her dissertations, even when they are a little didactic, have an extraordinary grace. And he is very modern: he jumps out of old times constantly into his own time, sometimes turning a somersault.

The Memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay appeared in 1818; they were particularly interesting to the Rémusats, as Mme. d'Épinay was, by alliance, sister-in-law of Mme. de Labriche, the aunt of Mme. de Vintimille; and in these memoirs there is a perpetual mention of Mme. d'Houdetot, grandmother of Mesdames Germain, de Barante, and de Bazancourt. The Memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay are a singularly candid description of the state of society at the end of the eighteenth century. The two parties which existed in 1818, the Liberals and the Ultras, fought much over it. Mme. de Rémusat was peculiarly struck by the details concerning Rousseau:

"Oh, my son, what curious people these philosophers were! what exalted brains! what violence! what activity of pride! what strong emotions about nothing! Their system was a fanaticism like any other. There is a funny word of Voltaire to all these sectarians: 'Love each other,' said he, 'for who would love you?' My friend, I make my excuses to the last century, but I continue to prefer Racine, Pascal, Nicole, Boileau, Molière, etc. Do you know what these people of the eighteenth century were in want of? Of *pudor.* Even their morality was tainted with egotism. Oh, believe me, the morality of Christianity, which recommends so much diffidence, knew well the weakness of humanity."

Charles de Rémusat agrees only partly with his mother; if he did completely, he could not write a clever letter in answer to her. In his view, the Memoirs of Mme. d'Épinay explain the French Revolution: "In a country where nothing was respected or respectable in the institutions, the new ideas, in order to spread, needed only the weapons of pleasantry and frivolity. But they denaturalized themselves; they became the weapons of malice. From the good company they descended into the ranks of the bad company. Among the people they took on the character of a passionate prejudice. What happened when the system broke up? The bad company, and what approached it, was timid, blind or frivolous. The philosophers, who had never been anything but writers, and who had thought themselves dispensed from forming their characters, were not stronger than the rest. The people were violent, and soon ferocious. You know the rest." Speaking then of the violence and the follies of the Ultramontane party, he says that the arms of combat must be changed at times: "As is the attack, must be the defence; and, as I would borrow the ideas of Pascal to defend religion against an impious writer, I would borrow sarcasms from Diderot to fight Chateaubriand." Mme. de Rémusat saw further than her son. The philosophers had employed the weapon of irony and pleasantry, not only because it was the weapon of the time, but because it strikes hard, even when it does not strike justly. She compares their attempt to the fable of the Titans, or to the idea of the Tower of Babel. "Man is a feeble creature thrown in this universe by I know not what mysterious will, the secret of which he can never know. . . . The scepticism of the philosophers confounded everything; they attacked God himself, and finally their attempts against the immensity of the Creator of all things magnified them in their own eyes, and they looked upon all things with a domineering contempt."

The affection of Mme. de Rémusat had its weaknesses; she shows in her correspondence a little too much inquietude with regard to her son's relations with his patrons and protectors in Paris. Charles, whether from shyness or from pride, or from an innate tendency to ingratitude, did not manifest toward M. Molé, who had procured him a place, and who could do much for him as well as for his parents, the sentiments which his mother would have desired him to manifest. She becomes at times very nervous, too nervous on the subject; she is alarmed when her son tells her that his conversations with M. Molé, when he meets him, are generally reduced to the single phrase: "How do you do?" She is afraid that M. Molé will lose his interest in a young man so little demonstrative, so reticent. She is even afraid that this coldness may hurt the position of her husband, who was prefect at Lille. These fears were vain; men of a certain age do not expect much from young men of twenty. I notice this nervousness as showing a little weakness of character, and too much humility of a certain sort in an otherwise high-minded person. I think I see a trace of it also in her sentiments toward Napoleon. She thinks it necessary to write to her son: "I have only wished the fall of the author of my fortune because his oppression humiliated my soul." She certainly had not been well treated by Napoleon; she had been very useful in the difficult days of the Consulate, and Napoleon had thrown her in the background during the brilliant days of the Empire. But a noble soul ought not to dwell on these comparisons, and must console itself with higher thoughts. The debt which Napoleon had not paid was paid by the Bourbons, and the Bourbons could have done nothing for Mme. de Rémusat if Napoleon had been too generous to her.

As a wife, as a mother, Mme. de Rémusat was

admirable. During a visit which she makes to Paris she speaks of her Charles to everybody—to M. Molé, to Talleyrand, to M. de Barante; she sees a hundred people, but she sees him only. "Ah! my dear friend," she writes to her husband, "under what a different aspect the world appears to us when we only look on it through a son and for a son. Last evening I saw my sister, young and pretty, surrounded with flattery, other young women busy with the noise made about themselves, and I was out of it all—indifferent to whatever was not Charles, looking only at him, speaking only of him, following him with my eyes, hearing his words, trying to understand all his motives, intent only on him, as if there were no life left to me but his life. And it is partly true, for my own life is really a poor little thing. Ah! the best of children does not know what he is to his mother."

This volume of correspondence is full of such charming passages. The literary judgments are always marked by the best sense and the most refined taste; there is in the style a certain ideality, an instinctive abhorrence of adjectives and adverbs, a certain sort of well-bred precision, which makes one think constantly of those great writers of the seventeenth century who were the favorites of Mme. de Rémusat.

Correspondence.

A FORTIORI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If I have made a mistake, I am quite ready to apologize. In the passage to which "C. W. E." objects, I intended to refer to Mr. Randall, but inadvertently confounded his last with his former position. Excepting, however, for the possible injustice to Mr. Carlisle, the argument remains the same—that there is somebody in Congress, whether the Speaker or the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, who has the power of manipulating the public finances to suit his own purposes, without any public or effective responsibility for his action. Indeed, the argument will cover both cases. As I understand it, the Speaker appoints the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations at his absolute discretion, limited only by his sense of political obligation. If he, whatever his nominee may do, is to be freed from blame by an appeal to the "rules of the House," if he is presumed to have cleared his reputation by "indicating in his valedictory address annoyance at the course of business in the House," then I say this is just what constitutes the objection to the present position of the Speaker and the whole course of business—namely, great power with little or no responsibility. Consider what a dangerous conclusion it is, that the Speaker elected to office by a party vote, and distributing important positions on committees among his supporters, should then be held free from responsibility for their conduct.

The rules of the House, again, are an elaborate network, devised, with the wonderful organizing power of our people, for getting some sort of order out of what would otherwise be perfect chaos. They cover endless possibilities of iniquity, yet they cannot be touched because nobody is responsible for them, nobody knows what to substitute for them, and without them business could not get on at all. One principal advantage of introducing, say, the Secretary of the Treasury to the floor of the House, would be that even before coming to the real business of the country, we should get a starting-point for the reform of methods. If a member now ventures to question the propriety of any of the rules, he finds himself "sat upon" by a majority which he cannot touch or question. The Secretary could not be silenced in that way. The House would not dare to suppress questions addressed to him by individual members, and still less the answer which the country would be awaiting; and little by little the light would penetrate those corners where deeds of darkness find congenial cover, and publicity and individual responsibility would gradually replace the present lamentable defect of those qualities. Nor would the Secretary in any way encroach on the right of the House to determine its own procedure, as his answers would turn merely upon the effect of this procedure upon administration, and no change could be made without the deliberate concurrence of the House. It is leadership which is wanting to replace the scattered and irresponsible authority of Speaker and committees. G. B.

Boston, March 30, 1885.

ASSOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The anonymous communication from a distinguished European archæologist which appeared in the *Nation* of November 13, 1884, has just been brought to my notice. His statement that the Turkish law of 1874, under which the investigations at Assos were carried on, "enacts that all indivisible sculptures shall not be divided, but valued and *given up to the finder* in exchange for their estimated value," is, unfortunately, not correct. The law by no means thus favors the excavator with the promise of ultimate possession. Article 5 of the Code directs that antiques are to be divided, as the expert appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction may determine, either *en nature* or *en valeur*. And as, at the time of the division, the Turkish Government had decided to allow no sale and no exportation of antiques (excepting of those which they were pledged to give up by previous agreement), the lots were made out in kind. Even if this had not been the case, it would have been futile to argue with "a set of ruffians like the Turks" that the sculptures from the epistyle of the archaic temple were indivisible, when they knew that at that very time half of those sculptures were in Paris.

Since the terms of the division have been made a matter of public discussion, it is only just that Hamdi Bey should, in this business, at least, be exculpated from the impudence and encroachment attributed to him by your correspondent. Hamdi Bey was at the time travelling in Syria, and had nothing whatever to do with the arrangement made at Assos, the Turkish Government being then represented by Demetrios Bey Baltazzi. Joseph Thacher Clarke.

London, March 15, 1885.

THE LADY "BACHELORS" OF ARTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a standing jest with those of your minor esteemed contemporaries who find the education of women a very humorous idea, that their college degree should designate them "bachelors." It is a pity to diminish jocularity in any way in a sad world like this, but when the joke arrives at the *Pall Mall Gazette* it is perhaps time to throw a little cold etymology on it. The fact is that the word *bachelor*, both by its origin and its modern scholastic use, is as much feminine as masculine. Its application in common speech to an unmarried male, though as old as Chaucer, is a later and secondary meaning of the word, and has nothing to do with its use in the college degree. This scholastic use goes back to the French *bachelier* (thirteenth century), *bacheler* (twelfth century), *baceler* (eleventh century), from Latin *baccalarius* and *baccalaria*, young male and female farm-laborers (from *baccalaria*, a herd of cows, from *bacca*, for *vacca*, a cow). The use of the Latin term for both sexes is illustrated in a passage quoted by Brachet from an abbey's property-list of the ninth century: "Colonica in Campania: Stephanus, colonus; uxor Dara; Dominicus, filius *baccalarius*; Martina, filia *baccalaria*." Littré gives the word *bachelière* as applied to "a young girl in attendance on a bride" (Berry).

While the original use of the word *bachelor* in the college degree goes back to this bi-sexual term in French and Latin, its continuance in use since the middle ages is probably due, in part, to a mistaken derivation, concocted by university clerks in the sixteenth century. From the French *bachelier* had been made a Latin *baccalaureus* (equally well *bacca laurea*), then *baccalaureatus*, and they now gave all these an imaginary paternity in *bacca lauri*, the bay of Apollo and the laurel crown.

So, whether the college term "bachelor" rest upon its real derivation from the mediæval farm-laborer, or upon the prettier fancied derivation from the laurel, it is applied with equal propriety (as it is to be hoped it may some time be with equal frequency) to women as to men.

E. R. S.

"IN THE TENNESSEE MOUNTAINS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The stories which have been published under the above title are remarkable for depth of feeling and beauty of description, and as pictures of life and character. But they are far from being accurate pictures of life and character in the Tennessee mountains. So full of minute detail are they, so carefully is local color dwelt upon, that failure to make them true to nature is all the more noticeable. But for the manifest effort at realism, one who is familiar with the mountains of Tennessee could hardly believe that Miss Murfree has meant her stories to be thought of as other than pure fiction, describing actual places only as a basis for that fiction.

From various reviews of the book, it seems to be regarded as a real representation of place and people. Strangest of all, the dialect is quoted as possessing philological accurary. One needs to go no further than the table of contents for proof that this is incorrect—*e. g.*, "The Harnt that walks Chilhowee." A Tennesseean very rarely uses *haunt* as a noun; never does he pronounce even the verb "harnt." "Mounting" is, I am sure, not commonly heard. It is contrary to the spirit of language in this section to preserve final *g* when it belongs to the word; this clipping is seen in "A-Playin'," "Electioncerin'," "Dancin'," which occur in other titles of the collection. A favorite expression of the author is "stiddier" (instead of). It is never heard. The mountaineers say *stid o'*, just as they say bed-*stid*. Nor do they say "kem" (for past tense of come), or "jowin" (*jawin'* is the word), or "brigaty" (it is *biggity*), or "you-uns" (when only one is addressed). A long list of inaccuracies might be made. I mention only a few, as they present themselves when the book is opened at random. As usual in dialect writing, there is much exaggeration—*e. g.*, *any* and *once* written "enny" and "wunse." These people have certain peculiarities of speech, consisting mainly in the retention of expressions which were in current use a century ago in the old country, and among Scotch-Irish settlers in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and elsewhere. Some of these words Miss Murfree has caught, but not always nor often just as they are spoken.

In spite of a marked attempt at localization, the most intelligent of our mountaineers would fail to recognize the scene of any one of these stories from anything in itself, except when, oc-

casionally, the real name of cove or mountain is given. And in such cases it is only the name that he can recognize. I presume that the author has seen something of life in the Cumberland Mountains, where some of the scenes are laid; of life in the Smokies she apparently knows little. 'The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains,' now publishing as a serial, is thus far not truer to nature than the short stories have been. Rocky might be substituted for Smoky with equal appropriateness.

The interest in these stories has been so universal that your readers may possibly wish to know where the Smoky Mountains are. The name is given to a portion of the long range parallel to and about 45 miles north of the Blue Ridge, commonly to that part of the range which forms the boundary between Tennessee and North Carolina, lying between the French Broad River on the east and the Little Tennessee River on the west. The highest peak is Clingman's Dome, 6,660 feet above sea-level, and only a few feet lower than Mt. Mitchell. The Little Tennessee River at John Howard's farm, where it cuts through the mountains, is only 899 feet above sea level; Bald Mountain, directly over that point, is 4,922 feet. The region is indescribably grand in its wildness and ruggedness. At either end of the Smokies there is a passable road, that along Little Tennessee River being humorously called a turnpike; but in the seventy miles between, there are only two trails over which wagons can be driven across the mountains. The Thomas road, made during the war, crosses at an elevation of 5,271 feet. It leads, if one has good luck in getting over it, to Quallatown, the home of some Indians who refused to go to the Indian Territory with their tribe. The State road from Newport, Tenn., to Waynesville, N. C., crosses Mt. Sterling at an elevation of about 5,000 feet. There are horse-trails to Thunderhead, the Balds, and a few other peaks where the mountains are sufficiently open for use as herding-grounds. A half-dozen herders' cabins are the only human habitations on the summit. Along the base of the range are lovely coves, from a half-mile to ten miles long, from a few hundred yards to two miles in width. In these coves are the "settleménts" (not "settlemints"), and there are some clearings further up the mountain-side. The coves are never less than seven miles, by trail, below the top of Smoky Mountains, and are walled in by other high mountains on the north. They were settled, shortly before 1800, chiefly by persons from North Carolina (the region belonged to that State until 1789), Virginia, and Pennsylvania, most of them being of Scotch-Irish ancestry. The descendants of those people have made few changes in their ways of living, not readily taking up new-fangled notions. They are almost ideally hospitable and kind; quiet and often of dignified bearing; gentle and peaceable, except when they have suffered real or supposed wrong, and at that moment the traveller, if prudent, will return to his home; never surprised at anything; exceedingly sensitive, yet largely without sentiment. Formerly there was some illicit distilling in the coves, but the people could never think of it as illicit. Now there is none. The methods of getting rid of moon-shining have made the mountaineers somewhat shy of strangers. On the whole, they are not materially different from other mountain dwellers who are secluded from intercourse with the outer world.

The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey map of the mountain region of Tennessee and North Carolina, published in 1865, and partially revised last year, is fairly good. The hypsometric observations were made chiefly by the late Professor Guyot, though, unfortunately, not all of his measurements are given. In No. 737 of the *Nation* you gave an interesting description of the country east of the French Broad. Magnificent as that country is, it is tame by comparison, and has so far forgotten its natural wildness as to submit to a railway and several hotels. The Smokies will long resist any such innovations. E. ALEXANDER.

UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE,
KNOXVILLE, March 25, 1885.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS add to their spring announcements the following: 'Hunting Trips of a Ranchman,' by Theodore Roosevelt; and 'Afghanistan and the Anglo-Russian Dispute,' by Theo. F. Rodenbough, Bvt. Brigadier-General, U. S. A. The latter is a concise sketch of Russia's advance in Central Asia, and will be accompanied by maps and illustrations. By the same publishers Mr. George W. Williams's 'History of the Negro Race in America,' originally brought out in two volumes, is now compacted into one in a popular edition. Considering the ill-digested contents of this book, even a seeming reduction of its bulk is a gain; but it is a pity that some revision could not have been attempted.

The 'Life of N. P. Willis,' by Prof. H. A. Beers, of Yale College, will speedily be added to their "American Men of Letters" series by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

With the recently-issued tenth volume, Messrs. Scribner's series of "Stories by American Authors" is brought to an end. In all, it embraced fifty-seven stories by fifty-two writers, nineteen of whom were ladies. One story was reprinted from an out-of-print book; another was written or rather wholly rewritten for this series; five were taken from daily papers, and two from the departed weekly *Fiction* and *Swinton's Story-Teller*, while one came from an English magazine. The remaining forty-seven were republished from the American monthly magazines—two from *Appleton's*, two from the *Galaxy*, three each from *Putnam's* and the *Overland*, four from *Lippincott's*, five from *Harper's*, nine from the *Atlantic*, and seventeen from *Scribner's* and the *Century*.

The last publication in the Johns Hopkins University Studies in historical and political science is 'Local Institutions of Virginia,' by Edward Ingle, author of a paper in the first series upon Parish Institutions of Maryland. The subject treated in the present issue is one of great importance, inasmuch as the Virginia system appears not only to have controlled the adjoining Southern States, but to have exercised a powerful influence in the neighboring Northern States (see Mr. Shaw's paper upon Local Government in Illinois in the first series). Mr. Ingle's paper is a long one (a double number), and contains six chapters besides an appendix. The first treats of Virginia and the Virginians, the others, respectively, of land tenure, the hundred, the parish, the county, and the town. The last two of these possess the most interest, inasmuch as the *county* is the distinctive institution of local self-government, while the *town* is conspicuous by its absence. There have been various efforts made to introduce the town system into Virginia, and Jefferson especially says: "We owe to them the vigor given to our Revolution in its commencement in the Eastern States, and by them the Eastern States were enabled to repeal the embargo, in opposition to the Middle, Southern, and Western States, and their large and lubberly divisions into counties which can never be assembled." The author speaks, in conclusion, of the growth, especially since the war, of numerous towns, as places of collective residence. Some method of giving them a corporate character and local self-government is, he thinks, likely to be called out by the necessities of the case.

The Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University are about to put forth photographic reproductions of three pages of the Bryennios manuscript, edited with notes by Prof. J. Rendel Harris. These pages include the last verse of the Epistle of Barnabas, the superscription and opening of the first, and the close of the second Epistle of Clement, the first verses of the Teaching of the Apostles, and the last verses of the Epistle of Ignatius to the Romans, etc. The edition is limited.

Meantime, Professors Hitchcock and Brown have revised and greatly enlarged their edition of the 'Teaching of the Twelve Apostles' after the above manuscript (Scribners). The discussions growing out of the already extensive literature caused by Bryennios's discovery are noticed at length, and the work now nearly fulfils the scholarly idea of the editors.

If the winter of our discontent could be made summer by the flowers of art, Prang & Co. would be entitled to a harvest festival for their abundance of floral and ornithological Easter cards, of which they also issue an illustrated catalogue, with miniature reproductions of the most salient examples. Some of them certainly surpass anything of the kind yet produced, and have given work to our best artists in this vein. Some of the toilet or "easel-back" arrangements are the ne plus-ultra of chromolithography.

We receive from John Ireland a novelty in Easter cards, consisting of a series of photographs from sacred subjects with appropriate verses, the whole held at one of the upper corners by a bit of white satin ribbon, and enclosed in tasteful decorative covers in excellent chromolithography, with various lilies framing the title, "An Easter Offering."

The usual defects of out-door photography are manifest in the several groups in which General Grant is the central figure, taken by Pach Bros. The arrangement of the trio in the stereoscopic view is the most pleasing. There is, in the set before us, a large head of Grant too much worked over to be characteristic, and also a large-sized view of his Long Branch cottage.

Of the two "souvenir albums" sent us by Adolph Wittemann—namely, of California and of New Orleans and the Exposition—the latter will probably have more vogue on account of its novelty. The fashion of these glazed prints after photographs is not to our liking. It is at best a makeshift, pending the perfecting of the processes of nature-engraving.

The *American Architect* announces the first of a series of publications under its direction, entitled 'Monographs of American Architecture.' Austin Hall, the new home of the Harvard Law School, is the subject. It will be illustrated by eighteen "gelatine plates," of which a sample is given in the *Architect* for March 28.

The portraits accompanying Mrs. Lamb's "Framers of the Constitution," in the April number of the *Magazine of American History*, seem to us as valuable as any part of the general contents. Some religious journal was deprived of "copy" when Dr. Parkhurst's "Work as an Educating Power" was allowed admission to the magazine. Except on the theory of a mixture of manuscripts in the printing-office its appearance here is unaccountable.

It is a pleasure to look upon such beautiful specimens of map-making as the newest sheets of the great "Atlas of New Jersey," upon which the Geological Survey of that State is engaged. Three sheets had already appeared, and now we have Nos. 2, "Southwestern Highlands" (embracing Easton, Penn., and the Delaware Water Gap); 6, "Central Red Sandstone" (embracing Newark, Paterson, Morristown, New Brunswick,

etc.); and 16, "Egg Harbor" (embracing Atlantic City, Egg Harbor City, Barnegat, etc.). The completion of No. 1 will give us the entire northern portion of the State as far south as the parallel of Elizabeth. The scale, our readers may need to be reminded, is a mile to an inch, so that the topographical indications are very full. The execution is in the best style of Julius Bien & Co.

Kiepert's map of the Congo region, which we lately described, is found also in No. 115 of the *Journal* of the Berlin Geographical Society (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer). Dr. Kiepert furnishes the accompanying text.

In the last *Compte Rendu* of the Société de Géographie is an interesting map of the northern part of Formosa, executed by the officers of the French expeditionary force in 1884. Not only are the physical features of the country given and the various roads, together with their character, but the places in which are the tea, rice, indigo, and sugar plantations are carefully indicated. On the east coast there is noted a forest of tree ferns more than twenty-three feet high.

We took notice, at the time, of the vindication of General Arthur Görgey on the 22d of November last. This "Declaration by Soldiers of the Hungarian Army of 1848-9" appeared in the *Nemzet* of November 23, and has been translated by Arthur J. Patterson, the full list of signers being appended. Our copy of this pamphlet bears the imprint of Warren Hall & Lovett, London.

Madam Jessie White Mario, widow of the Italian patriot, Alberto Mario, has felt it her duty to undertake a Life of Mazzini, of which the first sheets have come to hand. She apologizes in her preface (written, like the book, in Italian) for assuming the task of others—of the great agitator's own countrymen; but it is evident that, as an Englishwoman, she has exceptional qualifications for writing one among the many biographies which time is likely to produce. G. Carducci furnishes a stately poem, and the historical painter, Girolamo Induno, contributes a forcible likeness of Mazzini. There will be other full-page illustrations of excellent quality, to judge by the sample. 'Della Vita di Giuseppe Mazzini' is the title. Madam Mario's memorial volumes to her husband are still incomplete.

A few weeks ago our foreign exchanges enabled us to describe M. Clermont-Ganneau's entertaining new work entitled 'Les Fraudes Archéologiques en Palestine.' A perusal of it at first hand (Paris: Ernest Leroux) confirms all that we reported concerning it, and we can recommend the little volume as a congenial interpolation among the novels of the day. It treats of fiction, figments, and frauds, with a touch as light as it is sure. The work opens with a brief enumeration of the seven genuine ancient inscriptions that Palestine has yielded, then passes to the trade of fabrication so extensively carried on in that country, and, after taking up in detail a large number of counterfeit rings, seals, steles, statues, sarcophagi, lamps, etc., arrives at the narrative of chief interest—the unmasking of Shapira, with his false Moabite potteries and MS. of Deuteronomy. The fifth chapter demonstrates the spuriousness of certain antiquities in the museums of Vienna, Paris, and London.

It is altogether an odd sign of the breaking down of old barriers, that a catalogue of the collections, historical and archæological, of the National Museum of Mexico, by W. W. Blake, is from the press of the Burlington *Hawkeye*, Iowa. It is a little volume of 119 pages. The appendix tells of the unearthing, in October last, of an inscribed fragment of a conjectured Aztec funeral monument. Its last appearance above ground was when it served as part of a corner of an old building, for "Franceses" and "Americanos" had been painted on adjacent angles.

Mr. H. L. Braekstad, to whom we owe the fine translation of Asbjörnsen's fairy tales, has recently adapted the most popular of recent Swedish comedies, the "True Woman" of Anne Charlotte Edgren (London and New York: Samuel French & Son).

Mr. G. Eneström issued in 1884 at Stockholm (F. & G. Beijer) a quarterly *Bibliotheca Mathematica*, containing an alphabetical list of works, papers in transactions of learned societies, and magazine articles, and also some short notices of books, and in each number an essay by the editor; the last two being notices of the Latin versions of Euclid's elements published in Sweden, and on the first Swedish tables of logarithms. These numbers he has now published in a thin volume, with a list of the transactions and reviews to which reference was made and a classified index. The bibliographical work is carefully done, and the type is large and clear. The *Bibliotheca* will be continued this year.

In the first number of the new French *Revue Contemporaine* is a long and highly eulogistic criticism of Edgar Poe's works by M. Émile Hennequin, and among the articles announced for early numbers is a critical study of Walt Whitman, by M. Gabriel Sarrazin. While professing a wide catholicity of taste, this review is likely, if we may judge from the list of promised contributors, to be the organ of the more moderate naturalists. M. Edmond de Goncourt gives in the first number a foretaste of his brother's letters; criticisms of Flaubert and by M. Zola are expected, and short stories by M. Daudet and M. Guy de Maupassant.

The Seaside Laboratory at Annisquam, Mass., will be reopened to students during the coming summer, from July 1st to September 1st, under the patronage, as heretofore, of the Women's Education Association, acting through the Boston Society of Natural History. Mr. B. H. Van Vleck, an assistant in the laboratory of this institution, will have charge of the seaside work.

Mr. Edward I. Nickerson, 45 Westminster Street, Providence, is interested to ascertain the addresses, in this country, of "any really good miniature painters on ivory." This seems like a search after a "lost art."

—*Harper's* for April has a long and very readable illustrated article on "The Prince of Wales at Sandringham," by Mr. W. H. Russell. The illustrations give an excellent idea of the attractions of the place, and are well calculated to fill with envy any American not yet admitted into the "Prince of Wales's set." The estate, which contains some 8,000 acres, was bought more than twenty years ago by the Government for about $1,000,000, and has been rendered immensely more valuable by improvements since. The income of the Prince Mr. Russell puts at about $500,000 a year, and he thinks that, considering the constant drains on it for the maintenance of his establishments, subscriptions to charities, etc., the amount left for the pleasures of private life is small. Much smaller, we should say, than in the case of many of his subjects, and not any larger than that of several Americans of private fortunes whose parents have made their money, not by being kings and queens, but by bearing or bulling stocks, or by consolidating railroads, or operating in wheat or pork. The life of the heir apparent appears to be, according to the accounts given by his friends, a life of ceremonial, in which he can be only to a small extent his own master. His ancestors, of whose private life we have such full and minute accounts, had really a far better opportunity for self-indulgence than any one in the position of the heir apparent can now have. On the other hand, it can hardly be said that a ceremonial preparation consisting of after-dinner speeches and laying of corner-stones can do much to fit a prince to become a king, in the old sense of the word. But then this, the admirers of the English system maintain, is the best feature of the case, because the English people only want an ornamental and ceremonial king, and really prefer to have their governing done for them by a popular leader chosen by the House of Commons. The frontispiece this month is a fine portrait of Lincoln, from a photograph never before engraved.

—Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's article on "Phases of State Legislation," in the *Century*, is, though perhaps not intended to have such an effect, one of the strongest arguments in favor of biennial sessions, and, in fact, of as few sessions as possible, that we have ever met. In three Legislatures he and a number of other members have been interested in getting through certain important measures, and to do this it was found to be necessary to make a study of the character and associations of the different members. "As a result, and after very careful study, conducted purely with the object of learning the truth, so that we might work more effectually, we came to the conclusion that about one-third of the members were open to corrupt influences in some form or other." A single specific example of the way uncorrupt legislation has to be obtained at Albany, however, will show better than this estimate what sort of a place the capital is:

"On one occasion there came before a committee of which I happened to be a member, a perfectly proper bill in the interest of a certain corporation. The majority of the committee, six in number, were thoroughly bad men, who opposed the measure with the hope of being paid to cease their opposition. When I consented to take charge of the bill, I had stipulated that not a penny should be paid to insure its passage. It therefore became necessary to see what pressure could be brought to bear on the recalcitrant members; and accordingly we had to find out who were the authors and sponsors of their political being. Three proved to be under the control of local statesmen of the same party as themselves, and of equally bad moral character; one was ruled by a politician of unsavory reputation from a different city; the fifth, a Democrat, was owned by a Republican Federal official; and the sixth by the president of a horse-car company. A couple of letters from these two magnates forced the last members mentioned to change front on the bill with surprising rapidity."

Mr. Roosevelt's picture of the ignorance and corruption of legislation at Albany, coming from one who knows the ground so well as he, is the most striking that has been drawn anywhere. He has no new remedies to propose, but it seems to us that it is obvious that whatever tends to restrict the field and opportunities for legislation will be for the good of the State.

—The *Century's* war articles do not diminish in interest, and the sumptuous abundance of spirited illustrations even increases. Mr. Cable's description of New Orleans at the time of the surrender has all the dainty delicacy of touch which we have learned to look for in his work. It is at once realistic and artistic, and we see the event he describes through the eyes of the bright lad sharply watching things at the levee from the front or rear door of his employer's shop on Common Street. The personal element in Admiral Porter's paper distinguishes it more than anything else from the excellent narratives of the capture of New Orleans already published, such as Professor Mahan's. The Admiral distinctly claims as his own the origination of the plan of the expedition, the indication of Farragut as its commander, the success in getting the heavier ships over the Mississippi bar, and a certain initiative throughout which closely resembles a dominating influence. That Farragut was the adopted son of Commodore Porter "of the *Essex*," the father of the present Admiral, has not

been commonly known, and is an interesting fact in the relations of these officers. The portrait of Admiral Porter, while a good one at the time it was made, needs to be supplemented by one giving his more familiar appearance at and after the close of the war. That of General Butler, as he appeared "on the James," is strongly characteristic, even to his slippers.

—The *Atlantic* for April opens with three chapters of "The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains," the interest in which is not likely to be diminished by the discovery of the sex of the author. The story is one among several indications of the growth of a native Southern literature which gives promise of a very different harvest from the sickly literary products of the old "slavery days." Kathleen O'Meara's fourth paper on "Madame Mohl, her Salon and Friends" is full of entertaining anecdotes, and cannot fail to suggest to the reader a good many reflections on the subject of salons and society, and the differences between foreign and American society which may be supposed to make salons here out of the question. Madame Mohl's house differed from what we ordinarily think of as a salon, in dispensing an international hospitality. English, French, Germans, and Americans met there on neutral territory; and owing to the fact that they met in Europe and not in an English-speaking country, there was probably far less *gêne* in their meetings than there would possibly have been had Madame Mohl attempted the same thing in England or America. Indeed, an American or English salon is almost unthinkable. The intense pride and reserve in the expression of feeling which make most of us so *stiff;* the continual dread of saying something which may sound extravagant, or conceited, or quixotic in the ears of those present, and an unwillingness on the part of those present to make the concessions to individuality which involve concessions to extravagance, to conceit, and to the quixotic; the widespread want of interest in any but material things which palsies general conversation—how often have we observed what a hindrance all these national social peculiarities are to the simplicity and ease which make an "interior" like that of Madame Mohl's possible. It is not that we have no intellectual interests, but the very persons who have intellectual interests have not the social training that puts them at ease in society; so that literary "reunions" with us, from the publishers' dinner in 'Pendennis' down to the latest meeting of the Twentieth Century Club, are apt to be dreadful affairs.

—C. F. Gordon Cumming, a frequent contributor, has an entertaining article in *Lippincott's* called "Glimpses of Peking." It gives a better idea of the "havoc" and dirt and decay of the great Eastern capital than of its splendor; indeed, the "note" of the article may be said to be dirt—dirt in the form of the dust inches deep on the highways; dirt in the form of the same dust converted into mud; dirt in the form of vile contagion-breeding stenches; dirt in the form of contagion itself; dirt on the unswept floors; dirt under the beds; dirt on the person—a loathsome, antique, dirty metropolis. The progress of civilization is marked by nothing more than progress in individual cleanliness, and a widespread popular desire to be clean is one of the surest tests of a high degree of it. In ancient civilizations like that of Rome, for instance, we may shrewdly suspect that the desire for cleanliness was confined to the few, and that while Caracalla and his court retinue, and the wealthy men of his time, bathed a great deal, the common herd were really unwashed; and so it is in China to-day. Dirt is regarded, not as "matter out of place," but as a natural condition of things, and the consequent disease as so inevitable a concomitant of human life that it receives a religious sanction, and the epithet applied to smallpox is "first-class heaven-flowers." Thus we may perceive that, when travellers speak of the Chinese as a highly-civilized people, they mean a civilization of the antique variety; for as far as soap and water furnish a test, Peking is in a very primitive state. The condition of the roadbed of the principal street in Peking is another indication of what is meant by Chinese civilization. It is, of course, a magnificent paved causeway, built with great care and at enormous expense. But it is never repaired from one year's end to another; and when it is announced that on a certain day the Emperor will come forth from his seclusion and pass along certain streets, a squad of men are set to work to shovel all the spare dirt into the holes and ruts, till the whole is level, so that the procession may pass along it without too much jolting. Fortunately there is a system of underground drains, and once a year these are opened in order that they may be flooded by the spring rains; but house drainage is apparently entirely unknown, filth of every description being tossed into the street, where it accumulates, putrifies, breeds disease and death, and is finally washed away into the sewers by these rains, when the process begins over again.

—The decadence of science in and about Boston has lately been the theme of an editorial lament in the journal *Science*. Considering the increasing amount of publishing and research, the number of students engaged, the extent of scientific instruction in schools, and the taste for popular science as inferrible from the press, one would have expected quite the opposite view to be taken. What the editor really has in mind, we believe, is the lack of interest in society meetings; but here again he overlooks the present number of societies, and their combined attendance now as compared with that of the period to which he refers us. We may even go further, and say that the apparent lack of interest in the meetings is of itself evidence of progress in science. Conditions have changed for the better. The days when people of culture knew little of scientific matters, and, in their thirst for knowledge, crowded the halls to acquire it, have gone by. The teachings of our schools, of our books, of our papers enable us to gather our science with much less expense in time and exertion than would be necessary if we were compelled to dance attendance on the lectures. That the hearers have outgrown the need of the talkers, and that science is becoming daily more accessible, are poor evidences of decadence. Grant that there has been a falling off in the quality of communications as well as in attendance. Naturally enough, a lecturer is not likely to make elaborate preparations with the expectation of having no one to hear him. A man with an important communication hardly thinks it worth while to bring it before empty benches.

—Except that the editor of the 'Annual Statistician' (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty) has brought down his collection of facts and figures upon all sorts of subjects to a later date, the current edition of this useful work differs but little from that for last year. We observe, however, the correction of a certain number of errors, the amplification of information upon a variety of live topics, and the addition of a considerable amount of entirely new matter. If a person consulting the 'Statistician' could always feel implicit confidence in the accuracy of its statements, it would leave but little to be desired; for nowhere else are to be found so many of those facts which nobody can hope to remember, but which everybody sometimes wants to know. Unfortunately, here and there in its pages we stumble upon errors which seem to show that, even as to matters about which most people have general information, the grossest blunders can pass undetected by its compilers. Of course mere typographical slips, such as that by which Mr. Voorhees, the newly-elected delegate from Washington Territory, is put down as a Republican, can hardly be altogether avoided. Doubtless either to the same cause or to an unconscious spirit of prophecy is to be ascribed the statement that Mr. Carlisle is Speaker of the House of Representatives of the XLIXth Congress. No such excuse, however, can be set up in defence of the extraordinary assertion, made on page 263, that the population of Oceanica, exclusive (as a comparison of the figures on the next three pages will show) of the British Isles, Japan, Madagascar, Newfoundland, Ceylon, and most of the other islands lying off the coasts of the great continents, is 119,000,000, when the tables on the pages just mentioned, if carefully analyzed with the assistance of a good atlas, prove that 50,000,000 would in all probability be an outside estimate. There are some very serious errors in the table of population according to creed, on pages 338-9, especially in reference to France and Austria-Hungary. Some of the grave blunders to which we called attention last year are repeated, as, for instance, the deceptive table on page 559, purporting to give the birth and death rates in certain great cities. In future editions, it is to be hoped that care will be taken to guard against such defects, and to make the execution worthy of the design.

—The French are always "changing all that." Time was when men would set a thief to catch a thief, but now in Paris they set a detective to catch a detective. The *Cri du Peuple* publishes pen portraits of the various secret agents of the police, giving their addresses (which may be convenient if a new Commune should ever send round *pétroleuses* and raise the cry *Aux lampions*) and describing the unfortunate men, whose incognito is their stock in trade, as carefully as would be done in a passport. The revolutionary counter-police instituted by this enterprising paper actually "shadowed" three times one of the agents, and the account of the *filatures* is published in full. It is a pleasing thought, that, of one of the police of surety dogged by a revolutionist, and he by a secret agent of the Government, and he by another of the people, and so ad infinitum, just as the fleas "have smaller still to bite 'em." It would make an amusing scene on the stage or a startling chapter in a novel. Indeed, there is something like it in one of the stories of Gaboriau or Du Boisgobey—there are already too many in the long series which the new Dumas is pouring out for us to remember in which it was. But what will be the effect on the production and discovery of crime in Paris if the secret police are hereafter to work in public, if there is to be a detectives' gallery in the newspapers as we have a rogues' gallery at our police stations? Rightly done, perhaps, the effect would not be altogether bad. The discoveries in regard to the London police two or three years ago, and the revelations in connection with the Clovis-Hugues trial, show that detectives are not impeccable. Who will guard the guards themselves, asked the Roman satirist? I, says the *Cri du Peuple*. Unfortunately the object of that paper is not such as to inspire the hope that society will get much good from its surveillance.

—The subscribers to the 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte' in ten volumes, by Professors Flathe, Hertzberg, Justi, Pflugk-Harttung, and Philippson, recently begun to be published by G. Grote in Berlin (New York: Westermann)—and already briefly noticed in our columns—are well aware what they are to receive for their money. For the new universal history is to be, to a de-

gree, an abridgment of the vast 'Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen' edited for the same firm by Prof. Wilhelm Oncken, of Giessen. Of this admirable collection about one-half—upward of twenty volumes—has appeared, embracing more than a thousand illustrations and portraits, remarkable both for intrinsic importance as guides chiefly to the psychology of the past and for excellence of execution; and all, or nearly all, of these are to go into the new work. Hence, as to the pictorial part of the contents, the 'Weltgeschichte' will be four times as rich as Oncken's 'Geschichte.' The reëlaborated text will, of course, have to adapt itself occasionally to the illustrations, and may thus become slightly unsymmetrical; but skilful condensation by tried hands will save all that is most important, introduce chronological order, and eliminate repetitions unavoidable in 'Einzeldarstellungen.' Most of the writers for the 'Weltgeschichte' have contributed largely to Oncken's collection, Hertzberg being the author of four bulky volumes on Hellas, Rome before and under the Emperors, and the Byzantines and Ottomans; Philippson, of the histories of the age of Philip II. and of that of Louis XIV.; and Flathe, of the history of the period extending from the downfall of the First French Empire to the rise of the Second. Hertzberg, who is now to write 'Hellas' and 'Rome,' has only to condense his own volumes, and Philippson and Flathe, who are to divide modern history between them—the former doing the earlier periods—will largely draw upon their own books while working up the matter contained in Stern's 'English Revolution,' Brückner's 'Peter the Great' and 'Catharine II,' Oncken's 'Age of Frederick the Great' and 'Age of the Revolution, of the Empire, and the Wars of Liberation,' Wolf's 'Maria Theresa' and 'Joseph II.,' and other works. Justi, who for the 'Geschichte' has written only a short volume on 'Ancient Persia,' and has now been assigned 'The Eastern Nations,' will find excellent guides in Dümichen's 'Egypt,' Stade's 'Israel,' etc., while Pflugk-Harttung, who has no contribution of his own to abridge, will condense for his 'Middle Ages' Dahn's 'Earliest History of the Teutonic and Romanic Nations,' Winkelmann's 'Anglo-Saxons,' Kugler's 'Crusades,' Hertzberg's 'Byzantines,' Ruge's 'Age of Discoveries,' and other books edited by Oncken.

GEORGE ELIOT.—I.

George Eliot's Life, as related in her Letters and Journals, arranged and edited by her Husband, J. W. Cross. In three vols. Harper & Bros. 1885.

"If it be true that the most interesting of George Eliot's characters is her own, it may be said also that the most interesting of her books is her life."

These words of Lord Acton's have a real and important meaning, to which we shall recur; but, taken in their most obvious sense, they precisely contradict the judgment which ninety-nine readers out of a hundred have, we suspect, before this formed, and rightly formed, of Mr. Cross's book. If by "most interesting" be meant the book which most keenly interests most persons, it is difficult to believe that a single one of George Eliot's novels does not surpass in interestingness the whole of her written life. The duty of critics is occasionally to speak plain truths plainly; and an intense admiration for George Eliot, as well as infinite respect for the care, skill, and loving tact with which Mr. Cross has composed the biography of his wife, ought not to blind a candid observer to the patent fact, that even the most sympathetic reader puts down 'George Eliot's Life' with a sense of disappointment, which is mitigated only by the reflection that George Eliot lives in her works, and that the beauty and nobility of her character, no less than the brilliancy of her genius, have an everlasting memorial in the 'Scenes from Clerical Life,' in 'Adam Bede,' and in the 'Mill on the Floss.' This disappointment is due to two causes.

The first cause lies in the form in which the Life is presented to us.

Autobiography and biography have each their special value and their special defects. When a writer of moral or intellectual eminence such as Carlyle, Miss Martineau, Trollope, or Mark Pattison, leaves behind him either memoirs or autobiographical reflections, we have in any case one of the most valuable and interesting things which the world can possess—the "experiences" of a human soul. It is more than possible, it is almost certain, that a man's account of his own life will, however honest the writer, be more or less distorted or colored by his personal feelings and sympathies. Miss Martineau's autobiography is certainly not a perfectly fair estimate either of herself or of others. It were idle to suppose that Carlyle's lamentations over the injustice of the world gave us the true measure of the way in which he had been treated by his friends and his contemporaries. No sane historian would ever look upon the 'Apologia' as more than an important contribution to the understanding of Cardinal Newman's character, or to the history of the Tractarian movement. The very best of autobiographies needs constant correction from the reliable evidence of the witnesses of a man's career. But even the least trustworthy of autobiographies has the supreme value, that it does represent either an eminent man's actual estimate of his own life, or at very lowest the view of his life which he wishes to impress upon the world. The very unfairness of autobiography provides us with the means of understanding the genius of the autobiographer. Biography, on the other hand, though it does not possess the charm of presenting to us personal experiences, does, in the hands of a skilful and honest writer, give us a picture of a man's career and character superior in breadth and completeness to any of the efforts of self-portraiture. Boswell's 'Johnson' or Stanley's 'Arnold' contains such a picture of his hero as entirely satisfies the needs or wishes of posterity.

Now Mr. Cross has, with singular boldness, and, we must in fairness add, with a deftness which is manifestly the fruit not so much of literary aptitude as of the tact produced by profound reverence and affection, attempted to tell George Eliot's life as related in her letters and journals; that is to say, he has endeavored to combine in some sense the merits of a biography with those of an autobiographical memoir, or, to use his own expressions, has "endeavored to form an *autobiography*—if the term may be permitted—of George Eliot. The life has been allowed to write itself from her letters and journals." The difficulty of Mr. Cross's task, which is great enough in itself, has been increased by rules which (it may be wisely enough) he has imposed upon the performance of his work: "Each letter has been pruned of everything that seemed to me irrelevant to my purpose, of everything which I thought my wife would have wished to be omitted. Every sentence that remains adds, in my judgment, something, however small it may be, to the means of forming a conclusion about her character. . . . I have refrained," he adds, "almost entirely, from quoting the remembered sayings of George Eliot, because it is difficult to be certain of complete accuracy, and everything depends upon accuracy." In other words, the light thrown upon a person's character, either by the candor of autobiographical confession or by the candor of friendly observation, has been entirely excluded from Mr. Cross's work, while the reader is not allowed to see all the lighter and telling traits which are betrayed by the spontaneity of spoken thought. The letters, further, are, with great ingenuity, dovetailed into one another. Remarks written to a man of business, such as Mr. Blackwood, run unexpectedly into expressions used in the intimacy of effusive friendship to a dear friend, such as Miss Hennell. Moreover, the sources on which the life is based are narrow. Four-fifths of it, or thereabouts, are founded upon the correspondence with Blackwood, letters to Mrs. Bray and her sister, notes to Mrs. Congreve, and George Eliot's journal. The journal itself, moreover, to judge from the specimens given by Mr. Cross, is merely a diary of work—very remarkable, we admit, in its way—and a mass of observations which, considering they come from George Eliot, are by no means remarkable, on places and works of art noted in the course of various journeys.

The simple truth is, that a biography so constructed is as artificial a production as was ever put before the world. It is like attempts to construct a scheme of theology by simply piecing together texts, or bits of texts, torn from their context and stuck together so as to present a view which the author believes to be true and valuable. This kind of intellectual mosaic work can never produce a life-like picture. The marvel is that, according to the testimony of George Eliot's friends, Mr. Cross has, under all the difficulties of the case, given the world a portrait which recalls the great authoress to those who knew her. That to those who, like ourselves, did not know her, except through her works, the picture is wanting in life, is an inevitable consequence of the conditions which Mr. Cross imposed upon himself. These conditions produce another result which should be constantly borne in mind by every fair-minded reader. The public has no knowledge whatever as to the extent to which the aspect of George Eliot put before us represents the whole of her character. It is strange how often this is forgotten. A most intelligent writer remarks that George Eliot wrote almost wholly to women with whom she was intimate, and did not correspond with the literary characters of her day. This certainly may be so, but the public have no means of knowing that it was so. Mr. Cross never tells us that the fragments given us represent the whole of her correspondence. It is, one would think, highly improbable that there was no written interchange of thought between George Eliot and Herbert Spencer. We do not for a moment blame Mr. Cross for his reticence. He has given us a life of a very peculiar and even rare kind; but it is simple common sense to bear in mind the peculiarities of the book, and it is simple honesty to admit that its peculiarities impair its interestingness.

The second cause of disappointment lies deeper than the first. It arises from the substance, not from the form, of 'George Eliot's Life.'

"Revelations," in the vulgar sense of the word, cannot have been expected or desired by any one capable of appreciating or venerating George Eliot's genius. But it was not unreasonable to hope that a work which aimed at being a kind of autobiography, might reveal to admirers of a great writer some personal traits of character not fully apparent in her writings. The fulfilment of such an expectation does not involve any want of due reticence on the part of a biographer. No critic has ever asserted that Trevelyan's 'Macaulay' violates the sanctities of private life or the pious respect due to the dead. Yet no one can read 'Macaulay's Life and Letters' without feeling that from Trevelyan's book he learns something more of his uncle's true character than could be gathered from the most careful perusal of every line that Macaulay has published.

We all now know for certain that the brilliant historian was a man of singularly deep and strong affections, and loved those to whom he was attached with a passionate intensity which nothing but his strong common sense and his essential manliness prevented from becoming morbid from its vehemence. We know, again, what could only have been conjectured from his works, that the high public spirit which breathes in every line Macaulay wrote, was proved by his acts to be a guiding influence throughout his life. Such unveiling as this is as much an act of justice to the dead as it is a benefit to the living. George Eliot's letters or diaries add little to the knowledge of her which may be gathered from her works. They show that her own character and some of the events of her own life are depicted in parts of her novels. But this could be no news to any intelligent reader. A student must be dull indeed who needs to be told that in the 'Mill on the Floss' there is an autobiographical element, or that the moral insight and the ethical principles traceable in every word which George Eliot has written formed part of herself. The oddity of the thing is, not that the life often confirms or illustrates impressions of George Eliot gained from her writings, but that, on the whole, George Eliot's writings tell and always will tell appreciative critics far more of her intellectual and moral greatness than can be gathered from a Life written with the very view of giving to the world an opportunity of "forming a conclusion about her character."

The reason why this is so is not far to seek. Mr. Cross's book resembles in some degree biographies written by the disciples of a religious teacher. Such disciples, if worthy of their hero, will not tell you a word which is not true. And one cannot read a chapter of Mr. Cross's writing without seeing that it is inspired by that noblest form of veracity, the truthfulness which springs from love and admiration. But the disciple who writes the life of a prophet whom he reverences with his whole heart, is sure to fall into one error. He cannot let his hero be anything but a prophet. From this ault Mr. Cross has hardly escaped. All the didactic side of George Eliot's character is fairly represented by the extracts from her letters and journals. We see, and it is most interesting to see, her intense preoccupation with the truths which she pressed upon her readers. We read, for example, in the letters to Mrs. Ponsonby, her most intimate utterances on fundamental questions of morality and religion. We learn from her own writing that her books "have for their main bearing a conclusion . . . without which I could not have cared to write any representation of human life—namely, that the fellowship between man and man which has been the principle of development, social and moral, is not dependent on conceptions of what is not man; and that the idea of God, so far as it has been a high spiritual influence, is the ideal of a goodness entirely human (*i. e.*, an exaltation of the human)." We learn how entirely she valued her works as the means of propagating her convictions. We learn the sincerity and, so to speak, religious zeal with which she labored at "the improvement" of the "talents" committed to her, and we are made to feel, if we did not feel it before, how deeply George Eliot's teaching has influenced the moral sentiment of modern England. The love of a disciple has, in short, presented to us the portrait of George Eliot as a learner and a teacher; and to have this portrait is a benefit. But, unfortunately, Mr. Cross's admiration for the moral and, so to speak, religious side of his wife's character has, in the description he has given of her, caused him strangely to leave out of view the amazing gifts of humor and of imagination which rendered it possible for George Eliot to interest the world in her teaching.

We find it at any rate impossible to suppose that if Mr. Cross had wished to do so, he could not have opened to us a side of his wife's nature of which there is scarcely a trace in her published Life. If this supposition be not correct, we are forced to the conclusion that all the humor, irony, and insight which give their special flavor to George Eliot's greatest novels, to the 'Scenes of Clerical Life,' to 'Adam Bede,' or to 'Silas Marner,' left no trace in her conversation or her correspondence. To believe that this is so is almost an impossibility; and we are therefore driven to the conclusion that intentionally her biographer has left one aspect of George Eliot completely in the shade. As it is, the Life brings before us the translator of Strauss, the essayist who writes under the name of Theophrastus Such, and the author of 'Daniel Deronda.' But we can see few traces of the novelist who has added to the literary portrait gallery of England more than a score of characters as full at once of life, humor, and pathos as Adam Bede, Silas Marner, Amos Barton, or Mrs. Poyser. As we try to gather from Mr. Cross's description a true portrait of the greatest, or certainly the greatest but one, among the female novelists of England, we are reminded of the efforts which, some forty years ago, one had to make in order to see the likeness impressed in the earlier form of daguerreotype. The true features of one's friend were there, but it was only by twisting and, so to speak, humoring the picture that one could get to see the sun-painted likeness.

THE FOREST CENSUS.

The Forests of North America, exclusive of Mexico. By Charles S. Sargent, Arnold Professor of Arboriculture in Harvard University. Vol. ix of the Publications of the Tenth Census of the United States. Washington: 1884. 1 vol., quarto, with portfolio of maps.

In view of the national importance of the forest question, this publication is timely and valuable as furnishing the data by which to work out its solution. It belongs in the front rank of our Government publications. It is divided into three parts: Part 1, the catalogue of the species, remarks on synonomy, bibliography, distribution, uses, etc.; Part 2, the specific gravity, strength, and comparative values of the woods; Part 3, the economic aspects of the forests. The catalogue, with its copious index, occupies two hundred and twenty pages, and enumerates four hundred and twelve species of trees besides the recognized varieties. "To keep the catalogue within reasonable limits," the line between trees and shrubs (an arbitrary distinction) is settled by admitting as trees only "those which grow from the ground with a single stem, either wholly or over a large portion of their distribution." Much labor has been expended upon the bibliography of the species, in many cases one hundred, and in one instance one hundred and twenty-five references, being cited, exclusive of separate editions of the same work. A number of important (though questionable) changes have been made in the names of the species, based upon investigations into the works of early botanical writers. This portion of the volume will be of special interest to the botanist, while the terse descriptions of the nature of the wood, taken in connection with the distribution of the species, furnish important data for the builder and mechanic. The works, in various languages, on the strength of timber and specific gravity and component elements of the woods, deal with the subject in a very general way, referring to "fir," "pine," "oak," etc., without regard to the species, and furnish only such information as was to be collected from various sources, the results of experiments performed often under very different conditions by many different persons. In the case of the work before us, however, the tests have been made under precisely the same conditions with the wood of every available species and all recognized varieties of North American trees; and where the least doubt was attached to the identification of a specimen, it was immediately excluded. The object of the experiments, the results of which are given in detail for each specimen of every species in several tables in Part 2, was to determine, "first, the fuel value of the woods of the United States, and second, the value of the wood of the principal trees of the country as material for construction." All tests for strength were made with the United States testing-machine at the Watertown arsenal. To obtain specimens of each of the four hundred and twelve trees enumerated was in many cases very difficult, yet they were all finally secured, with the exception of seven species—trees of exceedingly limited range, or only known by the reports of early explorers, none of which possess any commercial importance.

Arranged in the order of the weight of the wood, the first sixty-three species include but one North Atlantic tree, the first sixteen on the list being heavier than water, and belonging "to the semi-tropical region of Florida, or to the arid Mexican and interior Pacific regions." There exists "a relation between aridity of climate and the weight of the wood," even in single species of wide distribution, certain Southern varieties of ashes and oaks being from twelve to twenty per cent. heavier than the Northern form of the same tree. The experiments show that equal weights of resinous woods give upward of twelve per cent. more heat than non-resinous woods. Making this allowance, the theory advanced by Count Rumford that equal weights of wood possess the same fuel value, without regard to specific distinctions, stands substantially correct; and the specific-gravity tests give a direct means for comparison for fuel values, although other factors of course enter into consideration in ordinary practice which greatly affect the result.

For transverse strength, the nutmeg hickory leads, closely followed by the locust and one of the Pacific oaks. For longitudinal strength, the heavy tropical woods of Florida stand at the head; for elasticity the larch of the Pacific Coast comes first, while the lignum-vitæ best resists indentation. Determinations made in relation to the amount of tannin in the bark of different trees suffice to point out species, not now in use, "which may be looked to as possible sources of tannin supplies." This list includes the rhizophora of Florida, which shows 31.04 per cent. of tannin, the Engelmann spruce, 12.60 to 20.56, and the Douglas fir, 13.79 per cent. So many of the determinations given in the tables above referred to fall between such narrow limits that, although in all the important woods sufficient material has been obtained to avoid errors, yet in most cases results of the experiments which are recorded must not "be considered as conclusive, but rather valuable as indicating what lines of research should be followed in a more thorough study of the subject." These tests do, however, indicate

"the important fact, that within the limits of any species the weight and strength of any specimen of wood depend upon the actual proportion of the space occupied by the annual layers of growth, with open ducts, to the space occupied with compact woody tissues, and to the size of these ducts; or, in the case of coniferæ, the proportion of space occupied by cells formed early in the season to that occupied with the cells of the summer growth. It does not appear to be the soil, age, or general climatic conditions which affect the growth of the wood, nor does the rapidity of growth affect the strength, as has been supposed, as the proportion of open to compact growth is little affected by the rapid or slow increase of the tree's diameter."

"It follows that while such experiments are

necessary to establish maximum and relative values for any species, these being established, actual values of any given specimen of wood may be determined by microscopic examination of its structure—that is, two specimens of wood of any species to which the census-tests have been applied being given, their relative values can be determined by an examination of their structure as well as, or better than, by any elaborate experiments."

The statement of the value of the forest productions and the density of forests, as shown by the maps, as well as other statistics given in Part 2, are based upon the returns received from an elaborate system of circulars sent out for the purpose; yet, in estimating the forest crop so many industries are insufficiently reported that the returns do not indicate its full value, which for the census year (1880) is reckoned at seven hundred millions of dollars. "Michigan is the greatest lumber-producing State," and the united lumber production of that State, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, "exceeds one-third of all the lumber manufactured in the United States." Wood is used for fuel in value to the amount of three hundred and twenty-two millions of dollars annually. During the year, also, it is estimated (and from the character of the returns the estimate is undoubtedly below the actual figures), that upward of ten and a quarter millions of acres of woodland were burned over, destroying timber to the value of twenty-five and one-half millions of dollars. Of the reported causes of these fires the largest number were, first, "farmers clearing land," followed in order by "hunters," "locomotives," and "malice." Though the destruction of timber is great, this loss is small compared with the injury done to the land which is burned over, for a long series of natural changes must be gone through with before a growth similar to the one destroyed can be produced. Browsing animals inflict an injury on the forests only exceeded by loss from fires, for they not only destroy all seedling trees, but they injure the bark and kill trees of maturer growth besides. In the production of railroad ties there is a very great destruction of trees in proportion to the amount of timber used, as on an average only two ties are produced from every tree cut down, and, as is the case with telegraph poles, they are taken from trees which would produce in time a far greater value as timber trees.

The forests of Maine are cited as illustrating the perfect practicability of forest protection. The prosperity of that State depends upon its forests, and where a community realizes this, fires are kept in subjection. The Maine forests, "once thought to be practically exhausted, still yield largely and continuously, and the public sentiment" which has rendered this possible "is the one hopeful symptom in the whole country that a change of feeling in regard to forest property is gradually taking place."

The forests perform a duty more important even than the production of lumber, by preventing the destructive work of mountain torrents, and by guarding and regulating the supply of water in our great rivers. In many cases the inaccessibility of these forests has heretofore preserved them, but it cannot do so much longer. Their destruction will be immediately followed by the ruin of rivers for navigation, irrigation, and mechanical purposes, the flooding of cities located on their banks, and the spoliation of large areas of the richest agricultural land. By the destruction of these protecting forests "the whole community will suffer widespread calamities which no precaution taken after the mischief has been done can avert nor future expenditure prevent." Notwithstanding the tremendous drain made upon our forests, they are capable for many years of yielding greater annual returns than have yet been reached. Changes must come in the lumber centres, and distribution by railroads will largely govern the regions from which lumber will be cut. On the Atlantic slope the Southern pine forests still contain vast quantities of valuable timber, and the hard-wood forests of West Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, and Tennessee have been but slightly reduced. In the Pacific region, the forests of Oregon and Washington Territory are practically intact, but the redwood, the only substitute for white pine, is rapidly disappearing, and, at the present rate of consumption, must soon cease to be of commercial importance. With the exception of these and the inaccessible forests of Arizona and New Mexico, the axe and fire have rendered the remaining forest regions of the country of secondary importance, although lumber will always be produced even from these in marketable quantities. Without doubt the forest wealth of the country is still enormous, yet not inexhaustible, and "in spite of their extent and variety, and the fact that the climatic conditions of a large portion of the country are peculiarly favorable to their growth, the forests of the United States cannot always continue productive if the simplest laws governing them are totally disregarded."

The forests of each State are taken up separately by Prof. Sargent, their nature and density being illustrated by thirty-two colored maps. In addition, sixteen large maps in the portfolio show the forest, prairie, and treeless regions, the natural divisions and relative density of the forests, and the distribution of all the important trees. These maps are finely executed, but on some of them the tints used to designate relative amounts differ so slightly that great care is required in referring to them. It is also to be regretted that the quality of the paper used for the text is so very poor. But these are trifling defects when the great practical value of the work is considered.

RECENT NOVELS.

Tarantella. By Mathilde Blind. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

The Crime of Christmas Day. By the author of 'My Ducats and My Daughter.' Harper's Franklin Square Library, and D. Appleton & Co.

Charley Kingston's Aunt. By Pen Oliver. Macmillan & Co.

The White Witch. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Stories by American Authors. Vol. IX. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Good Hater. A Novel. By Frederick Boyle. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Under Which King? A Novel. By Compton Reade. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The Wearing of the Green. A Novel. By Basil. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Philistia. A Novel. By Cecil Power. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Germinal. By Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.

Too much praise cannot be given to the honest and thoughtful execution of Miss Blind's first novel, 'Tarantella.' Though it has not the grace and charm of those works of fiction which are or seem to be spontaneous creations, it promises that intelligence and high purpose may in time do duty for imagination and impressionability. The opening pages, addressed to Spring, are unfortunate, being in sentiment superficial, in style labored and cold; and throughout the first book the fidelity of the delineation of South German life does not compensate for its lack of vitality. Not till the second book does the author show the heights to which she can rise, and indicate the peaks beyond to which she may aspire. There is a genuine sense of the picturesque and dramatic in making the destiny of a poor violinist, Emanuel, turn on a chance visit to Capri, where he plays for a beautiful girl, Antonella, so that, as the superstition goes, she may dance out the venom of a tarantula's bite. In the virtuoso's narrative of his life his nature is admirably revealed—better than the author knows, for her mistake is that she has thought him more of a man than she has made him. Emanuel, the nervous, the passionate, the selfish, has no seeds of greatness in him. He is the man to compose only a famous tarantella, not a symphony that shall echo grandly and forever. He is the man to love many women desperately, not one faithfully. In his transports of grief over the death of his last love, Minna Lichtenfeld, he is hysterical, not profound. The very variableness of his character is too rooted for us to believe that such a loss should steady him, or infuse into his work the "upward-soaring, heaven-aspiring" qualities ascribed to it. The power and present limitations of the author are equally evident in the drawing of Antonella. She comes on the scene first as the Countess Staraja; she occupies the *bel étage* in the house with Frau Professorin Lichtenfeld; she piques the gossips of the coffee parties, and patronizes the little Minna. She is a tarantula of a kind most attractive to the woman-novelist, and it would be interesting to know whether men avoid her as a model through discretion or disbelief in her existence. In her cruelty and infamy she is a type of a large class of women, born, let us say charitably, as destitute of moral sense as a savage. Antonella illustrates without exaggeration the monstrous possibilities of the type; but she is a collection of clever, unsparing generalizations, not a conspicuously imperfect individual. It is, however, pretty certain that no pen but the inspired Ouida's could cope successfully with her personal seductiveness, her "enervating perfumes," her "costly litter of Louis-Quinze fans," and her "bottles of attar of roses worth their weight in gold." Miss Blind's inaptitude for this tawdry and vulgar word-painting is obvious, and her failure alone redeems the effort.

To set a fashion in fiction, as in clothes, it is not so necessary to hit upon what people want as to recognize what they are tired of. The fashion in literature runs just as long as the thunder of the originator is cleverly stolen, as long as his disciples keep above the level of feeble or grotesque copyists. The sad deterioration in the followers of the great realists accounts in a measure for the success of such a brilliantly improbable story as 'Called Back,' and that success in its turn explains the rapid production of tales in which the mystery is the thing. The author of 'The Crime of Christmas Day' starts with a clear conception of the work before him, and with all the mental equipment needful to involve a hero in an apparently hopeless coil of trouble, and then extricate him with ease and naturalness. His first situation offers a thrilling emotional contrast. On the very day that the management of the Odéon accepts the comedy of a poor student of the Latin Quarter, he is confronted by the horror of arrest for the murder of his uncle. By fitting facts to theory ingeniously, a black case is made out against him, only to be demolished through the faith of a friend, the professional rivalry of a detective, and a more ingenious demonstration of theory by fact. The many fine points in the evidence against Girard are neatly explained away, and the only approach to failure in reconcilement of probabilities is in the blindness of two witnesses to the peculiarities of the Japanese physiognomy. The whole affair is managed swiftly, clearly, and precisely; the

reader has some sympathy with the characters as well as curiosity about the events, while the clean, coherent style has no more likeness to police-reports than is inseparable from the subject.

Several dull chapters concerning the home and college life of a medical student preface the mystery of 'Charley Kingston's Aunt.' This aunt, Mrs. Parkinson, is introduced in the dissecting room of a London hospital, an unclaimed body from Marylebone Workhouse. In this daring first stroke the author exhausts his inventive power. The methods employed by Kingston to trace his aunt from a luxurious home in Cleveland, Ohio, to her grievous end are stupid and hackneyed. And when Mrs. Parkinson's misfortunes are hinged on the loss of memory after a severe illness, the author infringes Conway's patent. The work, however, is not without originality which has been strangely diverted from its proper channel. Few authors, for instance, could construct a character from so slight a clue as a man's manner of knocking at a door, and probably fewer could detect in a plain tap a "brisk, incisive initiative, and gradual subsidence in delicate notes almost like a bar of Chopin."

The intrigue of 'The White Witch' is dark and involved from the beginning. Careful to employ every conceivable complication, the author sails on triumphantly to a deadlock. The reader is convinced that Miss Mary Dixon, the White Witch, is either an abandoned criminal hiding from justice, or a victim of cruel wrong and oppression. He is inclined to hope that she is guilty, and that eventually she will be hustled off to a penitentiary, where her Paris gowns may not console her, and where her voice, "one of those voices which the world waits for, cultivated as the world demands," will not win her any special consideration. But he is doomed to disappointment. The author has not the faintest idea how he shall get out of his labyrinth. He resorts to all sorts of humiliating shifts, and finally, in sheer desperation, makes out that Miss Dixon is neither wicked nor wronged, oblivious to the fact that he thus proves her a fool.

From "Young Strong of the *Clarion*," in the ninth volume of Scribner's Short Stories, we get a lively impression of Green's Ferry, California, and its "leading men." Both the humor and pathos in the embarrassments of a young editor whose paper is "a sort of voice crying in the wilderness about Reform," are forcibly suggested. Indeed, Young Strong is altogether such a manly and attractive fellow that he cannot easily slip from the memory of those who have once had a glimpse of him. The only other noteworthy story in the volume is Mr. Leonard Kip's "——mas Has Come." It is beautifully appreciative of the fascination of the sea, while the little mistake in the dénouement seems as happy to the reader as it was fatal to the hero.

There is certainly much variety in 'A Good Hater.' The weight of novelty is too great, in fact, for the lame and unreal story which is made to carry it. To be led from a brush with the Pathans in the Guaja Pass, through the hospitalities of Danebam Castle in the north of England, dinners and adventures in several quarters of London, love-making at the Bagni di Lucca, to shooting elephants and Ashantees in Africa, is an imposition on the most willing imagination. When the perplexities of a forged will, lost and mistaken identities, and the freaks of a mild Monte Cristo are added, one is ready to cry "Enough," and let *Macbeth's* curse light where it will. In the same way that he is too profuse with his wealth of material, Mr. Boyle is too persistent with his liveliness, and one has the unpleasant sensation of associating with frivolous people in complicated situations. The continual chatter of characters that are too shallow to be cynical, and too sophisticated to be simple, grows tiresome, in spite of the deep plot and the marvellous gold ornaments of the Ashantee braves. Then the essential thing, after all, in a mysterious novel is not that the characters should be anything in particular, but rather that the story should be well rounded off at the end with every point adequately and logically explained. As Mr. Boyle has told his story, however, things refuse to explain themselves, except in a half-way fashion, and one is left to the worry of speculation.

Although it is inevitable that it should be so, now that so many novels are written, it is still interesting to notice how readily their pages reflect the more obvious movements of the time. Two of the late issues of the Franklin Square Library might almost be called tendency novels, while a third, by Compton Reade, has for a heroine "the unearned increment—the tract of land which the labor of centuries" and the growth of the London market had centupled in value. In spite of his strange heroine, Mr. Reade is obliged to revert to the stale incident of changelings to give his unearned increment a bit of human interest; but for the machinery of his story Irish agitators, dynamite, impossible Americans, and murder by typhus germs are fresh and ready to his hand. Vivisection, too, and the æsthete come in for their share of attention, and had the author gone about with a special purpose he could not well have got together a worse lot of people—from the true heir of the unearned increment to Father L'Isle, the Christian Socialist. Naturalness, of course, is not to be expected of one to whom a pill is a "bolus," and eating a "process of deglutition." But improbability is carried quite too far when the æsthete bargains to have the heir put out of the way, and then languidly explains his plans to his betrothed and to several of his friends; while the height of preposterous impossibility is reached when a judge of the United States Court, with a telegraphic warrant from the President, heads a lynching mob in California. Henry George will not receive much help from such weak and ill-considered attempts as this.

'The Wearing of the Green' is written with such a determined effort to present the Irish question that it is doubtful which is meant to be chief—the story or the moral. As far as the politics are concerned, nothing is said which has not been heard many times since Burke. The recital of Ireland's wrongs may gain emphasis when it comes from the lips of Miss Norah Wyndham—who knows her country's history with commendable accuracy—and is strengthened by the example of her own perilous adventures and the narrow escape of her love-affair from disaster; but it is a list that from much going over has lost its impressiveness. And as Miss Wyndham is finally left happy, with her lover triumphantly acquitted of complicity in an agrarian murder, one is apt to forget the misery of the peasantry in the contemplation of her pleasant fate; and, when thinking of the earlier chapters at all, to remember only the numerous and obscurely drawn quotations, the tedious explanations, and the extravagance with which the minor characters are invariably painted. The sarcasm which the author breaks into whenever England or things English are under discussion is amusing, it is so bitter; though often it is not wholly unjust.

There is a quiet, pleasant tone about 'Philistia' which recommends it to one's liking in spite of an occasional straining of the socialistic note. If Ernest le Breton is somewhat tiresome at first, in the pertinacity with which he obtrudes his socialism on all with whom he comes in contact, we forgive him afterward for the troubles his conscientiousness and his principles bring him into, and for his quiet resignation and gentleness under their weight. The main thread of the story runs very simply. Le Breton is driven by his opinions from his tutorship of Lord Exmoor's son, and then from his schoolmastership, on the strength of which he had married, into journalism. Here, but for the help of friends, he was like to have starved, again on account of his opinions, until the success of his pamphlet on the poor of London brought him prosperity and the editorship of a socialist paper. The tale is told mildly, yet with vivid incidents and with minor threads ingeniously woven in, that make it full of interest. There is no study of a social phase, as in 'Alton Locke,' no sensational use of socialistic organizations, as in 'Sunrise'; but merely the recognition that there is a new faith growing up which is already strong enough to be the guiding motive in the lives of some men of culture and breadth, as well as men of narrow and intense ideas.

On being interviewed, recently, by a Parisian reporter, the author of 'Germinal' said: "I wished to paint the miner, and in order to do so truthfully I consulted documents everywhere. The Parliamentary inquiry into the condition of the English miners has been of much service to me. I believe I have described the miners as they are." And further: "My book is a work of pity, nothing more, and I shall be content if my readers experience this sensation." It is well that we should know from M. Zola's own lips what his object was in writing 'Germinal,' for, if we discover no literary merit in the vulgar style he adopts whenever he is not describing nature, we may still ask, Has he attained that commendable object? The picture he draws of the wretchedness of the poor miners and their families is certainly calculated to excite pity, but this feeling gives way to one of disgust when he describes the sufferers as living in a state of moral depravation too general, too complete, to be true. Not one of the numerous characters—miners or bourgeois—has the faintest notion of virtue, of chastity, of common decency. The plot culminates in a dramatic situation similar to that so touchingly described by Hector Malot in 'Sans Famille'—the entombing alive of a number of miners. Here M. Zola has some thrilling passages. We forget for the moment the coarse vulgarity that fills the preceding five hundred pages. In the presence of death, the hero and heroine will surely show the better side of their nature. They have been twelve days in this living tomb; nine of these days they have passed clinging to a narrow ledge, with their feet in the icy-cold water, and without a morsel of food. They are exhausted, dying. M. Zola fills that supreme hour—the last of the poor girl who will never more see the sun—with a coarse picture of sensual passion. How very natural!

English and French statistics, and for that matter the statistics of any country, show that ignorance and corruption go hand in hand; but neither in England nor in France could there be found a community so depraved, so utterly God-forsaken as that of M. Zola's miners. A picture of wickedness without a single redeeming feature is not true art; much less is it true to nature. Where the shadow is darkest it is made so by contrast with the light. There is no such thing as utter darkness. When Eugene Sue described the slums of Paris with all their crimes and vices, he made us shudder without making us blush, and, side by side with these hideous pictures, he showed us native honesty, instinctive chastity. He painted with a master hand the humble virtues of the people, of the much maligned working classes; and public opinion said the picture was true. Zola understands patriotism and humanity in a different way. He claims to be a naturalist, and is therefore supposed to paint

French nature, since he writes about Frenchmen and French women. To speak only of the books that have bronght him notoriety, if not fame, in 'L'Assommoir' he traduced the Parisian workmen; in 'Nana' he dragged the aristocracy in the mire; in 'Pot-Bouille' the *bourgeoisie* was defamed. We have just seen what he thinks of the most wretched class of working people—*toujours sans exception*. His next novel, he says, will describe artist life, but the great work he has in contemplation is one on the French peasant. When that is done, he will have thrown mud on every class of Frenchmen. It is true that every handful of mud brought him a handful of gold; but will it always be so? 'Pot-Bouille' was a failure; 'Germinal' is another. Obscenity may grow tedious as do many better things.

The Letters and Times of the Tylers. By Lyon G. Tyler. In two volumes. Vol. I. Richmond, Va.: Whittet & Shepperson. 1884.

THIS work possesses a great and almost unique interest—a history of our Government from the beginning of the Revolution to the year 1840, from the point of view of a single Virginia family. Judge John Tyler died in 1813, having been prominent in the affairs of his State from the establishment of independence; and immediately thereafter his son, afterward President, entered into public life. "State-rights" is the governing principle of the careers of both these distinguished men; and so strongly is the author impressed with this fact, that he insists that the Whig party, to which for a short time the younger Tyler was attached, was, in its origin, "properly a State-rights party—formed out of a hotchpot of opposition." There is something to be said for this view, of course, as there is for all paradoxes, for the party of State-rights, when it has been in power, has always grasped at national authority, and never more so than under the lead of Jackson; but it is a misinterpretation of history to represent the temporary revolt of a few State-rights men like John Tyler against the one-man power of a despot like Jackson as the real foundation of the Whig party.

If the younger Tyler has a more conspicuous place, and a greater name, in history than his father, it must be confessed that his father presents in these pages an even more interesting subject to the student of American history. Probably no man embodied more thoroughly the doctrine of State sovereignty which at this period found its chief home in Virginia; and we have never found this doctrine stated more vigorously and uncompromisingly than in these pages. In his utterances we have the expression of the dominant political principle of the most influential State in the Union; and as a running comment upon public events for the whole period between the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812, these utterances possess the highest value. The boldest statement of these views we find on page 257: "Ever since the day he appeared in the Legislature of his native State he had stood out for the doctrine that the Revolution had reduced men to a state of nature, dissolving them from all allegiance to the King, and from all laws and governments not made their own by express adoption." And again (p. 259): "Judge Tyler, who thoroughly believed in the international character of the Union, and saw no mean between a consolidation and a league, had acutely felt the necessity of eradicating the whole influence of the English law and European attachments." He opposed vehemently Chief-Justice Marshall's view of the authority of the common law; and, when sitting as his associate in the Circuit Court in 1811, "it was," we are told, "no difficult task for him to pierce through the intentions of Marshall, and tear away every cobweb he had woven to catch the public fly" (p. 256). Not merely Marshall, but Washington, was consistently distrusted and opposed by him, and we read (p. 211) that "with Virginians it is a disputed question which has superior claims to his title, 'Father of his Country,' Washington or Jefferson." And in 1810 Judge Tyler wrote that "in General Washington's time, under the insurrection, as it was called, some very strong military usurpations were exercised" (p. 245).

The slavery question, too, finds an interesting commentary here, in some remarks (p. 155) about the change of attitude of Virginia upon the subject. The author apologizes for this by saying: "Expression, 'tis true, during the Revolution was more open than at a later day, but this was due to the obvious reason that the forces seeking the extermination of the evil operated mostly at home, and did not originate in a section of the country hostile to Southern interests. . . . Southern statesmen soon learned that openly denouncing slavery was merely playing into the hands of their bitterest enemies." Very well; but will any one assert that there were forces at work, at the time that Garrison began his agitation, which would have led to the peaceful abolition of slavery? It may be noted here that Nat Turner's rebellion is not alluded to, and that the South Carolina nullification movement is passed over very cursorily.

This volume contains an excellent portrait of Judge Tyler, and one of President Tyler when Governor of Virginia, at the age of thirty-five. The volume ends with his election to the Vice-Presidency in 1840, and the second volume may be expected speedily.

Memoirs of Rufus Choate. With some consideration of his Studies, Methods, and Opinions, and of his Style as a Speaker and Writer. By Joseph Neilson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THIS volume consists of a series of essays by different hands. They contain reminiscences of Mr. Choate as a lawyer and as a public man, discussions of his style, learning, and manner of dealing with juries, and accounts of his connection with some noted cases. Judge Lord, of Boston, for instance, gives a conversation with Mr. Choate as to the trial of Webster for the murder of Dr. Parkman, which throws an interesting light on his notions of professional obligations. It seems that Mr. Choate did not appear in the case because they "did not want him," and they did not want him because he insisted on their making an admission which they were, no doubt, afraid to make. There was but one way, he explained, to try the case:

> "When the Attorney-General was opening the case to the jury, and came to the discussion of the identity of the remains found in the furnace with those of Dr. Parkman, the prisoner's counsel should have arisen and said substantially that in a case of this importance, of course, counsel had no right to concede any point, or make any admission, or fail to require proof, and then have added: 'But we desire the Attorney-General to understand, upon the question of these remains, that *the struggle will not be there*. But, assuming that Doctor Parkman came to his death within the laboratory on that day, we desire the Government to show whether it was by visitation of God, or whether, in an attack made by the deceased upon the prisoner, the act was done in self-defence, or whether it was the result of a violent altercation. Possibly the idea of murder may be suggested, but not with more reason than apoplexy, or other form of sudden death. As the prisoner himself cannot speak, the real controversy will probably be narrowed to the alternative of justifiable homicide in self-defence, or of manslaughter by reason of sudden altercation.'"

Professor Webster would not listen to any such defence, and, though Mr. Choate did not say so to Judge Lord, the inference must have been irresistible that he refused because he knew very well that Doctor Parkman had not come to his death by visitation of God, nor in any other of the innocent ways suggested. It is clear enough, however, that had Mr. Choate's suggested hypothesis been the correct one, an innocent man might possibly, after the accidental death, have resorted to concealment, denial, and all sorts of shifts for disposing of the remains. But Professor Webster, blinded by guilt and fear, could not see this, and made the fatal mistake of denying the existence of the *corpus delicti*. Mr. Choate's analysis of motives was perfectly correct. Denying what he should have admitted, Webster was detected in a falsehood, in face of a grave accusation involving his life. After that his case was hopeless.

Shrewd and far-seeing as Mr. Choate's suggestions were, there is nothing in them more interesting than the insight they give into his professional conscience. As in the case of most great advocates, he evidently took little or no interest in the moral question of guilt or innocence, but was governed entirely by professional considerations as to what "twelve men in a box" could be fairly induced to believe with regard to guilt or innocence. If he could present to them an argument for a verdict of not guilty based on a hypothesis consistent with the evidence, he did not care whether his client had committed murder or not; but to misrepresent the evidence, or rely on evidence which would not be forthcoming, would be a sin against his profession. It is because laymen will not discriminate between the professional and the lay point of view that they do not understand the views taken by great lawyers like Mr. Choate of professional responsibility.

East by West. A Journey in the Recess. By Henry W. Lucy. In 2 vols. London: R. Bentley. 1885. 8vo.

MR. LUCY, the well-known *Daily News* correspondent and "Toby, M. P.," of *Punch*, made, we opine, a mistake in visiting this country first in his journey around the world. Had he travelled "West by East," coming to California from Japan, instead of taking the opposite direction, he would have been in a better condition to appreciate what there is worthy of notice in a ride across the United States. In this case we believe he would have written something worth reading about us. As it is, a large part of his account of New York, which "is one of the sombrest looking cities in the world," is taken up with a scene at the "customs sheds" and his experience with a hack-driver. Naturally he has something forcible to say about the condition of the streets, but we question whether a two or three weeks' stay in the country, the greater part of which was necessarily passed in the cars, justifies his conclusion that a disregard of the cleanliness of the streets is "innate in the American character." Mr. Lucy is always entertaining, and it is disappointing that so keen an observer, with such a graphic pen, should leave distinctive characteristics unnoticed, and dwell persistently on the fact that Americans habitually sit with their feet on tables or lamp-posts. He is content to fill his pages with time-worn stories of train-robbers, cow-boys, and the various methods in which justice is defeated in mining towns, to the neglect of more valuable information. The only chapters of the ten devoted to this country worth noting are those on Salt Lake City and his interview with President Taylor, and on the labor question on the Pacific Coast as affected by the legislation against the Chinese. These contain condensed statements of facts of considerable value. The account of the home-returning Chinamen on board steamer is interesting, as is also everything which Mr. Lucy writes about Japan. Spe-

cial facilities for sight-seeing were granted him here, as well as the very rare honor of being presented to the Mikado himself. The romantic story of Ito and Inouyé, the energetic ministers who "are the founders and the sustaining forces" of "the policy of the present Government," is well told from the lips of the latter. With both of these gentlemen he had frequent intercourse, and the chapter in which he sums up the general condition of the empire is the most valuable in his book. The confidence in the Government is shown in the almost unexampled rise, "even more rapid than that of greenbacks or Italian notes," in the value of the paper money. His descriptions of the more familiar Indian scenes, though excellently done, need no special comment. A vein of humor, breaking out in odd and unexpected places, it should be said in closing, makes these volumes very agreeable reading.

Geschichte der Litteratur Nordamerikas. Von Eduard Engel. Leipzig: W. Friedrich. 1884. Small 8vo, pp. 68.

THE proverbial advantage of seeing ourselves as others see us, is, we suppose, based on the supposition that others will regard us in a light not only more impartial, but also, from the nature of the case, less favorable than our own judgment would be. Only in this way, it has been observed, can the hide of national self-complacency be pierced and the light of truth enabled to enter. But any one who takes up Mr. Engel's little work in the expectation of being thus edified will be disappointed. It is not, indeed, exclusively panegyric, but the interruptions to the even tenor of the author's praise are rare, and with these few exceptions the flattery is laid on thick enough to have made even John Neal blush. Mr. Engel (who has also written an extensive history of "English" literature) admits that our British ancestors accomplished considerable in this line, but

> "A comparison of the present condition of literature in the two countries compels us to say that a good book in the English language is, as a rule, an American book. In America there is a considerable body of authors, who, if they are to be credited with nothing extraordinary, at any rate produce highly respectable works, while England, as regards literature, is almost a desert. . . . As regards belles-lettres, American competition is approaching the colossal dimensions of its achievements in material matters."

From Franklin down, continues Mr. Engel, American authors have been easily distinguished from the British contemporaries, "more sharply separated than the German authors of Austria and Switzerland from those of the Empire." Yet it is not the language which betrays the nationality—at least not in the way a Britisher, as Mr. Freeman calls his countrymen, would suppose, for "the American English, in good books, is in no way distinguishable from British English. Only the pronunciation is sharply different, that of the Americans being the purer." Mr. Engel, however, candidly admits that considerable changes have been made in the tongue through the incorporation of foreign elements, "notably the German and the Chinese." And, best of all, the people is worthy of its language and literature, for the despised "Yankees *buy* their authors' books, famous or not famous, in quantities beyond even the imagination of the nation of thinkers and poets. . . . A more or less known American author is, under all circumstances, well-to-do"—a fact which the Copyright League will agree with Mr. Engel in thinking equivalent to intellectual independence. Nor are our public libraries forgotten, "which owe their existence exclusively to the noble public spirit of individuals."

The poets considered by Mr. Engel are "Dana, Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Whitman, Stoddard, Taylor, Dorgan, Miller, Osgood." His countrymen regard Longfellow as the first of these in merit—superior even to Dorgan, though Mr. Engel does not emphasize the latter fact. "But in imagination and power of expression, he is greatly inferior to Poe, and he lacks what, for a great poet, is the most essential of all things, originality." In reading Longfellow "we are frequently conscious of having read it all before. Keynotes, emotions, individual expressions, sound much too familiar." As to Whittier, Mr. Engel thinks he is the only one of the older poets whose popularity is likely to be lasting. "Whitman has not written a single *poem*." His productions are prose "of poetic character," clad in a garb "which is neither prose nor poetry." Stoddard, in his way, is a master and has great originality. But Mr. Engel's hero is Poe, who is not lumped with the common herd of Longfellows and Dorgans. "*No* American poet approaches him. His poems fill only a thin little volume, but this outweighs many tomes of Bryant, Longfellow, and Taylor"; as to fame, "Bret Harte is his only rival." It will be observed that Emerson, Lowell, and Holmes are here not even mentioned, though it is elsewhere said of the first named (who, nevertheless, has a chapter all to himself) that he "is hardly to be spoken of as a poet."

Another chapter is devoted to novelists, and a third to humorists. Mr. Engel has a high opinion of Cooper, and remarks of Hawthorne that he resembles Scott more than Cooper does, and that, in knowledge of the human soul, he is the equal of Bulwer. Howells and James receive two lines each, but Mr. Cable is favored with a more detailed notice. It seems that the latter "busies himself with the description of the American 'aristocracy,' the great families on the Eastern coast, descended from the Puritans of 1620, or the Dutch settlers." Our author evidently feels what he says when he adds that his books "assume a too close acquaintance with American social conditions to be of interest to the European reader." Next to Poe, Mr. Engel places most value on the works of Mark Twain. Such authors, he says, are a gift of merciful heaven, which sends these sunbeams into the gloom of modern life. Leland, too, is very funny in his pidgin English poems, "but we cannot perceive anything humorous in these [Hans Breitmann] which have won him a great reputation in America. Average numbers of *Fliegende Blätter* or *Kladderadatsch* contain more wit and humor than these ballads."

We have only to add that Mr. Engel's style is agreeable, that his little book is beautifully printed (in Roman type), and that we have detected very few misprints or errors of pure fact. People who abhor spelling reform will object to the "mangled" words, deprived, as they are, of the familiar silent "h" and "e," but the public will have to get used to changes like these.

Educazione Moderna. Per N. Fornelli. Turin. 1884. 8vo.

THE common-school education in Italy a generation ago was exclusively intrusted to the Catholic Church and the monastic orders, especially the Jesuits, who monopolized it, though not at the expense of their order, as some suppose, but of the several States into which Italy was then divided. It was free, but confined to a very limited number of the male population, viz., the middle class—for the aristocracy never allowed their boys to attend the public schools, but employed priest-tutors at home, while the mechanic and lower classes were absolutely illiterate. As to the girls, it was considered sufficient, both in the upper and middle class, if they knew enough to read and write correctly, which they learned either at home or in some nunnery. Statistics show that thirty years ago only three per cent. of the Italian girls knew their letters.

The change that has taken place since the revolution of 1848, which culminated in the unity of Italy in 1870, is most marvellous. As every liberal government succeeded to the old despotism, its first act was the secularization, so called, of the public instruction; that is, the withdrawal of it from the monopoly of the Church and the Jesuits, and intrusting it to the hands of lay instructors of both sexes in the regular pay of the Government, with tenure of office and promotions like other civil officials, extending it to all classes, even the lowest, both males and females. It has not yet been made obligatory, but a bill is pending in Parliament to that effect, and without doubt will be acted upon before long. Remarkable among others is the Government provision that the large number of military conscripts, which includes all the able-bodied youth of the nation, unless they already know their letters, are made to read and write during their three years of service; for which purpose, officers are detailed to give daily instruction in the primary branches, and no conscript can be discharged from the army or navy unless he has first acquired his letters.

Naturally in such a new departure in public instruction, and its extension to the whole population, many new systems and methods have been adopted, much confusion has arisen, and evident errors have been committed in the training of youthful minds; for, if the old priestly system was too strict, pedantic, and dogmatic, the new one, in its sudden transition from slavery to freedom, has assumed a too radical, unbridled, and arbitrary form. Mr. Fornelli's book is a philosophical and scientific exposition of a middle course between these two extremes. He is a public instructor of experience and learning, already well known for other publications of a more rudimentary nature. In this, however, which is intended for teachers and the literati, he sums up with philosophical acumen all the experience of such progressive nations as France, Germany, England, and especially the United States on this subject, and from the writings of such men as Taine, Spencer, Mill, and others on mental culture; deducing, for the instruction of his countrymen, the true method to adopt in the public schools. Of course, this, for us, is a twice-told tale, for the maxims inculcated in the book have been household words among us for a century back; but it gives us good hopes for the future mental and moral culture of Italy when such books are published, and their teachings spread among the educators of that country.

Philips's Historical Readers. No. 1—Stories from English History. No. 2—Early England, to 1154. No. 3—Middle England, 1154 to 1603. No. 4—Modern England, 1600 to 1884. Boston: School Supply Company.

THE idea which lies at the bottom of these readers is that expressed by Mr. Mill, in his St. Andrew's address, that no one "ever really learned history and geography except by private reading." Another sentiment, too, is growing among thoughtful people—that our ordinary scrappy school readers, while well adapted to secure a variety of elocutionary drill, are very insufficient for the other objects to be aimed at in reading-books; and that they should be, if not superseded, yet relegated to a less conspicuous place in a system of education, and supplemented by books of a different type. The books before us will be very serviceable in this direction. They are not adapted to the youngest classes—even No. 1 requires considerable mental preparation—and the style of all is a little heavy, but serious

and stimulating, and very healthy reading for our young people. A considerable proportion of the notes might have been advantageously incorporated in the text. Notes are at best a necessary evil, and the story ought so far as possible to explain itself.

Kentucky: a Pioneer Commonwealth. [American Commonwealths.] By N. S. Shaler. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

THE several volumes of "American Commonwealths" are characterized by a freshness and individuality which bear testimony as well to intelligent editorship as to skill and industry in composition. And no one of the books is more marked in these qualities than Professor Shaler's 'Kentucky.' He does not venture, he says, to call it a history—he is, indeed, a geologist rather than an historian; but he is a loyal son of his native State, and has written its annals with pride and affection. It is, no doubt, true that no one of the younger States has a more marked individuality, or has had a more distinguished career, than Kentucky; and Mr. Shaler has taken especial pains to point out the service it rendered to the Union at the most critical period of its history. If Kentucky's most eminent citizen was called "the great compromiser," the State itself, by the peculiarity of its situation and the conservatism of its inhabitants, was led at various times to a similarly compromising attitude; and its course at this juncture, a very characteristic one, is described by Mr. Shaler with great care and at considerable length. The Peace Congress and the Crittenden Compromise are passed over with a mere mention, as belonging rather to national than State history; but, after all, this movement was so prominently a Kentucky movement that it deserved a fuller treatment. The civil war is narrated with considerable fulness, so far as relates to Kentucky. The two chapters which follow—"The Struggle for Civil Government" and "The New Commonwealth"—are admirable discussions of the new problems, although reconstruction, an event of the first interest in the history of this State, is passed over rather cursorily. The appendix contains, among other things, an authentic copy of the Kentucky Resolutions, derived from the Massachusetts archives—the original record having been destroyed by fire, and it having been generally believed "that no attested copy of the original was in existence."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Stories by American Authors.—X. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Stowe, Harriet Beecher. Pink and White Tyranny. New ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Stoughton, J. Religion in England from 1800 to 1850: a History, with a Postscript on Subsequent Events. Two vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $5.
Street's Indian and Colonial Mercantile Directory for 1884-5. Tenth Issue. London: Street & Co.; New York. S. M. Pettengill & Co. $7.
Taussig, Dr. F. W. The History of the Present Tariff 1860-1883. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Taylor, Rev. Wm. M. John Knox. With Portrait. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Tennyson, Lord. The Children's Hospital. A. D. F. Randolph. 40 cents.
The Open Door; The Portrait: Two Stories of the Seen and the Unseen. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Thomson, J. Through Masai Land: a Journey of Exploration in Eastern Equatorial Africa. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Timayenis, T. T. Greece in the Times of Homer. D. Appleton & Co. $1 50.
Toppan, R. N. Historical Summary of Metallic Money. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Tucker, G. F. The Monroe Doctrine. A Concise History of Its Origin and Growth. Boston: George B. Reed. $1.25.
United States Blue Book. Washington: C. H. Pettit & Co. 50 cents.
Verrall, A. W. Studies, Literary and Historical, in the Odes of Horace. Macmillan & Co. $2 25.
Walford, E. Greater London: A Narrative of its History, its People, and its Places. Illustrated. Vol. II. Cassell & Co. $4.
Warner, C. D. My Summer in a Garden. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wauters, Prof. A. J. The Flemish School of Painting. Cassell & Co. $2.
Winter, W. Henry Irving. George J. Coombes. $1.25.
Welcker, A. Romer, King of Norway, and Other Dramas. Sacramento: Lewis & Johnston.
Zola, Émile. Germinal. Translated by Carlynne. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Zola, É. Germinal. F. W. Christern.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 9, 1885.

The Week.

THE first month of President Cleveland's Administration is ended, and even his enemies must admit that it finds him complete master of the situation. We do not believe that any previous President has accomplished so much in so short a time. He came into office one month ago, not merely as a new President, but as the first Democratic President in twenty-four years. His accession meant a complete transfer of the Government from the hands of one great party to the other, and there were thousands of people who believed implicitly that such a transfer would be little less than a violent political revolution. In addition to this, the new President came in as the pledged opponent of the old spoils system, and consequently as the avowed antagonist of a large section of his own party. Here were difficulties of enormous proportions, but there was still another to be added. All his appointments were subject to the approval of a Republican Senate. There were not wanting hostile critics who were sure that inevitable disaster awaited an Administration so confronted. How could a President who had never had any experience in national politics, they reasoned, meet and overcome obstacles like these?

What is the situation to-day? The Senate has adjourned without a wrangle, without a division over a single appointment. The army of office-seekers has gone home empty-handed and hopeless. There has been a political revolution, but a peaceful one. The death-blow has been given to the spoils system, and given without splitting the President's political party. The press of all parties is practically unanimous in saying that the general course of the Administration has been patriotic, and that in all matters of supreme import it has met the test without faltering. To comprehend fully what has been achieved it is only necessary to look back four years. What was the situation on April 4, 1881? Had the Senate gone home, and was Washington at peace? Not by any means. The nominations of Mr. Robertson for Collector and William E. Chandler for Solicitor-General were pending before the Republican Senate, and one of the bitterest factional quarrels ever known in the politics of this country was raging within the Republican ranks. The White House was besieged by office-seekers, and the Republican press of the country was divided into two hostile camps. The fight grew in bitterness till the middle of May, when Senators Conkling and Platt resigned. It was not till eight weeks after the appointment was made that Mr. Robertson was confirmed and the nomination of Mr. Chandler was rejected. The Senate adjourned on May 20, but it did not leave peace in Washington. The factional fight was continued there and at Albany, and culminated in the shooting of Garfield by a weak-brained and disappointed office-seeker on July 2.

The President's letter about the Rome Postmastership is one of those clear and forcible statements which are characteristic of him. It not only goes straight to the point in this particular case, but furnishes a general principle which can be laid down as the rule of the Administration in its treatment of postmasters everywhere. He says:

> "I shall do all that is in my power to rid the public service of officials who exhibit such loose ideas of their duty to the Government. The fact that I have before me documents signed by many residents of the city where this Postmaster is located, and who belong to both political parties, asserting their entire confidence in his honesty and fidelity, demonstrates the unfortunate facility with which such papers may be obtained, and gives rise to an unpleasant suspicion touching a too prevalent standard of political honesty."

Nobody doubts that the "too prevalent standard of political honesty" is a very low one. The Rome Postmaster made no other defence of his loose bookkeeping, which disclosed a deficiency of over $700 in the money-order business, than that he had trusted the management of his office entirely to his assistant. The Postmaster-General says he thinks that this idea that a postmaster can trust the business of the office to a clerk while he attends to other matters, is a very general one, which it is his intention to dispel. It is an outcome of the belief which has been dominant in the country for years, that the office of postmaster was primarily a political one, his first duties being to the party which had appointed him. He was to "run" the party organization in the town, act as agent for the party newspapers, and leave the business of his office to the clerks.

The affidavit in which Mr. Pearson disposed of the charges against him has been published in the *Times*, and is a very remarkable document. It shows with painful clearness that an attempt was made to get rid of him by the Post-office Department on charges which the Department itself knew to be false. The accusations were filed with President Arthur in March, 1883, being the result of a secret investigation of which Mr. Pearson had no knowledge, and in which he was given no opportunity to be heard. They were referred to Attorney-General Brewster, who, on the strength of them, though having seen only one side of the case, gave an opinion recommending Mr. Pearson's removal. Three months later a personal letter from Postmaster-General Gresham first acquainted Mr. Pearson with the information that such charges had been made, and had been for some time in the hands of the District-Attorney in New York. He at once sent a complete answer, in which he showed that not only were the charges against him—viz., that he had been interested in certain local despatch companies—false, but that a year before the charges were made he had on three occasions written to the Department urging upon it the necessity of taking steps to break up the business of these very companies, and in each instance had received replies disapproving his recommendations. One of these letters was addressed to the First Assistant Postmaster-General, Frank Hatton, and a reply received, like that in the other cases, discouraging further activity in this direction on the Postmaster's part. These three letters and replies must have been in the possession of the Post-office Department at the time when the accusations against Mr. Pearson were laid before the Attorney-General, but they were not, Mr. Pearson believes, alluded to in the report of the investigation, nor was the fact of their existence made known to Mr. Brewster. We should like to ask, in the interest of public information, whether or not this correspondence is on file in the Post-office Department, or whether Mr. Brewster's opinion is the only phase of the case which has been preserved?

The comments of the Democratic newspapers of this State upon the reappointment of Mr. Pearson have been most significant. With a single unimportant exception, they heartily commend the President's act. The one Democratic paper which objects, and which declares with deep feeling that the "time is ripe for an anti-humbug crusade" against the "further encroachments of these so-called 'reform' associations, composed of dudes, theorists, aristocrats, and fanatics," is the Buffalo *Times*, a journal of small circulation and very limited influence, whose editor claims to have "discovered Cleveland," and as a reward for his claim is an applicant for the position of Public Printer. The tone of his comments indicates a fear that his claim is not likely to be recognized. Every other newspaper in the party appears to be happy over the President's course, so that the demand for an "anti-reform crusade" is confined to one Democratic paper and one Butler paper, the *Sun*. That is a small beginning, but it is large enough for a nucleus. If the people are really "ripe" for the crusade, one man is enough to start it. A public meeting in this city would test the question, especially if it were presided over by the editor of the *Sun*. He declined to act upon the suggestion to call such a meeting before the reappointment of Mr. Pearson was made, but there is no excuse for declining now. If the Democratic party is in the condition of wrath which his paper and that of his friend in Buffalo say it is, it would be simply an act of mercy to afford it vent for its feelings.

Outside of New York State the tone of the press of all parties is no less noteworthy. We have yet to see a newspaper, which is in any sense a representative one, that does not warmly commend the President's act. Now we presume that few persons will deny that an act which is so generally praised must be a popular one, and that if it is a popular one it will draw support to the Administration and the party which is responsible for it. The hated Mugwumps may be poor managers and very wild theorists, but we do not recall at this moment any recommendation of a really practical politician which has exceeded in popularity this Mugwump doctrine of appointments based upon fitness. The politicians rage about it, of course, but even they will be glad to "point with pride" to it on the stump this fall. A great deal of their rage is undoubtedly due to a

realization that an act of this kind is a precedent which marks an advance to a higher standard of administration. They, whether they be Democrats or Republicans, are conscious that if this thing goes on during the four years of President Cleveland's Administration, there will be no more hope for them forever. No matter what may be the politics of his successor, the country will never tolerate a retrogression from the standard thus fixed.

None of President Cleveland's appointments has been a better illustration of his desire not only to reform, but to do justice, than his promotion of Mr. Lewis McMullen to the Appraisership at this port. Mr. McMullen has filled the place of Examiner in the Appraisers' Department for thirty years. For knowledge of metals he has probably no superior, if any equal, either in the Custom-house or the country. He is and always has been a Democrat, but has been so useful that he has had no difficulty in keeping his place through twenty-five years of Republican Administration. To promotion he was of course entitled twice over, but promotion the Republicans took care he should not get, and his avowed sympathy with the competitive system probably injured rather than helped him. When a vacancy occurred in the Assistant-Appraisership last year, President Arthur, instead of giving it to Mr. McMullen, as the interests of the service required, gave it to a much younger man in the same department, and a much inferior one as a judge of metals, who, however, enjoyed the advantage of being Barney Biglin's brother.

We fear the Administration has made a serious mistake in the appointment of Mr. W. R. Roberts to the Chilian legation. Unless we are much mistaken, he is the W. R. Roberts who was very prominent in promoting the Fenian invasion of Canada in 1866, and was arrested by the United States authorities as one of its leaders. It is difficult to say whether the crime or folly of that enterprise was the more marked. It began in a swindle, for it extracted money from the poorer Irish for purposes which the leaders must have well known were unattainable. It ended in a wretched attempt to cross the Canadian border in hostile array, which spread alarm among the unoffending farmers on the other side of the line, cost the Canadian taxpayers a considerable sum, and would have resulted in bloodshed but for a poltroonery on the part of the Fenian forces which brought ridicule on the Irish name all over the world. The serious part of it, as concerns Mr. Roberts, is, that it showed his sense of obligation to his adopted country and his respect for international law to be so feeble as to make it almost unseemly to despatch him on any diplomatic mission as a representative of the United States. He allowed himself, we believe, to be elected in 1866 as a successor to O'Mahony, "President of the Irish Republic," an organization which had its headquarters in Union Square, and was really little better than a "bucket-shop," for it sold "bonds of the Irish Republic" to poor servant girls, well knowing them to be worthless. Mr. Roberts was confirmed by the Senate, and we deeply regret that these facts of his history were not discovered in time to lay them before that body.

The request made by the Commissioner of Pensions to Miss Ada C. Sweet, Pension Agent at Chicago, for her resignation, coupled as it is with an expression of entire satisfaction with her management of the office, savors strongly of the spoils system, and appears to be in contravention of President Cleveland's letter to the Civil-Service Reform League. In this letter Mr. Cleveland distinctly indicated his purpose not to remove faithful non-partisan officers during their respective terms merely to make places for other persons. Miss Sweet's term does not expire until April, 1886. She has certainly not used her place for political ends. She is not even a voter. A good deal of interest was attracted to her during President Hayes's term by an effort, seconded by a powerful array of "influence," to displace her in order to make room for Mrs. Mulligan, the widow of the late General Mulligan. Secretary Schurz opposed the change on grounds of civil-service reform, and retained Miss Sweet against all the pressure that could be brought to bear upon him by the Illinois Senators. Miss Sweet has declined to accommodate the Commissioner with her resignation, and the question now comes up, "Shall she be removed?" This can only be decided by the President. When he comes to examine the case and compare it with the text of his letter, we presume that he will at least allow Miss Sweet to retain her place till her commission expires.

By the treaty of 1848 New Granada, which contains the Isthmus of Panama, guaranteed to the United States that "the right of way or transit across the Isthmus of Panama upon any modes of communication that then existed, or that might thereafter be constructed, should be open and free to the Government and citizens of the United States, for the transportation of any articles of produce, manufacture, or merchandise of lawful commerce, belonging to the citizens of the United States." The United States by the same treaty guaranteed "positively and efficaciously" to New Granada the neutrality of the Isthmus, in order that the traffic across it might not be interrupted. The treaty provides, further, that when any of its articles are infringed by any of the citizens of either party, they shall be held "personally responsible," and neither of the Governments is in any way to protect the offender or "sanction" his conduct. The fifth article declares that in case of such infringement, neither of the Powers shall authorize acts of reprisal, or declare war, until the injured party shall have laid before the other a statement of injuries or damages demanding justice and satisfaction, and the same shall have been denied. It will be readily perceived that all this is very vague. It is not easy to gather from it the precise extent of the responsibility imposed on the United States by such disorders as have just resulted in the burning of the town of Aspinwall. The mischief is said to have been done by "insurgents," or "revolutionists," headed by a "notorious criminal," named Prestan. But insurrection and revolution are, in the political nomenclature of Central America, the terms ordinarily applied to what we should here call riots. Every riot down there puts the established government in danger, but riots occur so frequently that if they furnished a right of active interference to a foreign Power, that Power would run some risk of having to take over the entire sovereignty of the country.

It would seem to be doubtful whether, in case of damages to American property on the Isthmus by disorderly persons, the United States troops could go in search of those "personally responsible" for the damage, and kill or arrest them, or whether the United States would have to await the action of the Government of New Granada, and lay before it a statement of damages. A case which seems to furnish a precedent arose in 1856, when much property of citizens of the United States was damaged or destroyed by a riot at Panama. To deal with this a Claims Commission was created by a convention, with power to award damages against the Government of New Granada, which was to pay them by remitting one-half of its postage claims on the Panama Railroad Company. But if "a riot" lasted long, and the Government of New Granada proved unable to suppress it promptly, should we be justified in deciding that we had waited for its suppression long enough, and in landing troops to restore order? The questions which the President and Secretary Whitney and the Attorney-General have had to decide in connection with the burning of Aspinwall, are evidently not to be settled offhand by despatching troops or ships of war to the scene of the trouble. The officer in command may have a very delicate problem to deal with after he gets there. What is most clear in the situation is our curious want of preparation to support these guarantees which we proffer so readily to our sister Republics in South America. We have neither ships nor troops for the work of interference in any grave case. As long as our troubles come only from the Central American disorders we get off very well, but if we had a grievance further south, say with Brazil or Chili, we might find ourselves in a very humiliating position.

The business of taking the next State census has got into a bad way, owing to the rivalry or antagonism, whichever one pleases to call it, of the Governor and the Secretary of State. About 3,000 census enumerators will be necessary. The Secretary, as the law stood before the Civil-Service Act, had the appointment of these officials, and he has given out that he meant to make them not only number the inhabitants of the State, but also collect a considerable body of agricultural and other statistics. Governor Hill, however, determined that the enumerators should be appointed under the civil-service rules, got the Attorney-General's opinion that they came under these rules, and called on the State Civil-Service Commission to carry out the law, and proposed to confine the work to simple enumeration. Secretary Carr agreed to this, particularly as the Commission prescribed a non-competitive or pass examination only, which would simply ascertain each candidate's fitness for the work he had to do. But this would have left the appointments, subject to the pass examination, still in the Secretary's hands; so the Governor called for an open competitive examination, which the Civil-Service Commission are willing to hold, if they get time and an

appropriation. But there is no money for the purpose, and it would be impossible to examine competitively the 6,000 candidates who are applying for the places, before May 1, by which date Secretary Carr thinks he must, under the law, have the enumerators ready. Then there is trouble about the examiners. The Civil-Service Commission has designated the School Commissioners in each district for this office, but it is feared that these gentlemen would favor members of their own party. We need hardly say that behind all this hubbub lies the nomination for the Governorship next fall, for which both the Governor and Mr. Carr are candidates in their respective parties.

The Massachusetts Tariff Reform League, having failed in its first attempt to induce the National Association of Wool Manufacturers to put forward a speaker to discuss with Prof. Sumner the tariff question, renewed its invitation on March 20, with a certain alteration of terms which it hoped would meet the wool men's objections. It proposed to put the question so that the high-tariff men should maintain the affirmative, and, consequently, have the opening of the debate, and to confine the discussion to the present tariff on wool and woollens. The high-tariff men were not, however, to be caught by any such chaff as the removal of their first objections, and their Secretary again declined the challenge. Finding necessary some new excuses, he says: "I am compelled to modify my belief in the intent of perfect fairness on your part," and he goes on to explain that over the original correspondence as published some newspaper put the heading "A Challenge that Fails of Acceptance!" and that the League "allowed" the publication to be accompanied by editorial comment to the effect that the debate was declined because the challenged party was "not capable of defence."

We doubt if any public man ever received such a tribute as Prince Bismarck received on Wednesday week from the German people on the occasion of his seventieth birthday. No form of congratulation seems to have been neglected, and no sign of gratitude and admiration seems to have been wanting. The substantial part of the testimonial was something which was probably the most welcome to him that could have been conceived, being the title-deeds of the old castle and estate of Schoenhausen, which was the *Stammschloss*, or original seat, of his family. The completeness with which, on this occasion, all his shortcomings as a politician seem to have been forgotten, shows how passionate and deep-seated the German love of unity was. The people are evidently willing to forgive everything to a man who in this one thing gratified the longing of many generations for a true German nationality.

M. Brisson, a lawyer but little known outside France, although President of the Chamber of Deputies, has succeeded in forming a Ministry, which, however, contains some notable men. M. de Freycinet figures in it as Minister of Foreign Affairs, an office he has filled before, but not successfully. M. Allain-Targé was well known as Minister of Finance in Gambetta's short-lived Cabinet; and General Campenon, who resumes the Ministry of War, resigned from it under M. Ferry only a few months ago. In fact, nearly all the new Ministers have served in some Cabinet already, and would have been more widely known but for the rapidity with which, in the period preceding M. Ferry, Cabinet succeeded Cabinet. The programme of the new Ministry, as announced, is somewhat portentous where it is comprehensible. The Senate is apparently to be made to change itself in some way, the nature of which is not very clear, but probably in the direction of a more popular mode of election. In fact, the Radicals seek either to elect it by universal suffrage or abolish it. What is meant by "the liberty of the press" it is hard to say, unless it be the withdrawal of press offences from the jurisdiction of the police courts. The most serious part of the programme is undoubtedly the separation of Church and State. At present the clergy of all denominations in France are paid by the State, and the Catholic Church has a good many allowances and perquisites besides, relics of the old time when it was really the State Church. It is the only church which supplies the peasantry through a large part of France with any sign of religious life, and, indeed, the priest in a vast number of parishes is the only reminder that there is such a thing as intellectual life. If the State stipend were withdrawn from him he would in most places disappear, and the churches would probably go to ruin; for it is only in the large towns that enough religious sentiment is left to support worship on the voluntary system.

Two brief telegrams from China announce the conclusion of peace with France on the basis of the Tientsin treaty of last year. This treaty was broken by the affair of Langson, in which a French detachment was fired upon by a Chinese garrison, whose commander had not been advised of the cessation of hostilities. After this casualty, for it could not be regarded otherwise than as an accident for which the French officer was partly to blame, France demanded a money indemnity of 100,000,000 francs, which China refused to pay. If peace has been concluded on the old basis, without the payment of any indemnity, the result, so mortifying to the national pride, must be ascribed to the stress of weather at home and to the political difficulty of getting any ministry to take the places made vacant by M. Ferry and his colleagues. The open decision now reached is that the bill of damages presented to China last year was unjustifiable. Its latent meaning is that such a bill, in the present state of French politics and finance, is uncollectable.

Marshal Bugeaud, who under the Orleans reign commanded in Algeria, although an able and upright man, suffered great discredit to the end of his life from having lighted a fire at the mouth of a cave in which some Kabyle insurgents and their families had taken refuge, and smothered them all. M. Camille Rousset is now publishing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* an interesting history of the conquest of Algiers, the last instalment of which contains a still more atrocious charge against General Savary, an old officer of the First Empire, who commanded in Algeria in 1832–3. An Arab tribe was suspected of having made an attack on certain countrymen of theirs returning from Algiers with a French safe conduct. A detachment was sent out to punish them. Their village was surrounded in the night, and everybody in it young and old, of both sexes, was massacred, except four men, two of whom escaped. The other two were brought before a court-martial a day or two later, when it was proved that it was not the massacred tribe which had been guilty of the outrages, but another. It was expected that the acquittal of the two men would follow as a matter of course, but General Savary insisted on executing them, because to let them off would have been an acknowledgment that he had been mistaken in slaughtering their tribe. "This was not all," says M. Rousset; "in order to compromise still further in his detestable course those who had executed his orders, he paid them as blood money the proceeds of a sale of the flocks and herds of the tribe he had destroyed. The Chasseurs d'Afrique got 14,000 francs; the Foreign Legion 14,000; and the Arab guides 800." We doubt if such another story is to be found in the recent military annals of any European nation, though the Russians have done some terrible things in the Caucasus and in Central Asia, and the British were not over-particular in India during the mutiny.

Whether Osman Digna's force is breaking up or not it is hard to say, as the stories about him are conflicting. But it is quite certain that he is not disposed to fight, and his refusal to do so is undoubtedly helping to spread in England a profound disgust with the Sudan campaign. The truth is, Osman Digna ought never to have fought at all. If he had confined himself to harassing the British, the climate and the desert would have done all the fighting that was necessary to impede their advance and dishearten the troops. It is "the battles" which have cheered up the soldiers, and touched the popular imagination in England, and given this wretched war an air of respectability. What has made it possible for both Osman and the Mahdi to raise such large levies and hold the field so long against the British, is the success achieved against the Egyptians, which was a great revelation for the tribes. Seven years ago, it is said, a dozen Arabs would run from one Egyptian soldier with a gun. This has since been all changed. Of late a dozen Egyptian soldiers have been ready to run from one Arab with a spear. In fact, the lesson of the war with the Egyptians to the Arabs was that no regulars could stand against a determined rush, and that the square once broken there was nothing to do but kill. The fights with the British have probably rid them of this pleasant delusion, and their losses in killed and wounded have been terrible for a scanty population; so there may soon be peace. But if so in what a plight it will leave the Jingoes, who maintained that England must fight the Mahdi in order to keep him from overrunning Egypt proper and going to Mecca. The Sheikh-ul-Islam in that city, it is now reported, has excommunicated him, and he is at loggerheads at Khartum with a rival prophet, who can probably show a better assortment of miracles, and has a livelier lot of dervishes.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 1, to TUESDAY, April 7, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

COMMANDER KANE, of the United States steamer *Galena*, telegraphed to the Secretary of the Navy on Wednesday: "Aspinwall is in ashes. Burnt by insurgents to escape capture by Government troops. The Pacific Mail dock, railroad property on the north end of the island, and the canal property at Crispol, are the only buildings saved. The shipping is safe. I have all my force on shore protecting property. My ship is crowded with refugees. Thousands are destitute and without shelter." The particulars of the battle are meagre. The attack upon the rebel chief Prestan by the Columbian troops was led by Colonel Ulloa. Prestan's forces were utterly routed after a severe engagement. As soon as Prestan became convinced that it would be impossible for him to maintain his position, he set fire to the city in various places and then made his escape. Only a few of his followers succeeded in getting away with him. The city is almost a complete ruin. Only three houses are left standing. Much distress prevails among the people who have been rendered homeless.

Secretaries Whitney and Bayard and Attorney-General Garland had a consultation with the President on Wednesday evening in regard to the duty of the United States under the existing treaty with New Granada. In that treaty it was provided that New Granada should guarantee the Isthmian passage, and that it should always be free; that New Granada should do this was in turn guaranteed by the United States. It was decided that, while the Government has probably no responsibility for internal broils at Panama, it has by treaty guaranteed free and uninterrupted transit across the Isthmus. Secretary Whitney went from the White House to the Navy Department, and an hour of activity followed. Orders were issued to gather the available marines at the Brooklyn Navy-yard, together with a number of Gatling guns and men to handle them. Secretary Whitney telegraphed to the President of the Pacific Mail Company to delay his steamer to receive an armed force if necessary.

Secretary Whitney on Thursday telegraphed to the President of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company in this city: "We will ship 200 men by your steamer to-morrow noon, with tents and camp equipage. The *Tennessee*, with Admiral Jouett, will leave New Orleans probably to-day, with extra complement of marines for Aspinwall, and with extra provisions. This will place four ships and between 400 and 500 available men at Aspinwall for land service." 250 marines sailed on the *City of Para* on Friday.

The President of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company telegraphed to Secretary Whitney on Saturday, that he had information from the agent of the company at Panama, that the transit across the Isthmus is not sufficiently protected. Benjamin Howard's Sons, of Boston, lost property valued at about $100,000 by the fire at Aspinwall.

In a despatch from Aspinwall, dated April 4, Commander Kane, of the *Galena*, said: "Vessels now on the way to Aspinwall, together with force on the *Para*, will be sufficient to open and guard transit, if supported by two ships at Panama. Without such support, an extra force of 500 men will be required. Everything is quiet in Aspinwall, and all American property is as well protected as my force will permit. I have 112 officers and men on shore. My command is safe and well." Secretary Whitney decided to send 350 more men to Aspinwall. When these men, who started on Tuesday, arrive at their destination, the United States will have a force of about 1,200 men and 100 officers on the Isthmus. Four Gatling guns and two three-inch rifles with 100,000 rounds of ammunition were sent with the men leaving New York. The entire force is under command of Admiral Jouett.

President Cleveland on Wednesday nominated A. Leo Knott, of Maryland, to be Second Assistant Postmaster-General Mr. Knott is a successful Baltimore lawyer, and for three terms of four years each was prosecuting attorney for the city of Baltimore. In 1868 he represented the city of Baltimore in the State Legislature. He has been a delegate to several National Democratic conventions.

The Senate on Thursday confirmed the nomination of Postmaster Pearson for New York city. The nomination of Alexander R. Lawton, of Georgia, to be Minister to Russia was reported adversely by the Committee on Foreign Affairs and withdrawn. President Cleveland and Secretary Bayard held that his pardon by President Johnson removed his disabilities, but the Committee thought not. The Senate then adjourned *sine die* without acting on 12 of the 173 nominations which President Cleveland had sent in. As these nominations were not rejected, the President can at once appoint the same persons to the offices and send their names to the Senate at its next session.

On Friday the President appointed Gen. John S. McCalmont, of Pennsylvania, to be Commissioner of Customs, and John R. Garrison, of Virginia, to be Deputy First Comptroller of the Treasury. Both appointments are heartily approved.

President Cleveland has suspended G. M. Palmer, Postmaster at Rome, N. Y., for inefficiency and carelessness, has appointed James B. Corcoran to his place, and written a characteristically explicit letter to the Postmaster-General, declaring his firm purpose to "do all that is in my power to rid the public service of officials who exhibit such loose ideas of their duty to the Government."

Miss Ada C. Sweet, United States Pension Agent at Chicago, was asked for her resignation by Commissioner Black, but has telegraphed direct to the President, stating that, inasmuch as her term would not expire until April 16, 1886, she refuses to resign before that time, having been assured that there were no good reasons for the act of General Black. Miss Sweet has held the office for eleven years, having been appointed to succeed her father, a well-known Union general, upon his death in 1874.

The Mormon Commissioners had a very satisfactory interview with the President on Thursday. They found that he is in earnest on the subject, and insists upon a rigorous enforcement of the anti-polygamy law. He expressed his approval of the course of the Commissioners, and requested them to continue in their work. After making a report they will at once return to Utah. They say that the Mormons are discouraged at their prospects, and that the liberal element in the church, which favors an abandonment of polygamy, is growing stronger. The Commissioners say that if the Mormons would abandon plural marriages they would make good citizens.

General Grant's condition on Thursday morning at 5 o'clock was such that his death was believed to be imminent. He seemed sinking rapidly, and the family were called to his bedside. Stimulants were administered hypodermically, with good effect. His mind was clear, and he was able at what was deemed the critical hour to speak more freely than in the early night. When he had revived a trifle and was a little stronger, he glanced at the members of the family, the physicians, Dr. Newman, and the attendants all still grouped at the bedside, and said: "I bless you all." Throughout the day he rested comfortably, and in the afternoon was even bright. He slept well on Thursday night, and awoke on Friday morning feeling much better. On Tuesday morning he had a hemorrhage, which caused great alarm and rendered him much weaker. This condition continued through Tuesday, although he rallied to a certain extent.

Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, ex-Secretary of State, is dying at his home in Newark, N. J. Mr. Frelinghuysen was, it is said, a very sick man during the last three months of President Arthur's Administration, and performed his official duties with difficulty. This fact was kept from the public.

The reduction of the public debt for March was $403,000.

The Republican ticket was elected in Rhode Island on Wednesday, George Peabody Wetmore being the successful candidate for Governor.

Mayor Harrison, of Chicago, in a recent speech, charged that General Logan had been privy to a scheme by which Mackin and Gallagher were to have escaped the penalty for their election frauds, on condition that a sufficient number of Democrats should be secured to give the Republicans a majority on joint ballot in the Illinois Legislature. On Saturday night General Logan, while addressing a large audience in Chicago, said: "I denounce Mayor Harrison as uttering an infamous, villanous falsehood. He is a vile, infamous liar, a poltroon, and a coward." The affair has caused a sensation in Chicago.

The State Senate, on Wednesday evening, passed the Gibbs Freedom of Worship Bill by a vote of 18 to 10, six Republicans voting in the affirmative.

The Prison-Labor Bill was defeated in the Assembly at Albany on Tuesday.

A dinner was given in honor of Henry Irving at Delmonico's on Monday evening, and was attended by about 200 well-known persons, representing many interests and professions.

The Rev. Dr. William R. Williams, for fifty-two years continuously the pastor of the Amity Baptist Church in this city, died on Wednesday.

Dr. James Lawrence Little, Professor of Clinical and Operative Surgery in the New York Graduate Medical School, and Professor of Surgery in the University of Vermont, died suddenly on Saturday afternoon, in this city, at the age of 49.

FOREIGN.

M. Ferry on Wednesday handed President Grévy a despatch which had just been received, stating that the Chinese Government had accepted M. Ferry's proposals for peace, and wished to fix a date for the evacuation of the positions now occupied by the Chinese. The despatch was dated subsequent to the defeat of the French forces at Langson. This report was denied on Thursday, but subsequently confirmed. It was even asserted that it had been circulated for stock-jobbing purposes, and the charge was reiterated in the Chamber of Deputies by M. Jolibois. Amid a great tumult he urged the immediate impeachment of the Ministers, and moved that M. Henri Brisson, the President of the Chamber, be appointed a committee to go to President Grévy, and ask him to officially appoint a commission to transact the business of the State pending the formation of the new Ministry. The motion was rejected by a vote of 348 to 77.

M. Patenôtre, the French Ambassador to China, telegraphed on Tuesday that the Tsung-li-Yamen had ratified the preliminaries of peace signed on April 3. They stipulate that hostilities shall cease on April 10, and that the Chinese shall evacuate the Red River Delta on the 20th and the other positions gradually, while the French shall occupy Formosa and Pheng-Hoo, enforce the blockade of rice ports, and search neutrals, until a definitive treaty of peace has been signed. It is believed that France asks an indemnity for Frenchmen wounded in battle.

M. de Freycinet on Thursday gave up the task of forming a Ministry, but on Friday President Grévy insisted, and he resumed the task without success. M. Brisson also failed. M. Constans then undertook to form a Cabinet. The party conflicts increase in bitterness.

President Grévy proposed to obtain an ad-interim Cabinet of Moderates to act between the dissolution of the Chambers and the general election. Intense uneasiness prevailed throughout France.

Rochefort, Hugues, and other French Radicals tried to create a demonstration on Wednesday night in the Place de l'Opéra, Paris. Several thousand people were present, but the demonstration was a failure. The windows of a café on the Boulevard des Capucines were smashed, but the police immediately broke up the mob.

M. Henri Brisson, who has been President of the Chamber of Deputies since 1882, consented on Sunday to try again to form a Cabinet. On Monday it was announced that he had succeeded. The Cabinet is as follows: President of the Council and Minister of Justice, M. Brisson; Minister for Foreign Affairs, M. de Freycinet; Minister of the Interior, M. Allain-Targé; Minister of Finance, M. Clamageran; Minister of Public Instruction, M. Goblet; Minister of War, General Campenon; Minister of Public Works, M. Sadi-Carnot; Minister of Agriculture, Pierre Legrand; Minister of Commerce, Hervé Mangon; Minister of Posts and Telegraphs, M. Sarrien; Minister of Marine and the Colonies, Admiral Galiber.

Premier Brisson, in the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday, said that France would insist upon China recognizing a French protectorate over Tonquin and Anam, according to the provisions of the treaty of Tientsin, peacefully, if possible; otherwise the war would be renewed with increased vigor. In conclusion, he demanded a vote of credit for 150,000,000 francs, to enable the Government to carry out its policy in relation to China. The credit was granted.

General Brière de l'Isle telegraphed under date of Wednesday evening: "The Second Brigade reached Chu at noon in good order. It was in contact with the enemy until 2 o'clock on Tuesday afternoon. Our losses were trifling. The enemy's pursuit was slow." General Négrier is recovering from his wound. The situation of the French troops is better than recent overdrawn accounts have indicated. The French fleet has bombarded the forts defending Pong-Hon and Makung, dismantling the forts and burning the village of Makung. The Chinese garrison suffered severely.

Comte de Pontécoulant, a French soldier and author of a number of works on music, is dead at the age of ninety-one. He was with the army which invaded Russia in 1812, and was also in the campaign of 1815.

Prince Bismarck's seventieth birthday was celebrated in Berlin and at other places on Wednesday with considerable ceremony. The Emperor and his son, Crown Prince Frederick William, attended by all the resident princes of the imperial family, called upon the Chancellor at 10 o'clock in the morning and congratulated him. During this visit the Emperor personally presented an oil copy of the great portrait of himself to Prince Bismarck as a personal memento. The Emperor himself decorated Count Herbert Bismarck, son of the Chancellor, with the order of the Red Eagle. The Birthday Testimonial Committee subsequently visited the Chancellor and formally presented him with the title-deeds of the great Schoenhausen estate. The entire afternoon was taken up by delegations which had come to present testimonials from all classes of the German people and from all parts of the Empire.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* on Wednesday afternoon asserted that Russia's answer to England's proposals on the Afghan question amounted to a cordial acceptance of the proposals as made by Earl Granville, British Foreign Minister. The *Gazette* said that Russia consented to accept as debatable territory the zone laid out as such by England, accepting the principle that the frontier line shall not be drawn further south than Karezelias and Tchemeni-baid, or further north than Shirtepe and Sariyazi. This leaves as the only point still to be discussed the Russian suggestion that it would be more practical if the zone of survey overlapped the roughly defined zone of debatable land, in order to allow for topographical and ethnographical conditions not expected. This suggested extension of the zone of survey, as it would carry the zone to the south of the boundary line run by M. Lessar, the Russian Commissioner appointed to meet Sir Peter Lumsden, the British Commissioner, to arrange the Afghan boundary dispute, may yet prove serious enough to cause further difficulty.

The chiefs and princes of the whole Indian Empire were represented in person or by deputy at Rawalpindi on Thursday. They all, without exception, earnestly tendered to the Earl of Dufferin, British Viceroy, troops and money without stint to uphold England in any possible difficulty with Russia.

Earl Dufferin has obtained from the Amir of Afghanistan a formal treaty recognizing the rights of England to lay out and fortify the northwestern frontier of that country. The news that Russia has accepted the more important proposals of England was confirmed on Thursday.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* on Saturday afternoon stated that the reply of Russia to England's proposals concerning the Afghan frontier-line dispute is most conciliatory. The Russians earnestly wish the Joint Commission to commence the work of settling the frontier line as soon as possible. The difference between the English and the Russian proposals, the *Pall Mall Gazette* says, is that the zone proposed by Russia would include a triangular piece of steppe, twenty to fifty miles wide, which would be excluded from the zone of survey within which the English propose to confine the work of the Boundary Commission.

The British Cabinet, at a council on Saturday, approved the agreement made between the Amir of Afghanistan and Earl Dufferin. The Viceroy has been instructed to invite the Amir to go to London as a guest of the Crown. The Cabinet also considered Russia's reply. It is said to be only a provisional acceptance of England's terms, and war is yet a possibility. The London papers generally declare the Russian answer regarding the Afghan frontier dispute to be elusive and unsatisfactory. Orders have been received by the Indian Government from London to actively continue the preparations for war, notwithstanding the pacific assurances of Russia. This action has created a good impression in India, and sustains the enthusiam of the British and native troops. A grand review of all the British and native troops at Rawalpindi took place on Monday before the Amir of Afghanistan.

It is stated at Berlin and Vienna that the negotiations between England and Turkey for an understanding on the Egyptian question have fallen through, as England, believing the Afghan crisis to be over, withdrew the concessions which she offered when she desired the alliance of Turkey against Russia. It is reported that the Sultan is incensed at England's action.

General Graham telegraphed on Thursday morning at 11 o'clock from General McNeill's zereba: "We are advancing upon Tamaai with our entire force." On Thursday night his force occupied a zereba three miles from Tamaai. During the night the rebels fired into the zereba. They were silenced at 1 A. M. by a volley from the advanced British picket. At 8 o'clock on Friday morning the British advanced and occupied Tamaai, meeting with slight resistance. One man was killed and eleven were wounded. The water was found of bad quality. The village was, therefore, burned by the British, and they returned to the zereba which they left in the morning. The British forces returned to Suakim on Saturday.

The Coldstream Guards and the Australian contingent marched five miles toward Handub on Monday. They exchanged a few shots with the enemy. A week's supply of stores and provisions is to be moved out to Handub, and the railway pushed on to that point.

Earl Cairns died suddenly in England on Thursday. He was the son of the late William Cairns, of Cultra, Ireland, and was born in 1819. In 1868 he became Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain, an office which he held up to the resignation of Disraeli's Ministry in December, 1868. In 1874 he was reappointed to the same place and kept it until 1880.

Madrid was excited on Thursday over the reported discovery of a plot to assassinate King Alfonso on his way to the Royal Chapel. The guards at the palace were strengthened and other precautions taken. Five persons were arrested.

Cholera has appeared in the Province of Valencia, Spain.

Franz Abt, the German composer, is dead. He is well known in this country, not only through his songs, but personally, as he visited America in 1872 at the invitation of several of our leading vocal societies.

Three men were arrested in Winnipeg on Friday afternoon while making an attempt to blow up Louise Bridge, over which the railroad train will bring troops from the East. Word was received of an engagement at Duck Lake, in which the rebels were successful and made 500 white prisoners. These they locked up in the Catholic church there. An effort will be made when the Eastern troops arrive to secure their release, and a severe engagement is then expected. There was considerable excitement in Canada on Friday over reports of Fenian conspiracies in this country to aid Riel.

A private telegram received in Montreal on Sunday said that all the Sioux Indians in the Northwest had risen and the settlers were fleeing for their lives. The troubles are said to be fast increasing. At Prince Albert the state of affairs is alarming. The Teton-Sioux Indians surround the barracks where the settlers, with their wives and children and a few soldiers under Colonel Irvine, are confined. Supplies in the barracks are known to have run short, and it is feared that the settlers cannot hold out.

The Mexican Congress was opened on Wednesday evening. In his message, President Diaz, referring to the Barrios trouble, said: "Grave, without doubt, are the difficulties which this international emergency may produce on account of the crisis which now afflicts the public Treasury; nevertheless the Executive is resolved to sustain an attitude befitting the nation, and counts on the patriotic coöperation of Congress to maintain intact the national honor and interests."

The following particulars are given of the recent repulse of Barrios: "On March 30 Barrios attacked the Salvadorian frontier position of El Coco, thus breaking the promise given by him to the United States Minister not to invade Salvador. The battle raged fiercely until nightfall, when the Salvadorian forces concentrated upon Chalchuapa. At daylight on March 31 fighting began around San Lorenzo. After a severe engagement which lasted ten hours, the Guatemalan forces were completely routed. Their losses were heavy." Barrios was again defeated at Chalchuapa on Thursday. A despatch from La Libertad, San Salvador, on Saturday, said: "According to the latest intelligence received here, President Barrios, of Guatemala, is dead. Hostilities between Guatemala and the allied Republics have been suspended; an armistice of one month's duration is announced. The Legislative Assembly of Guatemala has annulled the decree promulgated by President Barrios, on February 28, in which a union of the Central American Republics was proclaimed, and Barrios was pronounced Dictator and Supreme Military Chieftain of all Central America." Later despatches confirmed the death of Barrios on the battlefield at Chalchuapa.

WHAT THE PRESIDENT HAS DONE FOR THE DEMOCRATS.

THERE is a good deal of speculation as to the effect on the Democratic party of President Cleveland's course with regard to the appointments. It seems quite certain, however, that the Pearson appointment has not produced any of the widespread disaffection which some people predicted. The great bulk of the Democratic press has approved of it. The great mass of the Democratic party also approves of it, as far as any evidence on the subject can be obtained. There is probably hardly any Democrat, who does not get his living by "politics," who is not pleased by the effect which the general policy of the Administration with regard to offices thus far has had on the standing of his party with the people at large. It has lifted the Democratic party, one might almost say, inside four weeks, out of the slough of disrepute in which it was left by the war. No sensible Republican any longer maintains publicly that the Democrats are unfit to be trusted with the Government, and only seek to get into power in order to divide the offices among themselves, and allow the Southern Rebels to empty the Treasury. This sort of talk, which has for twenty years formed the staple of Republican stump speeches, has been killed as if by magic. It will never be heard again in any canvass. The worst the most rabid Republican now finds to say is, that the Administration is behaving well for a short time in order to behave very badly by and by, and that Higgins is a clerk in the Treasury; but this is not very effective. The truth is, that the Democratic party has regained its old place as a constitutional alternative—that is, as a party which those who are dissatisfied with the other party can entrust with the Government.

Moreover, there is one other gain for the Democrats which the President's policy has finally secured, though he did not originate it. The Democratic party has for forty years at least been suffering from the adhesion of the "vicious and ignorant" portion of the foreign vote. How it first got it nobody knows very well, but there is nothing which has done so much to discredit the party at the polls in those States and districts in which the industrious, moral, and religious native voters most abound, and which have been until now the great Republican strongholds. Now, in the last canvass, the "vicious and ignorant," under some influence about the nature of which there is more or less dispute, went over bodily to Blaine, and are now a component part of the Republican strength. One of the droll things in most of the Blaine commentaries on the result of the election was the truly naïf claim that it was Dr. Burchard's depreciatory remarks on "rum, Romanism, and rebellion" which caused the Republican defeat in this State. This was of course, *pro tanto*, an admission that the friends both of "rum and Romanism" were an important part of the Blaine forces, and it was strictly true. We mean nothing disrespectful to the Catholic Church when we say that there are more of her members who feel touchy about any disrespectful allusions to "rum" than of any other religious denomination in New York; but such is the fact. It was the "vicious and ignorant" Democrats, so often denounced on Republican platforms, whom Dr. Burchard's alliteration offended, if it offended anybody; and it is they whom the Republican ridicule and abuse of this divine since the election are intended to placate and win back to the Republican party.

Now nothing is more certain than that President Cleveland's policy with regard to the civil service will, if persisted in, save the Democrats from any return of this "vicious and ignorant" element to their ranks. It is composed, in the main, of voters whose only idea of "politics" is the division of offices among "workers"—that is, the perpetual making and filling of vacancies in all offices, high and low, in order to satisfy "claims." They will not stay long in any party in which an election is not followed by a fresh distribution of spoils, in which character and competency have any share in creating fitness, and in which the good of the service is considered of more importance than the demands of party.

If the Democratic party follows the President's lead, these voters will stay where they are now, in the Republican ranks, and the Republican managers will have to work down to their level, as the Democratic managers once did. Their views about public trusts, about international obligations, about the public debt, taxation, and currency will have to be reflected in Republican platforms, and in the speeches of Republican orators, and even in the character of Republican politicians. They will, in fact, have on their character the effect which the exactions of the old slaveholders had on the character of Democratic politicians before the war, and which ended in driving "the virtue and intelligence" of the North into the Republican party. One of the probable consequences of Cleveland's policy is the return (or desertion) of this virtue and intelligence to the Democrats. It will not certainly work long with rum and Romanism and Fenianism and communism, if it can find refuge in an organization which seeks to conduct public business in the way honest and successful men conduct their private business; and virtue and intelligence are in most States a power at the polls which nothing else can resist.

THE TREASURY CHANGES.

THE changes in methods of Treasury bookkeeping, and in the public-debt statements, adopted by Secretary Manning, upon the recommendation of Mr. Jordan, the expert employed to examine the old system, are interesting to the public only in the practical results secured—the details being for the most part as dry as algebra. The net result is, that the fractional silver and the nickel and copper coins in the Treasury are to be cast out of the reckoning as part of the funds available to meet demand liabilities; that $100,000,000 gold shall be set down as a permanent liability of the Government, as a greenback-redemption fund, that being the sum acquired by the Treasury in pursuance of law for the purpose of resuming specie payments in 1879; that the Pacific Railroad bonds and the interest thereon shall be counted as part of the public debt in the same way as any other outstanding bonds; and that the greenbacks held for the redemption of the notes of national banks going into liquidation, or voluntarily retiring their circulation, shall be held strictly as a trust fund, and not be paid out for any purpose other than that for which they were received.

These changes, of course, make no difference in the actual state of the public finances, but they simplify the monthly showing, make it more easy of comprehension by the multitude, and emphasize the fact that the greenback-redemption fund of $100,000,000 is not to be lessened or trenched upon for any other purpose than that for which it was originally acquired. This fund is about 35 per cent. of the outstanding greenbacks, and is not larger than is necessary to meet unexpected drains resulting from the balance of foreign trade. The Treasury fills the same position in the United States that the Bank of England holds in the United Kingdom—that of the keeper of the ultimate reserve of the country. Any call for gold arising out of the exigencies of international trade falls on the Treasury here as it falls on the bank there. The bank's reserve is usually 35 to 40 per cent., and ours should be no less. Raids upon the reserve have been started from time to time by madcaps in Congress. It has been argued that since the gold is not called for it is dead capital, and ought to be applied at once to the redemption of bonds and the stoppage of interest. These incendiary movements, threatening the public credit and the security of all private business, have most commonly proceeded from the Democratic party, and it may be said generally that that party embraces three-fourths of all that is unsound and perilous in the effective political force of the country as regards the currency and the nation's fiscal obligations. It is a great gain to the cause of sound finance that the national Administration is in hands which are able to control these erratic and mischievous elements, if not absolutely, yet sufficiently to prevent any great mischief from being done. The changes in the Treasury bookkeeping must be looked upon as notice to the public that Mr. Manning intends to keep his gold reserve intact, and hold it scrupulously for the purposes for which it was accumulated, and that the Department will frown upon any scheme or device to weaken the public credit in that most vital part which concerns the goodness of the paper circulation.

The next most important change is the dropping of thirty-one millions of fractional coin heretofore tabulated in the list of "quick assets." We have heretofore pointed out that this change involves the need of a corresponding addition to the reserve, which in the present state of the money market can be made without inconvenience or danger to any interest, but with manifest advantage to the Secretary, who is confronted with the silver crisis in an acute form. The only way to stave it off is to treat the silver coinage as a liability, precisely as though the Government were obliged by law to buy $24,000,000 worth of lead per annum, and store it in the form of bullets in the public arsenals. This expenditure calls for money which must be taken out of current receipts. It lessens the gold reserve by so much, unless the public revenues exceed the ordinary expenditures by an equivalent sum. In order to guard against unexpected drains or a possible falling off of cur-

rent receipts, it is important to make provision for this particular expenditure in advance; and since the reserve was no more than sufficient for all purposes when the fractional coin was counted as an available asset, it is eminently proper to make good, as speedily as possible, the deficiency which results from recognizing as a fact what has always been true—that the fractional coin is worth only 75 per cent. of its face value, and is worth this only when thrown into the melting-pot. It would not be a bad idea to make such disposition of the surplus of subsidiary coins, and use the resulting bullion for standard silver dollars. Fifteen months' coinage could thus be provided for without any new expense to the Treasury.

THE FIELD CODE.

DECIDEDLY the most important business pending at Albany is the "Field Code," which comes up in its old form, or with only slight changes, after every defeat in the Legislature and every veto by the Governor. This code if enacted might fairly be called ancient law, having been originally drafted twenty years ago. Alterations have been made in it from time to time, but they are nowhere distinguished from the original draft. Two members of the Code Commission having died, the changes in the draft since their death would be without any constitutional authority if we were at liberty to suppose that the code depends in any degree upon the Constitution for its *raison d'être*. But it clearly does not so depend. The Constitution of 1846 provided that a draft code should be prepared and submitted to the Legislature, specifying "such alterations and amendments" in the common law as the three Commissioners should see fit to propose. If the Constitution imposed any command upon the Legislature to formulate the whole body of the law in a written code, that command has been disregarded for one-third of a century, and no circumstances exist to-day which add any vigor to the force of the original command.

It results that the code now before the Legislature is Mr. Field's individual conception of what the law ought to be, and that the Legislature is asked to adopt it in place of what the law is. So many instances have been pointed out by other competent lawyers of erroneous conceptions on Mr. Field's part of what the law is, that it is fair to say that the code is in large part an amendment and a change of the existing law. If a bill were proposed to change even in the smallest degree the law of torts, of domestic relations, of partnership, of negotiable paper, of insurance, or of easements, it would be subjected to the closest scrutiny in committee and made the subject of debate in open session, and given the widest publicity before being adopted. Yet here is a measure filling 400 printed pages, purporting to freeze into a solid, inflexible mass the whole body of the common law according to the opinion of one man, himself not a member of the Legislature, and it is proposed to adopt it with only the most cursory examination, against the protest of the City Bar Association, and in the face of printed arguments against important parts of it which nobody has pretended to answer. Such a proceeding would be little short of a French Revolution in the jurisprudence of the State, and would not be without its reign of terror to litigants. The only relief from the oppressions, contradictions, and entanglements which have been pointed out by leaders of the bar at various times would be found in a resort to the common law, which the code is intended to supersede. Whether the code, if enacted, will turn out to be the main body of the law, or only a wen on its side, is a question upon which intelligent judges may differ, and can only be answered by the experiment. In California, however, where the code has been adopted, the common law holds its ground by its own vigor and through the necessities of human society, and "case law" is multiplying as rapidly there as in any State of equal size in the Union. It is well known that the Code of Procedure in this State, which was intended to simplify the *practice* of law, has enormously multiplied litigation upon points of practice, and has swollen the books on that subject from a single small volume to many thousands of pages.

The dispute between code and no code was admirably handled by Mr. James C. Carter, in a paper prepared for the Bar Association of this city last year. In this essay it was shown with philosophical clearness that the common law is the natural outgrowth of free institutions, while codes, in their original conception, were the devices of despotism. In the one, human interests have adjusted themselves as the soil has been formed by the washings of ages. In the other, an arbitrary expression has been given to the will or opinion of the king or the codifier. The former is suited to self-governing peoples; the latter to those who are accustomed to be governed by prescription, and to hold all their ideas from superior authority. But the immediate question is whether the Field code is a good code for the State of New York. That it is good enough to stand without amendment, nobody, not even the author of it, pretends. That it is an extremely defective and bad code, is the contention of lawyers who may be fairly called the foremost men at the bar of the city and State. A perfect code would be a perfect digest of the unwritten or non-statutory law. When we consider how much time and talent is spent in determining what the law is in cases arising every day, and how the Court of Appeals and the Supreme Court of the United States are often divided in opinion, it is clear that there can be no such thing as a perfect code. Is the Field code a good digest of the common law? Upon this point Mr. Carter furnishes a knock-down argument when he says that if it were such, it would be in universal demand among lawyers in all parts of the country for the valuable assistance it would render in the preparation of their cases, whereas this code has remained absolutely unnoticed by the profession for twenty years, except as they have been called upon from time to time to defend themselves and the public against it, as a coat of mail or a shirt of Nessus about to be flung upon them by the Legislature. Among the later objections brought against it is the charge that it alters the law of easements in such a way as to reopen the question of the right of property-owners to recover damages from the elevated railroads just settled by the Court of Appeals.

The stock argument in favor of the code is that it will simplify the law by making certain that which is now uncertain, thus lessening the amount of litigation, and that this is the reason why the bar is opposed to it. The truth is exactly otherwise. The greater part of the common law consists in the settling of definitions of terms in the course of centuries of litigation. The introduction of new forms of words opens up in every case a new disputation as to their meaning. Such new forms abound in all parts of the Field code, each of which will require a new interpretation, thus lengthening and multiplying litigation at every step. One example out of a vast multitude was pointed out in the columns of the *Evening Post* by Mr. Theodore Dwight, when the code was last under consideration by the Legislature, viz.:

> "For the word 'writing' in former statutes the expression 'instrument in writing' has been substituted. The California Court recently had fifty sections of the code before it to determine what the expression meant. Consider the present rule, which requires a declaration of trust in real estate to be 'in writing,' and then substitute the words 'an instrument in writing.' The declaration is found in an account book at the heading of an account. Is that an instrument in writing? It is perhaps an endorsement on the back of an envelope containing title-deeds of the land. Is that an instrument? Or, again, it is in a letter to a friend as a mere matter of gossip or information. All these are writings, but a court would have to decide in each case whether it was an 'instrument.' The title to a very valuable tract of land in Chicago recently turned upon the question whether a letter from General Kingsbury to his mother, that he held the land of his sister in trust, was a sufficient 'declaration of trust.' It was accepted by the Court as such, but it is doubtful whether it could be so regarded under this code."

If the lawyers desired to multiply the amount of litigation, to protract and lengthen it, to the increasing cost and everlasting torment of litigants, they could devise nothing so sure to produce such results as to pass this code. It is probable that any code which it is within the scope of human wisdom to strike out at a heat as a substitute for the accretion of the ages, would add to rather than subtract from the amount of labor necessary to prepare cases and reach determinations. So much, at all events, may be inferred from the entanglements thrown in the way of lawyers and suitors by the Code of Procedure. The particular objections to the Field code in this regard, as developed by the special examinations recently made of its provisions relating to the law of landlord and tenant, trusts, insurances, torts, negotiable instruments, damages, corporations, inn-keepers, loan, general average, etc., present a landscape of fresh litigation,

> "Where wilds, immeasurably spread,
> Seem lengthening as we go."

SHALL AND WILL.

AT least three or four generations have now recognized that the use of "shall" and "will," "should" and "would," is a stumbling-block to the majority of English-speaking persons; and it is as surprising as it is deplorable that the improper, unidiomatic interchange of these words, one for the other—especially the use of "will" and "would" in place of "shall" and "should"—seems to be almost unconquerable. It requires some courage to make a fresh attempt, as we now propose to do, to shame the prevalent careless

ness; but there may be those who will not turn a deaf ear to a few words, and a short untechnical presentation of the facts of the case may put it before them in a new light.

We employ two auxiliary verbs to express the future, using "shall" for the first person, "will" for the second and third persons. Of these verbs the one implies, more or less obscurely, an obligation, the other a volition, and when using them we do not always have in the mind a perfectly simple notion of futurity; associated ideas are often connected with it which induce shades of meaning in our expressions.

The most closely connected of these associated ideas are those involving the conception of *intention* on the part of the person speaking; and when this conception, and not merely a simple future, is to be expressed, we immediately exchange one auxiliary for the other; that is, "I (or we) shall die," is the expression of a simple future contingency, perfectly paralleled by "he, you, or they, will die"; but "I (or we) will die," conveys a meaning of intention, paralleled again by "he, you or they, shall die." Can anything be clearer than this? Yet how often we hear, "I am afraid I will be late"; "They say I will find the place very dull"; "He tells me we will have leave to do it"; or "We have decided the baby will go to-morrow." And frequently also, though not so frequently, such expressions as "I swear I shall repay you"; or "I doubt whether he shall succeed."

In these cases the meaning is made evident by the context, and the mistake of grammar is patent; but in other cases the whole weight of the meaning rests on the verb, and demands the strictest accuracy—a demand frequently unanswered. Yet it is not till the difference, the immense difference, is felt between "I shall be at home to-morrow" and "I will be at home to-morrow"—not till it is *involuntarily* perceived that the one phrase is only a prophecy and the other a promise, and that "he shall be at home to-morrow" is, on the contrary, the promise, and "he will be," etc., the prophecy—that a man or woman has any right to use the words at all.

The past tenses "should" and "would" follow with regard to the persons a rule precisely analogous to that which governs "shall" and "will." They are sometimes, in fact, as Sir Edmund Head (the great 'Shall and Will' censor) points out, "only hypothetical futures." When one says, "I should have caught the fever if," etc., one speaks of what would have been a future event; and "should" is here used with the first person because "shall" would be. And we say, "He would have gone to Europe if," etc., because in the future it is "He will go to Europe if," etc. There are cases, however, where "should" and "would" are not "hypothetical futures," but completely express a past condition; and when, as we have seen with "will" and "shall," the choice of the verb depends on the thing meant; and a person who is thinking one thing has no right to say another. For instance, "I should have seen him there" is a simple statement of what might have been; "I would have seen him there" means "I would by my own consent have seen him there." "We should not have done that" means only (setting aside the possible meaning "We ought not to have done that") "It would not have been done." "We would not have done that" means "We should have been unwilling to do so." (Observe in this last phrase the recurrence to we *should* to indicate the simple past, as we *shall*, the simple future.)

Sir Edmund Head gives a wonderful quotation from Chalmers, which affords the best possible illustration of carelessness with regard to this usage: "Compel me to retire and I shall be fallen indeed; I *would* feel myself blighted in the eyes of all my acquaintance; I would nevermore lift up my face in society; I would bury myself in the oblivion of shame and solitude; I would hide me from the world; I *would* be overpowered by the feelings of my own disgrace; the torments of self-reflection would pursue me." The two "woulds" in italics are unquestionably ungrammatical, because, to use Sir Edmund's words, "in these two cases the context excludes all notion of will or intention, and therefore we know they must be meant to express the simple future, which they ought not to do with the first person." The other preceding "woulds" cannot be called *manifestly* wrong, "because they are connected with acts which are voluntary at the moment, and the writer might perhaps be entitled to the benefit of the doubt, if he had not shown by the other portions of the sentence his ignorance of the English idiom."

Some few apparent anomalies in the use of these verbs are explicable by principles which it is not possible to go into fully in so short an exposition as this, but which may be hastily referred to. In some forms of dependent sentences "shall" and "will" are used for the third person as if it were the first person—that is, in a dependent sentence of which both clauses concern a third person, "shall" is properly to be used instead of "will" to express simple futurity; so that, while it is necessary to say "He will go," it is necessary to say "He says he shall go." This is probably due to a dramatic impersonation, on the part of the speaker, of the person spoken of, making the usage the same as if the phrase were "He says, 'I shall go'"; and it therefore holds good in the reverse with the use of "will"—*e. g.*, "He thinks he shall go to Europe" expresses the simple future, while "He thinks he will go to Europe" would properly convey an intention. The usage is unsettled for the second person: one may say either "You say you will go" or "You say you shall go." Sir Edmund Head is of opinion "the speaker [in this case] may, as it were, look at the sentence with reference either to himself or to the person whom he is addressing." But we must repeat that for the third person the form is fixed: "He says he shall go" and "He said he should go" are the only forms which do not imply volition. Sir Edmund justly remarks, when considering the occasional uncertainties: "It may be maintained that as 'will' is a sort of interloper, 'shall' ought always to be employed unless good cause be shown against it"; and he elsewhere states his belief that "shall" was the original future auxiliary.

It may be observed here that where there is the slightest touch of hypothesis (except in the cases in which, as we have already pointed out, the past tense has the character of a hypothetical future), the weight of "shall" and "should" is changed—*e. g.*, "You should go" or "He shall feel it" expresses duty, or compulsion, or destiny; but "If you should go" or "Whenever he shall feel it" are the natural form of our contingent future. Sir Edmund considers also akin to this the fact that in interrogative sentences the form of the first person is, so to speak, preferable for the second person. Thus, "Shall you go to Europe?" is a simple question of fact. "Will you go to Europe?" implies that the person addressed has not come to a decision. While "Will I (or will we) do it?" is wholly inadmissible, except as meaning "Do you ask if I will do it?" if used instead of "Shall I do it?" (*i. e.*, "Am I expected to do it?"), it is a mistake.

It should not, in passing, be overlooked that the effect of *emphasis* on these verbs is very extraordinary. "The letters," as Sir Edmund says, "remain the same, but they are in fact different words." In the phrases "I *will* go," "He *shall* come," the verb ceases to be an auxiliary.

Few better modes of acquiring certainty and delicacy in the use of these words can be suggested than is open to the student of Shakspere; the flexibility of his use of them, and its frequent subtlety, are astonishing, and his accuracy great. But even he stumbles sometimes—for instance, in allowing *Antipholus* to say to *Angelo*, "Perchance I will be there as soon as you" ("Comedy of Errors," iv, 1, 39). We can see here the impossibility of trusting at all to the *ear* in this matter, since *Emilia's* declaration, "Perchance, Iago, I will ne'er go home," is faultless. Other mistakes are where *Lucio* condoles with *Claudio* about his life—"who [which] I would be sorry should be thus foolishly lost" ("Measure for Measure," i, 3, 95); and *Falstaff* declares, "I will sooner have a beard grow on the palm of my hand than he [the juvenal, the Prince, your master] shall get one on his cheek" ("2 Henry IV.," i, 2, 23). *Don Pedro* says of *Beatrice*, "You amaze me; I would have thought her spirit had been invincible against all assaults of affection" ("Much Ado," ii, 3, 119); and there are some others. But let no verbal sinner console himself with the belief that he has Shakspere for his companion. He can only count on Chalmers, and on Scotch and Irish English generally. And if he continues to commit mistakes, let him at least (*not*) declare, "I 'would' feel myself blighted in the eyes of all my acquaintance, I 'would' be overpowered by the feelings of my own disgrace"; but none the less may "the torments of self-reflection pursue him"!

Correspondence.

MR. JOHN BIGELOW AND THOMAS JEFFERSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In *Harper's Magazine* for March Mr. John Bigelow has an article based on "a financial diary" of Mr. Jefferson, making such wild statements as led me to an examination of data to which I have access. As a specimen of these absurdities, Mr. Bigelow states that out of 140 negroes in Mr. Jefferson's possession in '98, *forty* were over ninety years of age; and only eleven under fifty. Turning to Mr. Jefferson's Farm Book, I find that Mr. Bigelow has mistaken the date of the birth of these negroes for their ages, so that a child born in '90 was set down as ninety years old. In this same Farm Book the roll of negroes for '94 gives more than the usual percentage of able-bodied hands, and not more than six over fifty-five years of age. How they changed in the next four years is rather a mystery. Even the spendthrift character Mr. Bigelow has found in Mr. Jefferson would scarcely have led him to exchange able-bodied workers for forty negroes ninety years of age.

From this absurd mistake, and from the fact that Mr. J. Bigelow is judging from a perusal of only twelve years of a diary which extended over fifty-six years, we are led to hope that he has deceived himself, and that Mr. Jefferson was not, after all, the self-indulgent spendthrift he would have us think him. Let us remember, moreover, that such other biographers of Jefferson as Messrs. Randall and Tucker had access to all Mr. Jefferson's private papers, and the advantage of contemporary evidence. Mr. Parton, following them, had the use of the materials so gathered. None of these writers, with the *whole* evidence before them, brought in the verdict which Mr. John Bigelow so wisely announces from the above-mentioned perusal of a diary of twelve years. *They* found that up to 1782, when Mr. Jefferson went into public life, he was making money, and every year investing the excess of his income in what was then deemed the best investment—*i. e.*, land and negroes (the latter, we

are glad to believe, not over ninety years of age). Between that time and 1808 he was at home not more than four years, all counted. Had Mr. Jefferson had a Lawrence Washington to manage his estates, the world might have been spared the sad spectacle of the closing years of such a life embittered by pecuniary embarrassment.

EDGE HILL.

REFORM OF LEGAL EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the features of our state of society, which has been recognized by nearly every intelligent foreign observer, is the predominating influence exercised by lawyers. More than in any other country, the question of legal education and the raising of the standard of the legal profession should be considered as of paramount interest to the whole community, yet comparatively little has been done in that direction. In the discussion which is now going on about the reforms to be introduced in our colleges, this necessity for higher professional education is left too much out of view. The advocates of elective studies seem to assume that, in carrying out their system, they follow in the footsteps of the German universities. But this is an erroneous view. To a foreigner, attending only during a few "semesters," without any definite object in view, it may seem that the German university is based entirely on a system of elective study, but in reality it is a professional school. It is based on broad principles, it is true, and it gives every opportunity to follow, in addition to the courses absolutely necessary for the chosen profession, other studies having only a remote connection with it; but this fact does not change its character. Nearly every young man, when, at the age of eighteen or nineteen, he graduates from the gymnasium and becomes a university student, knows what his profession in life is going to be; he becomes a member of one of the faculties; he is known, during the five or six years of his stay at the university, as a student of law, of medicine, of philosophy, as the case may be. The practical and the more theoretical parts of the law are studied together, and both gain, because, in the study of details, it is thus possible to refer to the general principle by which they are governed; and in looking at the theory, the student has before him the practical uses to which it may be put. There is time for independent research and the formation of independent opinions, and the study of law becomes, what it ought to be, something more than the mastering of dry details and the mechanical learning by heart of decisions and cases. The student does not expect that the professors will go over the entire field of law in their lectures; what above all he wants them to teach him is, the method of study he is to follow.

Now, this state of affairs cannot be brought about by the reforms contemplated; it cannot be attained by keeping the old system. Under both a young man, when he graduates from college, at the age of twenty-two or twenty-three, will have to begin his professional study. Under the elective system, he will have followed, perhaps, during a few hours a week, a course in Roman or constitutional law; but these will prove of comparatively little benefit to him, as, in order to be really useful, these subjects ought to be studied in connection with private law. In our country and in our age it cannot be expected that, under these circumstances, a young man will give up all his time during four or five years more to the study of the law. An attendance of one or two hours a day, for two or three years, a rush at break-neck speed through text-books and cases, is all that can be expected. To a cultivated man, accustomed for four years to follow the studies of his choice, such a method of work will be especially distasteful, and he will look upon law as perhaps a useful tool, but not as a science; and if, during the enforced leisure of the first years of his professional life, he takes up a subject for study, it will generally not be law, but some other more congenial one.

There is no reason why the system flourishing in Germany and adopted in more or less modified form over the whole Continent of Europe, should not be adopted, in principle at least, in this country. It is not necessary here to point out in detail what should be the course of study of a law school formed on this plan. The leading principles should be the following: The examination for admission should embrace the same subjects now required for admission to a first-class college, and include the German and French languages. The course should be four years at least, and the students should be expected to devote the whole of their working time to it. Both Roman law and common law should be studied first historically before being studied dogmatically. The impossible task should not be attempted of compassing the details of the whole domain of private law by the lectures, but the student should be encouraged to study by himself. On difficult technical subjects there should be short courses of lectures by specialists. A first departure in this line was recently made in the Columbia College Law School, where an eminent member of the bar, Mr. C. M. DaCosta, gave a course of lectures on the jurisdiction of the Federal Courts. The importance of a reform of our system of legal study is so thoroughly realized by many eminent members of the legal profession that, if once a comprehensive plan is started, it may be safely asserted that this good example will be followed by other specialists. Above all, the examinations should be severe and searching, and should be conducted in such a way as to require the candidate to show not merely knowledge of details, but evidence of having formed the habit of independent legal thinking.

Hardly any lawyer will deny that our law at present is in a chaotic state, that it is full of unnecessary and subtle distinctions, and that reform in some way is necessary. To try to obtain that reform by adopting a code like the one now before the Legislature, which is merely a defective and incomplete statement of the law as it stands, would only introduce another element of confusion. It is not by such superficial remedies that the present state of affairs can be changed, but the first step to take is to raise the intellectual standard of those who, as lawyers or as judges, have to practise and to apply the law, and upon whom, if ever codification in any form should be resorted to, would fall the burden of making it.

F. F. S.

NEW YORK, April 1, 1885.

SENATORIAL ORATORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: American oratory interests so many of our people, in one way or another, that it would seem a pity that the accompanying fragment of eloquence should remain buried in the turgid columns of the *Congressional Record*, where I found it, the issue being that of this date:

"When this committee is formed I hope that the committee will go at this question of the Senate employés with reference to a desire only to discharge honestly the obligation which the Senate as a body owes to the country in regard to that control which it asserts concerning the expenditure of public money with reference to matters which are pertinent either to the convenience of Senators or the despatch of public business in which the Senate is concerned."

It would be less than justice not to mention that the orator is the Hon. Preston B. Plumb, of Kansas.

B.

WASHINGTON, April 1, 1885.

IN SENATOR GORMAN'S BEHALF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue you quote from the Baltimore *Civil-Service Reformer*, with comments, in regard to the Higgins appointment and its bearings on Senator Gorman's methods. Your strictures are well deserved, perhaps, at this distance from the last campaign. It should not be forgotten, however, by Blaine organs and orators at least, that Mr. Gorman, whatever questionable methods he may believe in, would not descend to the circulation of obscene pamphlets; and that when some member of the National Democratic Committee proposed retaliation in kind after the indecent attacks had been commenced, he declared he would resign if any such plan of warfare were adopted. The refusal of a politician to countenance blackguardism was then a step requiring some degree of courage, innate respectability, and love of fair play. Mr. Jones's Committee, with at least the tacit consent of their chief, took a very different course, as all who have not very convenient memories must remember even at this late day. Those of the Baltimore civil-service reformers who voted against Mr. Cleveland, the foremost exponent of the reform they cherish, and who yet failed to protest vigorously against the indecencies perpetrated by their party machine in the supposed interest of their candidate, ought at least to apologize to Mr. Gorman, who was above such business, and purge themselves before proceeding to dissect his record.

The comments of the Opposition in the Higgins matter—many of which are doubtless sincere—would appear to indicate at least a century's progress since October, 1884, toward political sanity. Those upon the Thompson incident, on the other hand, exhibit the same "uncontrollable fury of non-combatants" familiar for the past two decades. Both manifestations are noticeable proofs, among many others, of the marked success thus far of the new Administration.—Very truly,

F. C. EATON.

COLUMBUS, O., April 4, 1885.

THE SPOILS OF ASSOS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reference to the division of the Assos sculptures alluded to by Mr. Clarke in the *Nation*, No. 1031, permit me to say that the law regulating that division is not, as Mr. Clarke supposes, the present law, but that which was in existence when the firman was granted; so that whatever the Turkish Government may have decided "at the time of the division," they cannot abrogate the law of earlier date as to these antiquities. The law does not, it is true, enact that in such cases the whole shall be given up *to the finder;* but practically it amounts to that, as the law is that sculptures which belong together shall not be separated, and the Government has never any funds to purchase the finder's share, and practically does not compete. There is no question that if the Museum authorities had insisted, and the Minister had sustained them in their insistance, they would have recovered the part of the frieze found by them, to say nothing of the fragments which were theirs by indisputable right and illegally restrained.—Yours truly,

W.

GRATITUDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Lord Acton's altogether admirable, interesting, and weighty article in the last *Nineteenth Century* on George Eliot's Life, he speaks of the inadequacy of her delineation of persons of high birth and breeding, saying, after giving some indications of the grounds for this criticism, "the point is almost too subtle for argu-

ment, but it is one of the few marks of limitation in George Eliot's field of vision."

One of his illustrations is of more than special interest, for it touches a general matter of social ethics closely associated with moral character: "The same discordant note" (arising from Warwickshire pride), Lord Acton says, "appears in Gwendolen's impatience under the burden of gratitude. One of Charles Reade's characters exclaims: 'Vulgar people are ashamed to be grateful, but you are a born lady,' and an Academician, expounding the same text, has written: 'Avant d'obliger un homme, assurez-vous bien d'abord que cet homme n'est pas un imbécile.'"

A saying of another Frenchman, Baron d'Holbach, occurs to one in this connection, which carries its own immoral moral with it. His famous weekly dinners were rivalled only by those of Helvetius; but Helvetius once complained to him that he found himself neglected by some of his old guests. "That is because you have obliged them," said Baron d'Holbach, meaning that Helvetius had given pensions to some of his "diners." "I have never done anything for any of mine, so they are still faithful to me."

Montaigne, writing of the gratitude of beasts, uses the word itself "gratitude," which had then scarcely entered into the language, and which still is less employed than its synonym "reconnaissance," and says: "It seems to me we need to bring this word into repute." I fear there may never be an age when there will not be need to bring this virtue into repute. * *

A CURE FOR SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We can no longer doubt, since we have been told it so often by our Great Mentor, that we are to the last degree self-conscious and stiff; but has the *Nation* chosen the right way to reform us? One can hardly read the *Nation* nowadays without self-consciousness; even in the middle of the admirable English letter, we have an uneasy feeling that on turning the page we shall be reminded that we are forever thinking about ourselves. I have been trying to hold a *salon* this winter, but last evening everybody who came remembered what a ludicrous description of himself everybody had been reading on Thursday, and so was more ridiculously stiff and self-conscious than ever. There may be vices which are best overcome by entering one's closet and engaging in self-communion, but there must be some better means of curing self-consciousness than to ask the culprit to sit down and consider how constantly he is occupied in considering his own exaggerated sensitiveness. H.

Notes.

Estes & Lauriat announce for the spring season 'The Works of Samuel Richardson,' in a limited edition, with preface by Leslie Stephen; three editions of Carlyle's complete works; Rambaud's 'History of Russia,' in three volumes; 'The Dæmon of Darwin,' by Dr. Elliott Coues; and 'A Buddhist Catechism,' by Henry S. Olcott.

'Watch and Clock Making,' by David Glasgow, and 'At Love's Extremes,' by Maurice Thompson, a story of which the scene is laid in North Carolina, will be published by Cassell & Co.

Other announcements are as follows: *D. Appleton & Co.*:—Owen Meredith's new narrative poem, 'Glenaveril; or, the Metamorphosis'; 'Essays and Speeches of Jeremiah S. Black'; a Life of Louis Pasteur; 'Life and Letters of Thomas Gould Appleton,' by Miss Hale; and 'Life and Letters of Maj.-Gen. Emory Upton.' *Ginn, Heath & Co.*:—'Introduction to the Study of Philosophy,' by Prof. G. Stanley Hall; 'A Science of Mind,' by President Seelye, of Amherst; and a 'Natural History Reader,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler. *Harper & Bros.*:—'The Writings and Speeches of Samuel J. Tilden,' edited by John Bigelow; and an account of M. Désiré Charnay's expedition to Mexico and Central America in 1879. *Henry Holt & Co.*:—A new seven-volume edition of Dyce's Shakspere, with a glossary to each volume edited by A. R. Macfarlane; the third and last volume of Taine's 'French Revolution,' edited by John Durand; 'Essays in Political Economy,' by Prof. W. G. Summer; and Turgeneff's 'Annals of a Sportsman,' translated by Franklin Abbott. *Lee & Shepard*:—'Selected Poems from Michael Angelo Buonarotti,' with translations from various sources, edited by Mrs. Edna D. Cheney; and 'The Hunter's Handbook.' *J. B. Lippincott & Co.*:—'Political Evolution,' by C. A. Washburn. *D. Lothrop & Co.*:—'How We Are Governed,' by Anna L. Dawes, daughter of Senator Dawes. *Macmillan & Co.*:—'The Cruise of H. M. S. *Bacchante*, 1879-1882,' being the tour of the sons of the Prince of Wales; a 'History of the University of Oxford,' by H. C. Maxwell Lyte; 'The Nature of the Fine Arts,' by H. Parker; 'Twelve English Statesmen'; 'Lyrical Poems,' by Alfred Tennyson, selected by F. T. Palgrave; 'Introduction to the Study of the Law of the Constitution,' by Prof. A. V. Dicey; 'Principles of Economics,' a fragment, by the late W. S. Jevons; and 'Zoroaster the Prophet,' by F. Marion Crawford. *J. R. Osgood & Co.*:—'A Narrative and Critical History of America,' edited by Justin Winsor, in eight volumes; and the 'Memorial History of the County of Hartford,' edited by J. Hammond Trumbull. *J. A. & R. A. Reid*:—'Three Decades of Federal Legislation,' by Samuel S. Cox.

The Earl of Malmesbury's 'Memoirs of an Ex-Minister,' which we noticed at some length in October last, has been published in a handy one-volume edition by Longmans (New York: Scribner & Welford).

A well-nigh forgotten writer, the late Fitz-James O'Brien, is recalled by a new, cheap edition of his 'Diamond Lens, with Other Stories' (Scribners).

'Eve's Daughters,' by Marion Harland (Scribners), is a book for mothers only. Its good sense and good intentions are enhanced by the earnestness and reverence of its tone. It ought to be helpful.

Professor Garnett's translation of 'Beowulf' has just been issued in a second edition, revised (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.). The translator has in the introduction continued his bibliography down to date, supplying previous omissions and making it as complete as anything of the sort can well be. The translation has been revised here and there; not so often as we should have liked, but perhaps as often as was practicable without recasting the plates. A much broader margin gives the book a very generous look.

An autograph letter from the Comtesse de Montalembert to Mr. Jos. Walter Wilstach, author of a biographical sketch of her late husband (published by the Catholic Publication Society), gives the work high praise for its fidelity and insight.

While the chromo edition of Brehm's 'Thierleben' was passing under review, we remarked on the desirability of a corresponding English work. An approach, at least, to this is furnished by Selmar Hess, of this city, in 'Our Living World,' which is the Rev. J. G. Wood's 'Natural History of Animate Creation,' edited for American readers by Dr. J. B. Holder, of the American Museum of Natural History. But a main if not the chief point is, that Brehm's woodcuts will be reproduced, possibly with additions for our American fauna, and the chromo plates will be imitated by L. Prang & Co. Forty-two parts, making three volumes, royal 8vo, will comprehend the work; of these the first eight are before us. The print is large and clear. The quality of the chromolithography falls somewhat short of the original. Dr. Holder's contributions will, we are sure, be worth the making, though his style is not quite conformable to that of his English author. His story, for example, of the Central Park jaguar is wanting in simplicity. To say of that beast that its "prowess is not wont to be arraigned for trifles," is to depart widely from popular exposition, not to say from good English.

G. Stechert, 766 Broadway, is the New York publisher of the Berlin Museum's sumptuous report of the excavation at Pergamon. The photogravures of which we have received examples, are the most admirable results we have thus far seen of the application of this process to the reproduction of landscape, from the original and untouched (or imperceptibly touched) negative.

L'Art (Macmillan & Co.), for February 15 and March 1, has an etched illustration, Marius Roy's "Au Quartier, 8 h. 30," a scene in a military kitchen; a grand portrait of Rembrandt, etched by J. Klaus; and a spirited portrait of Crown Prince Rudolf, of Austria, with many process illustrations after Jacquemart.

There comes to us from the United States Hydrographic Office a chart of the Polar Regions, "Baffin Bay to Lincoln Sea," showing the discoveries of the period 1871-1884, beginning with the *Polaris* disaster and ending with the Greely tragedy, and embracing the British expedition under Captain Nares. The nomenclature of this region will be a wonder to the latest generation of mankind. A large companion map (if it may be so called, considering the extremes of temperature) shows the Red Sea and the Valley of the Nile. Though not thickly studded with names, it will be found convenient for the campaigns which start from the Red Sea.

Nobody will miss the *Dial*, a daily newspaper of recent origin in this city, and short career; but the monthly *Dial*, published at Chicago by Jansen, McClurg & Co., could ill be spared. It has just completed its fifth year with the April number, and will long continue, we hope, to furnish serious, careful, and often authoritative reviews of current literature.

The *Auk* for April is fully up to the standard in interest and information. Among other matters, Mr. J. A. Allen has a very readable paper on the mating of birds, and Mr. Bicknell continues his valuable notes on bird-songs. We are pleased to see that the American Ornithologists' Union has secured a grant of $5,000 from Congress to aid them in publishing the mass of information which the Migration Committee has secured from all parts of the country. Mr. Allen has definitively accepted the curatorship of mammalogy and ornithology in the new American Museum in Central Park, and will assume its duties on the 1st of May.

Editing for the blind may naturally possess some difficulties. Kneass's *Philadelphia Magazine* for these unfortunates is now in its nineteenth volume. The March number, catering to the musical taste of its readers, has articles on "Music in all Ages" and "Doctor Damrosch," besides an "Anecdote of Queen Victoria" and a short paragraph on "The Eider Duck"—in all, ten pages. This seems rather a limited bill of fare for an entire month, even with an occasional supplement of current news. Hence we may be certain the advertisements are carefully read. Pianos, type-writers, and special apparatus for the blind are naturally brought to their attention; fancy dress goods are not neglected, however, and even an excellent book not in raised print is here worthily recommended.

The larger part of the *Revue Scientifique* for March 21 is taken up with an interesting discussion of the condition of the French navy by two writers who come to entirely opposite conclusions. The first, who signs himself X***, compares with great skill the English and French navies in respect to the number of effective vessels, the average thickness of their armor, their speed, the calibre of their guns, the state of the torpedo flotillas, and the *personnel;* and in every point, with the exception of numbers and gross tonnage, his figures and tables demonstrate the decided superiority of the French fleet. It should be said, however, that at the close of his article he shrinks from expressing his conviction that in actual war this superiority would be maintained. In answer to this, M. Gabriel Charmes, the well-known writer, who has also for a year past been calling attention in the *Journal des Débats* to the condition of the French navy, gives what he terms "the true state of our naval forces." He takes the statements of M. X*** in order, and shows his methods of comparison to be fallacious, and declares without hesitation that, so far from the navy being in a condition to cope with that of England, it is not in a condition to meet all the requirements of the war with China. With an apparently complete mastery of the facts, and with a frankness remarkable in a Frenchman, he reaches the following conclusion, which he emphasizes by putting it into small capitals: "We are ready for war neither as regards *personnel* nor as regards *matériel.*"

Alphonse Daudet continues in *La Nouvelle Revue* the beautiful sketches which are most inadequately called 'The Story of My Books.' They have all the delicacy of the 'Contes Choisis,' with the added charm of the personal note which pervades them in spite of himself, so to speak, for he takes great care to keep within the line which he has drawn between a story of his books and one of himself. In some hands such confidences might be like turning out the wrong side of the tapestry. Daudet is like a worker in precious mosaics, who tells whence his jewels came. The last sketch in February is devoted to the 'Kings in Exile.' The impressive figure of Frederika loses nothing of its pathos with the light of common day thrown upon it. The book seems not unlikely to survive to another generation with the authority of a legend truer than truth. Time only increases the distance between Daudet and the men who have been eager to claim him as of their so-called school. While it proves his superiority to them, it is beginning also to prove that the ultra-naturalist movement will not after all accomplish a lasting victory, for its leaders, as a compatriot pithily said, daring and brilliant chiefs as they are, are chiefs without soldiers.

Zola's new novel 'Germinal' started off with an edition of about 20,000 copies. It is the thirteenth volume in the series of 'Les Rougon-Macquart; histoire naturelle et sociale d'une famille sous le Second Empire.' Of this series 'L'Assommoir' was the sixth, and it is now in its one hundredth thousand. The eighth volume was 'Nana,' now in its one hundred and forty-ninth thousand. It is pleasant to note that the vogue for M. Zola's coarse work is abating. 'Pot-Bouille' attained only 65,000, and 'Au Bonheur des Dames' only 50,000, while 'La Joie de Vivre,' at once a cleaner and a duller book, has as yet not sold more than 40,000 copies.

It may not be too late to advise our readers not to let pass an interesting article by Wilhelm Scherer in the February *Rundschau*, to which he gives the modest title of *Rede*. The subject is Jacob Grimm, but of course the brother comes in for his share. Not merely is it a fine piece of intellectual and literary characterization, but there is the heartfelt sympathy with nobility of nature that stirs the reader as no mere criticism, however scholarly, can do. "On the heights of life and of fame they still were simple, manly men."

Salomon Hirzel's Goethe library, bequeathed by its collector to the University Library of Leipsic, is widely known. Less known is the catalogue prepared and issued at intervals, 1848, 1862, and 1874, for the reason that it was circulated only privately among Hirzel's friends. Copies were to be obtained only through second-hand dealers at exorbitant prices. Yet this catalogue was the basis of all exact Goethe investigation. The present head of the firm, Heinrich Hirzel, has continued, since his father's death, the work of collecting Goetheana, with the intent of ultimately adding them to those already in the Leipsic University. He has also caused to be prepared, by Prof. Ludwig Hirzel, of Berne, a revised edition of the previous catalogue, bringing it down to the end of the year 1883. This edition is for sale at a very moderate price. In a small duodecimo volume of 215 pp. one can survey Goethe's productivity year by year in the order of its appearance in print. We can rely upon editorial exactness, since nothing is cited which is not in the Leipsic Library or in Heinrich Hirzel's possession, except a few very rare publications out of the reach of acquisition. Yet even these have been at least examined by the editor personally. This 'Verzeichniss einer Goethe-Bibliothek' is a remarkable specimen of bibliography.

Dr. August Wünsche's 'Bibliotheca Rabbinica: eine Sammlung alter Midraschim, zum ersten Male ins Deutsche übertragen' (Leipzig, 1880-1885)—a work of great value to Christian theologians interested in the more or less wise sayings and hermeneutical speculations of the early rabbis—has been brought to a conclusion with its 34th *Lieferung.* In twelve volumes, each devoted to a separate book, it embraces the 'Midrash Rabbāh' to the five books of Moses and the five *Megillōth* (Canticles, Ruth, Lamentations, Ecclesiastes, Esther), the 'Midrash Mishlē' (Proverbs), and the 'Pesiktā of Rab Kahana. The volumes are unnumbered—having appeared without regard to order, Biblical or chronological—and of very unequal bulk; the largest (Numbers) containing 672 pages, and the smallest (Proverbs) only 77. The whole is a work of love and great assiduity. Undertaken with a somewhat inadequate stock of rabbinical knowledge—with which Christian scholars are, in fact, but very seldom sufficiently equipped—it has been considerably improved by supplementary 'Notes and Corrections' from competent Jewish pens, freely and modestly accepted and acknowledged by the translator.

The Appalachian Mountain Club is soliciting aid for the inhabitants of the valleys of Northern Italy lately overwhelmed by terrific avalanches—a charity in which the Italian Alpine Club is energetically taking the lead. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Gardner M. Jones, the Treasurer of the Club, Box 2114, Boston.

—Prof. J. E. Oliver writes us from Cornell University:

"As cited in the *Nation* of March 26, Professor Newcomb has generously given undue credit to my mathematical colleagues and myself for a notation employed in his admirable 'Analytic Geometry.' I refer to his use of the symbol of identity, three horizontal lines, to mark a definition. Possibly we were the first Americans to use this notation; but we had been anticipated in Moulton's Boole's 'Finite Differences' (Macmillan, 1872), and, I think, elsewhere. These two uses of the symbol are very closely akin; and though it has a widely different use in the Theory of Numbers, yet, as Professor Newcomb well says, this need lead to no confusion."

Mr. Witte, of Baltimore, formerly a pupil of Gauss, writes us, in substance, that Gauss did not use the sign (≡) to denote the congruence of geometrical figures. That is true, and we did not intend in our review to assert that he did. Gauss uses the sign in treating of the Theory of Numbers, and, as we said, in a sense "quite different from the meaning attached to the symbol by Professor Newcomb." The last sentence of that part of our review, viz., "To students who use Professor Newcomb's work as a text-book, it will, of course, make no difference," seems to us to preclude the necessity of any further discussion.

—The second volume of Mr. Leslie Stephen's great 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) completes the A family, and ends with William Baird. Francis Bacon's name is the greatest on the list, and Professor Fowler's account of him occupies thirty-six pages, or about a twelfth of the book. The nearest approach to this distinction is reserved for St. Anselm, who is disposed of in twenty pages. Significant space is also accorded to Lord Anson, Arkwright, Thomas Arnold (of Rugby), Thomas Arundel, Roger Ascham, Walter Bagehot, etc. Madam d'Arblay is the first female writer we meet with, but she has the good company of Jane Austen, Sarah Austin (who has an article to herself apart from her famous husband, John Austin), and Joanna Baillie. America, as usual, furnishes its quota of characters. Of Benedict Arnold we are told that descendants of his third son George are still living in England, as, per contra, that the last known descendants of Eugene Aram came to this country. Sir Samuel Auchmuty, the famous soldier, was born in New York, and was the son of a graduate of Harvard College. Sir Samuel Argall, Deputy Governor of Virginia, abducted Pocahontas. Nathaniel Bacon was the hero of 'Strange News from Virginia.' The Rev. John Bailey, of Watertown and Boston, figures in the early annals of the Bay settlement. Francis Bailey, a many-sided man, best known as an astronomer, was a tourist in North America, and author, in the last century, of a book of travels about us. In turning over these pages one appreciates the great genealogical value which must attach to this work as time goes on, so many names of the rank and file are here saved from the oblivion of our ordinary dictionaries and encyclopædias. "From private information" is often appended to notices of lives passed in the present century. One feature we should have liked to see insisted on, that of portraiture. By no apparent system it is mentioned or not mentioned that likenesses exist. In the volumes that are to come we hope that we shall be able to report a better and more uniform practice. Or might we not have an iconographic supplement?

—After the numberless treatises on the site of Paradise with which the theology and criticism of all sects and schools had dazzled and bewildered so many generations of Bible students, it was generally believed that the subject had been exhausted without a positive result, and that there was no hope of a satisfactory solution, when Friedrich Delitzsch came forward with his 'Wo lag das Paradies?' (1881), announcing an entirely novel key to the mystery. But this brilliant product of Assyriological research (see the *Nation*, No. 924) left students of Genesis still divided in opinion. The problem continues to fascinate the curious, and at this moment two new books on the topic are simultaneously placed before us with an emphatic "Eureka." The one is 'Die Lösung der Paradiesfrage,' by Moritz Engel (Leipzig, 1885), and the other, 'Paradise Found,' by Dr. Warren, President of Boston University (Boston, 1885)—books of 200 and 500 pages respectively. There is much that is common to both works: the same ardent conviction of the certainty of the result obtained, as the titles show; evidences of eager

and extensive study and reading; a vast amount of cited testimony; a minute and lucid presentation of the arguments, regardless of repetition; a better style than is generally used in learned dissertations. The chief difference in method is, that the German author relies chiefly on the identification, through philological and geographical deductions, of the four rivers of Paradise and of the regions which three of them are specified to encompass or flow by, while the American examiner, taking a much higher ground, almost superciliously ignores the minor details of the Biblical narrative, and boldly tests his thesis by the testimony of "scientific geogony," "astronomical geography," "physiographical geology," "prehistoric climatology," "palæontological botany," "palæontological zoölogy," "palæontological anthropology and general ethnology," and "ancient cosmology and mythical geography"—to each of which sets of testimony a separate chapter, teeming with well-selected and pleasantly-grouped quotations, is devoted. The German author is, in fact, exclusively interested in the Garden of Eden of the Hebrew traditions; the American—though occupying a much more orthodox standpoint than his rival—almost exclusively in the cradle of mankind, scientifically considered. As to the results, the divergence between the two is also marked; for while the former, revolutionizing the Hebrew dictionary, identifies the Garden of Eden with an oasis of the Syro-Arabian desert—unconnected with Tigris or Euphrates, and far from Assyria—President Warren finds Eden, the cradle of the human race, Adam and Eve, and the tree of life——at the North Pole. This *was* a paradise, before the submersion. Both books are equally learned and amusing—and equally convincing.

—Mr. A. G. Sedgwick has printed, "by direction of the Committee on the Code of the New York Bar Association," a valuable review, entitled "Damages in the Code," of the fifty-four sections of the proposed "Civil Code" relating to the subject of damages. It is worthy of the most careful consideration, and ought of itself to settle the fate of that wretched and antiquated piece of work. Of only three sections is Mr. Sedgwick able to say unqualifiedly that they are "correct," and one of these is correct only in a peculiar sense, for it is stated by the codifiers to be a change of the law, when it is not; they "had here fallen into the harmless and singular error of stating the law, when they believed themselves to be engaged in altering and improving it." Some notion of the slovenly and inaccurate quality of the work may be got from the following specimen, and we add Mr. Sedgwick's comment: "Sec. 2934. The detriment caused by the breach of a warranty of an agent's authority is deemed to be the amount which could have been recovered and collected from his principal if the warranty had been complied with, and the reasonable expenses of legal proceedings taken, in good faith, to enforce the act of the agent against his principal." "The rule," says Mr. Sedgwick, "intended to be embodied in this section, as appears from the New York cases cited by the Commissioners, is the direct opposite of this—that, in the language of the late learned Judge Selden, 'the damages must be measured, *not* by the contract, but by the injury resulting from the agent's want of power.' The section as it stands is objectionable for another reason—that if the warranty had, as suggested in it, been 'complied with,' there would have been no breach of duty, consequently no injury, and no recovery of anything from the principal." Codification, if we are to have it, ought to be the work of the best legal minds. This "Civil Code" is radically bad and disgraceful. Mr. Sedgwick deserves hearty thanks for his exposure of it. Mr. G. L. Rives, of the New York bar, has contributed to the same discussion an interesting pamphlet on "Torts under the Code," likewise printed by order of the Code Committee. Mr. Rives examines in detail a number of sections relating to negligence, nuisance, and other every-day topics of the law, and his conclusion is: "I think that no lawyer who will take the trouble to turn over the leaves of the Civil Code can fail to perceive that its provisions relating to actionable wrongs are, in a remarkable degree, incomplete, inaccurate, and misleading. And not even the most zealous friends of this work can pretend that it approaches, on these topics, the most moderate standard of accuracy or completeness."

—Like the contest between birth and death, between demand and supply, between armored ships and projectiles, never ending but waged with varying fortune, is the contest between the libraries and the press—that is, between the book storers and the book producers. While the libraries are trying to get all the books that have been published, new ones are rushing into existence at an increasing rate. The fight, already unequal, is made still more one-sided by every diminution in the cost of printing. From the point of view of the library which is attempting to be universal, the new "Matrizen-Stanz-Maschinen" are an evil. The inventor, Herr H. Hagemann, proposes to prepare stereotype plates directly without the intervention of movable types, saving two-thirds of the cost of composition and the whole of the cost of distribution. His machine is a modified type-writer. When one sets a lever at the character A, for instance, one type prints A in the "proof"; and another bearing the same letter buries itself in a sheet of prepared pasteboard. A succession of such indentations makes the matrix for the stereotype plate. The chief difficulties, it is said, are two which are also noticeable in the work of the type-writer—first, that the paper moves forward an equal distance for each letter, whereas in good printing the letters are of very different width; and second, that it is not easy, if one divides words correctly, to make all the lines of the same length. Corrections can be made as easily as in any stereotype plates, but one disadvantage will be that as there is no correction in the type there will be a great deal more plate correction than under the old system. Probably it will be necessary to repunch (reset was the old term) whole paragraphs when the author makes extensive changes.

—Prof. Dr. von Riehl recently delivered in Munich a lecture on the historic significance of the piano, which is reprinted in No. 12 of the Leipzig *Signale*, and contains a number of interesting statements regarding what Doctor Riehl aptly called our "encyclopædic instrument." The compositions of different epochs and nationalities are to a certain extent modelled after the characteristics of a favorite instrument. Palestrina's typical instrument was the voice; his works, like those of most other Italian composers, breathe the spirit of song. The favorite instrument of Bach and Handel was the organ; hence even their arias and choruses are a sort of vocal organ music. The spirit of the symphonic period—Haydn to Beethoven—is largely determined by the violin; but with the later Beethoven the piano begins to assume its dominant position as the instrument of the modern composer. It is true, a great musician does not make use of the piano while composing; but he needs it as a means of correcting his work and getting a general view of it. In its want of power to sustain and swell a tone lies the greatest defect of the piano; its great advantage over all other instruments (except the organ) consists in this, that on it alone all the harmonic parts can be played simultaneously. The pianoforte scores and arrangements of operatic and symphonic works have contributed enormously to the spread of musical culture. Externally, the piano presents a sort of synopsis of the history of music. The white and the black keys respectively represent mediæval and modern music. All the compositions of the Greeks and other ancient and mediæval nations can be played on the white keys. The piano still lacks the power to indicate quarter tones and the difference between, *e. g.*, C sharp and D flat. Doctor Riehl also refers to the pathological phenomena caused by the present piano epidemic, especially among women, and thinks we might speak of music-poisoning as of nicotine-poisoning; but he suggests no remedy. We cannot share his regrets at the fact that modern audiences no longer care for the pianoforte music of former periods (preceding Beethoven). He thinks it is largely a matter of fashion, but it would be more correct to say that we care no longer for Mozart's sonatas, for instance, because he endeavored to atone for the lack of sustained tone in the instruments of his period by introducing runs and ornaments which to us appear unnecessary and meaningless.

—The celebration of the second centenary of Pierre Corneille has revived a controversy on the status of actors in France. The Curé of Saint-Roch held a religious service in his church, in honor of the poet, and invited the company of the Théâtre-Français to take part in the ceremony. For this he was criticised and praised. M. Ch. Livet wrote to the *Temps* to prove that the blame was undeserved, inasmuch as actors had never been formally excommunicated as a class by the Church, and the thunders of the clergy had been directed against them simply as persons of licentious life and immoral influence. So in some Protestant churches the ministers inveigh against rumsellers. If a large proportion of liquor-dealers should take to selling tea and coffee and drinks compounded of acid phosphate, the sturdiest prohibition preacher might invite them to his church sociables. Thus, would M. Livet say (if Paris knew anything of prohibition preachers and acid phosphates), now that the stage is reformed, the Church can afford some countenance to the better kind of actors. But those who are not favorably inclined to the Church are not ready to resign any proof of its illiberality, like that treatment of the theatre of which the refusal of the Archbishop of Paris to allow Molière to be buried in consecrated ground was only one instance. Whether actuated by this feeling or not, M. A. Gazier shows by extracts from several *rituels*, "the most official of all documents in the matter of ecclesiastical discipline," that the actors' profession is spoken of as one that the Church has always disapproved of, and that they are classed with usurers, persons who keep concubines, and persons of a notoriously criminal life, in not being permitted to have the *viaticum* or to be buried in holy ground. This, of course, was not formal nor full excommunication, for players could still be married and their children could be baptized; but it is enough to show that the action of the Curé of Saint-Roch indicates a change in the attitude of the Church toward the profession. It cannot be pretended that the stage is wholly reformed, or that the actors and actresses of Paris are all persons of irreproachable lives. If the happy time should ever come when they are, which certainly is most unlikely, other curés may be found who will depart from the traditional attitude of the Church toward the class. Then we shall no doubt be told again that there never was any attitude of the Church, that there was merely the action of individual priests. In other words, we shall have reproduced in regard to a question of morals the practice of religious teachers about scientific discoveries. First,

they say it cannot be true, because it contradicts the Bible; then they discover that by interpretation the Bible can be made to agree with it; then they declare that it is the exact teaching of the Bible. This is human nature, and the defenders of the Church manifest at times an inclination to follow the same course.

—The position of M. Francisque Sarcey in the journalism of Paris is somewhat peculiar. Outside of France he is best known as the foremost of French dramatic critics, and his weekly theatrical reviews in the *Temps* have a weight and authority allowed to no other dramatic criticisms. But in France he is perhaps better known as the chief daily contributor to the *XIXe Siècle*, in the columns of which paper he discusses daily the topic of the time, and has led many a campaign against the Clericals. By many M. Sarcey was considered the champion "priest-eater" of France, and much surprise was therefore expressed when it was known that he was going into an hospital owned and tended by priests. M. Sarcey's eyes were always feeble; he has wholly lost one, and he went into the hospital to have the other operated upon for cataract. Since he came out he has gathered into a little volume—'Gare à vos Yeux!!' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern)—the articles he wrote for the *XIXe Siècle* describing the cause and effect of his operation. It is a pleasant little volume, the offspring of that willingness to talk about one's self, and to take one's self seriously and as of interest to others, which is a marked French characteristic. On the fly-leaf of this volume is announced 'Mes Souvenirs de Jeunesse,' some of which have already seen the light in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire*. They bid fair to be as amusing as any of the literary recollections which abound just now.

—The *Preussische Jahrbücher* for March contains only three articles, exclusive of the brief political and literary chronicles; but these are of unusual interest. The first is a fifty-page paper on the late Friedrich Kapp, by Doctor von Holst; the second, an account of the Catholic Church in Belgium; the third, another fifty-page article, on the silver question in Germany, by Erwin Nasse. In one way this last paper is disappointing, since it contains little that refers particularly to Germany; but the question is admirably discussed, and none of the points of the bi-metallists are ignored. The occasion for the article is afforded by a change of base on the part of the German silver party, which, so late as the autumn of 1882, declared that Germany must hold fast to the gold standard so long as Great Britain should do this. But by December, 1884, the silver men had concluded that there was no hope of Great Britain's joining them, so they proclaimed that the union of Germany, the Latin Union, and the United States was sufficient, thereby making the question a practical one; for so long as their opponents admitted their dependence upon Great Britain, the monometallists deemed the matter so purely theoretical as not to require serious discussion. The first assumption of the silver men, that the union of the Powers named would produce a rise in the value of silver, Mr. Nasse admits to be correct; but this would not prevent a premium on gold, because London would be, then as now, the world's clearing-house. In fact, there was a slight premium from 1850 to 1865 in France; and even now, whenever there is any emergency, such as the Austrian demand for gold last December, a premium has to be paid. Moreover, the premium would constantly rise, for the silver nations would have to absorb not only the ever-increasing annual product, but the surplus stores of gold and paper countries, which would take advantage of the temporary rise in the value of silver. Nor would the increased supply be balanced by the increased consumption, because, owing to the inconvenience of using silver in considerable sums, there would be no *real* increased consumption, the place of gold (and of promises to pay in gold, which would likewise command a premium) being supplied by promises to pay in silver. For the United States is not the only country in which "cart-wheel" coins are, as far as possible, ignored. Another important consideration is the cost of recoining their present stock of silver, which the Latin Union or the United States, or both, would have to do in order to establish the same ratio. But the preliminary cost is trifling compared with what would follow. Sooner or later, one or more of the countries in the Union would withdraw, and the difficulty of preserving the conventional value would be, of course, increased in proportion to the amount of the coin which the withdrawing nation would cease to use. And even supposing that no country withdrew voluntarily, war, with a forced currency, is sure to occur occasionally, by which the same result would be produced. We may add that Mr. Nasse refuses to recognize the silver men's Hobson's choice; for if the supply of gold is decreasing, so also, with the enormously increased readiness of the public to use Government notes and commercial paper (both payable in gold), is the need of gold coin decreasing likewise.

—The years elapsed are few since seismology entered its claim to consideration as a science. Foremost among the societies engaged in research upon seismic activity is the Seismological Society of Japan, and foremost among its investigators is Prof. John Milne, who has lately published, in the second part of vol. vii. of the Society's transactions (1884), the most thorough and important contribution to earthquake research which has yet appeared. It is a discussion of nearly 400 earthquakes which have been systematically observed during two years in the island of Niphon or North Japan. He has had the assistance of some fifty observers, variously located on the islands, who for several years have been accustomed to make weekly reports to Professor Milne with regard to the occurrence and intensity of earthquake disturbances. At a few of the stations the more marked disturbances were timed with accuracy. A number of noteworthy facts have been discovered by Professor Milne's system of investigation: for example, it is found that a well-marked range of mountains south of the alluvial plain about Tokio forms a most effective barrier to the progress of seismic disturbance, only one-hundredth part of these disturbances being propagated beyond the range, thus indicating clearly the necessity of extending the network of observing-stations northward. Of 387 earthquakes the shocks for 254 were not appreciable beyond an area of fifty square miles; 198 of these affecting only the seaboard towns, while the remaining 56 were inland. Several of the great shocks had their origin far out at sea, with less marked effects, therefore, at the stations than many lesser ones originating nearer at hand. Areas remote from each other were sometimes disturbed, while no shock was felt at intermediate stations. The islands themselves do not appear in general to be the immediate seat of origin of these disturbances, but a very large proportion of the whole take their rise from beneath the ocean. The great alluvial plain of Musashi, surrounding Tokio, and forming one of the flattest parts of Japan, was the region subject to the greatest and most frequently recurring disturbance. Professor Milne regards it as remarkable that the number of earthquakes felt on the low ground is large compared with the number recorded as having been felt in the mountainous regions. The seismic activity has been small in the immediate vicinity of extremely recent, or at present active, volcanoes. Shocks are most frequent, too, where the slopes are steepest, and where there is abundant evidence of a recent and rapid elevation—the seismic regions of Japan holding, in all these respects, a close relationship to similar districts in South America. Another important deduction from Professor Milne's collected observations is the strongly-marked coincidence in a general way between the minimum of temperature and the maximum of seismic disturbance throughout the entire region observed—a connection long known as applicable to the Musashi area. And not only is the number of winter earthquakes very much greater, but the seismic intensity in winter is more than three times as great as that of the summer months. Professor Milne finds nothing in the recurrence of earthquakes in the Japan region to establish the supposed connection of such phenomena with the position of the moon in its orbit.

HAMERTON'S LANDSCAPE.

Landscape. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. With original etchings and many illustrations from pictures and drawings. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1885.

THE appearance of 'Landscape' is an event in art literature. It will of course provoke comparisons with 'Modern Painters'; but any comparison which is based on analogy will be unjust, whatever its outcome, for it would be difficult to produce a book on the same subject more completely antithetical to 'Modern Painters' than is this new work of Mr. Hamerton's. It is as remarkable for its calm, philosophical tone as was Mr. Ruskin's first work for its passionate advocacy of the claims of an artist treated with what he regarded as monstrous injustice. The fiery eloquence of 'Modern Painters' ran through the whole English-speaking world, and set aflame with enthusiasm for nature people who never before looked at a cloud, and for Turner people who never saw one of his pictures and were incapable of comprehending, if they saw, them. It was the passion of an evangelical spirit glowing with what it saw as a new faith, mingling its intense feeling with its unripe experience, the glory with the weakness of youth, and giving its best intellectual powers as an offering to Nature and Truth, and to Turner, whom it fancied to be their High-Priest. Eloquence has never outdone the fervor of some of the rhetoric of that first volume, nor has the most vehement advocacy of any cause more ingeniously and ingenuously warped a case to suit its sympathies. But through Mr. Hamerton's book runs the calm and deliberation if not the epigrammatical quality of an essay of Emerson—the slow, passionless conclusion of a mind which reflects over nature and deliberates over art—serene, just, weighing all things, rejecting nothing and accepting nothing hastily, logical and well-anchored. Every lover of noble diction, passionate eloquence, and sublime imagery reads 'Modern Painters' with the glow the Athenians felt when they heard the Philippics, though he knows nothing of art and little of nature; but no one will read 'Landscape' with equal pleasure unless he has already studied nature profoundly and knows something of art. He will then read it with a quiet satisfaction capable always of being interrupted without impatience and resumed with pleasure.

It is a simply elaborate essay on landscape as distinguished from the external inanimate world:

"We use the word in two distinct senses, a general and a particular. In the general sense the word landscape without the article means the visible material world, all that can be seen on the surface of the earth by a man who is himself upon the surface; and in the special sense *a* landscape means a piece of the earth's surface that

can be seen at once, and it is always understood that this piece will have a certain artistic unity, or suggestion of unity, in itself."

The subject is treated from all sides which have any contact with art or sentiment—from the side of our illusions; our love for nature; the power of nature over us; nature as subjective; verbal description, "word-painting"; nature as reflected by Homer, as the type of Greek nature-impression; by Virgil or Latin, Ariosto or Mediæval; then as studied by Wordsworth and Lamartine, as types of English and French; from its relation to the various graphic arts, its characteristics in Great Britain and in France, and from the geography of beauty and art. Mountains are weighed in the art balances; lakes, brooks, rivulets, and rivers in their degrees of magnitude. Then man's work on rivers and their use in art are considered; then trees, under their various aspects; then the effect of agriculture on landscape, of figures and animals, and of architecture. "The two immensities," sea and sky, conclude.

But this enumeration will hardly suggest the exhaustive manner in which the subjects are treated, or the intertwining of art study, the results of wide and thoughtful reading and ripe knowledge of the face of nature around them. One recognizes the influence of Emerson, but no imitation of him—not his vocabulary nor his views of art, for Emerson had no idea of the graphic arts; only his habit of looking at nature and accepting her influences.

The chapter on illusions opens the question of subjectivity, in which we find less to sympathize with than in any other section:

"The whole subject of landscape is a world of illusions, the only thing about it that is certainly not an illusion being the effect upon the mind of each particular human being who fancies that he sees something when he stands in the presence of nature. His feelings are a reality, but with regard to that which causes them it is hard to say how much is reality and how much a phantom of the mind."

The whole confusion here is one of nomenclature, but this is not of our author's making. It has long been formulated by the German metaphysicians. If we would only use words in a strict sense, we should not be puzzled by them, and Mr. Hamerton, in applying them to art, has less excuse for the confusion than dream-students. By illusion we mean one of two things—an hallucination, *i. e.*, an impression on the senses due not to a material object, but to spontaneous activity of some part of the nervous system; or an impression of an external object, which impression proves to be incorrect. The phantoms which a man in delirium tremens sees are, we must suppose, hallucinations—in that they are not real. An object which we took in the moonlight for a human figure and find to be a cloak hung on a peg, is an illusion to the mind, but not to the eye, for the sense saw exactly what was there, though the mind had misinterpreted it. This is not an illusion in the sense in which our author uses the term—*i. e.*, a purely subjective impression. The object seen was just as real as a man would have been. A sojourner on a mountain top will sometimes find, when he awakes, the whole valley below him filled with mist and resembling a sea. The illusion to his eye may be complete, but the sea of vapor is quite as absolute reality as the ocean. The traveller's ignorance, or the imperfection of his vision, is the cause of the deception. We must, therefore, if we would be exact, apply the word deception to one class of illusion and hallucination to the other, and restate the problem in these terms. But the latter is not to be predicated of art, which only deals with appearances, and to which a mist is as real as a mountain, so that deception is the only equivalent, in art, of illusion. But Nature never deceives—it is only that we do not in all cases understand her. It is not she but we who said this mist was the sea, and a supreme faculty in art is to accept what Nature shows us for just what it appears, and not try to see more than she shows.

But, says Mr. Hamerton (with the Germans), "Where there is no eye there is no color"; wherefore, "we must be continually exposed to illusions about color, both because we differ from our own contemporaries, and because there is every reason to believe that our degree of nervous sensitiveness is not the highest to which the human race may be slowly advancing." But here, again, the confusion is due to careless use of words. We say an object is green when it possesses the property of reflecting the green rays of sunlight to our eyes; we do not imply that it is always reflecting them, but that it is of such nature that when the light falls on it the green becomes visible. But it possesses this property without regard to the exercise of it, and the green thing is always therefore green until it becomes some other color, which in turn is no more possible in the dark than the green. We may as well say that a man is not a speaking animal because he is at times silent. We say that he speaks because we know that he can speak when occasion offers. The whole error grows out of a false definition, assuming that "green" means shining with a certain color, when what we really and always mean by it is that it has the power of showing that color and that alone. And the difference of color vision is no more a matter of illusion, for it is simply a matter of degree. One man cannot tell green from red, but all men who can, agree which one is red and which green. A blind man sees nothing, but his want of vision proves nothing.

But, adopting Gladstone's fallacy that because Homer's color vocabulary is limited, therefore the antique color sense was feeble, our author says: "The evidence that we possess, in the Homeric poems and elsewhere, of a degree of color perception very inferior to our own, points to the inevitable conclusion that we ourselves may be still very far from having attained the ultimate development of this faculty." It is curious to find so good a reasoner fall into this trap. When we know that the Greeks of to-day use the same terms for the same objects that Homer did, and call red wine black, and yet see all the intermediate colors as well as Englishmen, we need not puzzle over Homer's nomenclature. Is it to be supposed that we could not see the tints called magenta and solferino before these terms were invented? It is only when a commercial name is wanted for a tint that a distinctive one is coined. This is the solution of the whole color-word puzzle. There is not the least ground for asserting that the Greeks of Homer's time saw color otherwise than as we do, for barbarous people to-day have the same poverty of vocabulary and of dyestuffs, together with perfect color sense. Ask a Persian carpet weaver to name all the tints in his carpet! The Italians call their wine "nero" or "bianco," black or white, though they are neither the one nor the other. When the buyers begin to choose between white wine and yellow, or deep red and pale red, the sellers will make new names to distinguish them. There is no evidence whatever that men do now see color differently (speaking optically), or that they have seen it differently from what they do now, at any time since language or art was invented, though greater degrees of optical sensibility and various measures of color sympathy there are and probably always will be.

We have dwelt at length on this chapter of Mr. Hamerton's book because it is the one of which we should deprecate the influence, supported as it is by a metaphysical fallacy of long standing. It is impossible to give even an analysis of this comprehensive book in the space of a notice like ours, the more as its condensation gives little opportunity for summarizing; but the chapters on nature's power over us, on classical, mediæval, and modern landscape (even after Ruskin's remarks on the same theme), on mountains, lakes, rivers in art, and trees in art, will be found to have at least as great interest and value to painters as to unprofessional students of art. In analytic studies of this kind there is always great danger that the interest of the study warming the imagination, may modify the subtle impression to be analyzed, and impart the color of personality where the most complete impersonality is needed. But our author's contemplative and philosophical temperament gives such assurance as is possible against this result of his analysis, and we may accept his conclusions as, on the whole, being those of a normal intellect as far removed from national prejudice as is likely to be the case with any man thoroughly versed in the literature pertaining to his subject, and in the influence of literary training on the artistic mind; so deeply and widely conversant, too, with art as to possess a breadth of critical comprehension and catholicity of appreciation perhaps unique in art literature. The critic who has sought for the reason of his preferences, and the artist who has speculated on the secret of the charm which certain subjects exert over him in preference to others, and the philosophic inquirer in search of data on which to base generalizations upon all forms of intellectual activity or sensibility, will alike find some data for their use in 'Landscape.'

Among the direct criticisms of artists which are involved in the thread of our author's discourse, one passage will be found of present especial value from the interest now felt here in the artist named:

"I believe this difficulty (that of the artist making his feeling before nature intelligible to others) to be far greater in landscape than in any other department of the fine arts. Those who have overcome it by finding some expression of their feeling that is intelligible to others, are the successful and famous men. All their deficiencies are forgiven them, and they are placed in a situation almost unassailable by criticism. There is Corot, for instance, not by any means a strong painter in the representation of tangible things, such as rocks, trees, and buildings; indeed, it may safely be affirmed that in this quality of forcible representation he is surpassed every day by a multitude of painters who have not the faintest chance of escaping permanent oblivion, yet Corot is a most famous artist. All his fame is due to success in one thing: he was able to express a certain feeling about nature which some lovers of nature could understand. As it seemed to them pleasant and poetical, like a walk in the dewy fields at dawn on a summer morning, they were grateful for the gentle excitement, and repaid Corot by declaring that he was a great artist. After this, all criticism of Corot falls to the ground. It is a waste of industry to demonstrate that a man who has hit the bull's-eye has not placed his arrow in this or that circle of the target. He preferred feeling to substance, and won his prize with that, sacrificing all else as being *for him* superfluous."

In another place the author finds fault with a French critic for saying that Corot was Greek in his art; yet this very trait which he points out, of so singling out a certain quality and expressing it subjectively and to the neglect of any other, is the vital quality of Greek art. We must quote another passage, the profound truth of which will be felt by some of the most devoted students of nature who have essayed art and found it insufficient:

"On account of these various impediments, there comes a time in the life of those who take a great delight in nature when they feel art to be so disappointing (especially in their own practice) that they are tempted to give up the pursuit and study of it, and enjoy nature alone without reference to painting. The deliverance from art is then felt to be an emancipation. We go to mountain and lake, and feel like schoolboys released from school. Those highly artificial rules

invented by artists and connoisseurs, which Byron so heartily detested, are violated by Nature at every turn, and with the very happiest results. She is constantly doing things that you and I would be severely blamed or pitilessly ridiculed for doing upon canvas, but still she goes on heedless of all human opinion and prodigal in her heterodox production."

This is a side-light thrown on the eternal debate on Nature *vs.* Art. Nature offers us impartially a thousand objects of admiration. Art can accept no more than her hands full, and these she must arrange so that they shall stand for the thousand. How to do it—that is the problem. Corot did it, so did Turner; but no realist ever could do it, and so realism, as art, fails, and the painter who loves and understands Nature better than Art is ignored.

The illustrations of 'Landscape' are of a kind to which an especial and distinguishing praise must be given. In complete artistic quality no book-illustration of the day equals them. They are, as the preface asserts, at the high-water mark of what can be done in this vein, and in consonance with the purpose of the book. There is even new light thrown on Turner's art by the comparison afforded between the rendering, in several forms of reproduction, of various motives of it. A line engraving by Brandard, an etching and a mezzotint by Brunet-Debaines, are given, with photogravures; the series including seven drawings by Turner, and the whole comprising forty-one engravings, etchings, photogravures, etc., of most of the distinctly typical landscape artists from Van Eyck down to our day, each for a definite purpose admitted to the book.

The get-up of 'Landscape' is superlative—the art of book-making in our day can go no further except in the way of binding, which in the large-paper copy seems flimsy. But it is probable that most possessors of this superb book will treat themselves to a binding to their own taste.

THOMSON'S MASAI LAND.

Through Masai Land: a Journey of Exploration among the Snow-clad Volcanic Mountains and Strange Tribes of Eastern Equatorial Africa. Being the narrative of the Royal Geographical Society's expedition to Mount Kenia and Lake Victoria Nyanza, 1883-1884. By Joseph Thomson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. Pp. 583. Maps. Illustrations. 8vo.

THE interest in African travel, which has somewhat waned of late, will be revived by this account of Mr. Thomson's remarkable journey. Not only is a great part of the country visited absolutely new, but it proves to be of wonderful beauty, swarming with game, and inhabited by a race of savages far superior to the other African tribes. Then the writer, who, though only twenty-six, has already led three expeditions into the interior of the continent, wins your confidence and sympathy at the outset by his determination, successfully carried out, to bring his men back to the coast better "morally and physically than they left it." A keen sportsman, he never shocks you by mere wanton destruction to make a great "bag," but kills simply to provide food for his caravan. In addition, the obstacles to his progress are so constant and so difficult to be overcome, that the interest in his story, told for the most part with perfect simplicity, never flags for an instant. His book is certainly a remarkable picture of a man, to quote Lord Aberdare's words in regard to him, who has "the endurance of a Stoic, the self-command of a red Indian, the meekness of a saint, and the constitution of a camel."

The object of the expedition of which Mr. Thomson was the leader was to explore the country lying between Lake Victoria Nyanza and the coast, where are the snow-covered mountains possibly referred to by Aristotle as the "so-called silver mountain" at the source of the Nile. Though that part of eastern Africa was the first to attract the attention of Europeans, yet it has been the last to be explored. Up to this time only three adventurous missionaries and as many travellers have been able to get within sight of the mountains, whose very existence even has been doubted by geographers of our own day. This is not because the country is so difficult to reach. On the contrary, it is far easier to enter the interior from Mombasa, Mr. Thomson's point of departure, than it is from Zanzibar; for there is none of that terrible swamp to be crossed, the breeding-ground of the fever and dysentery to which so many Europeans have fallen victims. The only obstacle to the explorer lies in the inhabitants, a fierce and warlike race, who invariably plunder and destroy, if possible, all strangers who enter their territory. It was with the greatest difficulty that Mr. Thomson could persuade men to enlist in his expedition, so much did the coast negroes dread the Masai. Though he offered extraordinary inducements, he was obliged to take the very refuse of Zanzibar, men whose evil reputations prevented their being engaged by other travellers. The traders assured him that three hundred men was the least number with which he could safely enter Masai Land. Stanley's advice to him on leaving England was, "Take a thousand men, or make your will." Notwithstanding this, he determined to make the attempt with one hundred and forty men, all told, on half a dozen of whom he could thoroughly rely. The most of these were porters who carried the stores, and the beads, wire, and cloth which form the principal medium of exchange with the natives. With great exertion, and constant watching night and day to prevent desertions, he brought his disreputable force to Taveta, at the threshold of the land he was sent to explore. This charming spot is situated on the southern slope of Kilimanjaro, 138 miles from the sea. A dense forest of magnificent trees, "which in many instances spring up branchless 80 to 100 feet before spreading out in a splendid umbrageous canopy," with bower-like pathways lined with ferns, creepers, and a profusion of flowering shrubs; rich banana groves; fields golden with the maize or gray with the millet; streams of pure cold water fed by the snows of the mountain—make a picture almost idyllic in its loveliness. Though close to the equator, the nights are made cool by the refreshing breeze from the neighboring snow-fields, and "mosquitoes are almost unknown." By day one may hunt all the large game of Africa amid mountain scenery of unsurpassed beauty; while the charm of the night, when "a flood of fairy notes from myriad cicadæ pervades the air," is only broken by the horrid laughter of the hyenas and the resonant thunder of the roar of the lion, "a nightly visitor to our neighborhood." The inhabitants of this earthly paradise "hardly detract from the poetical picture. True Arcadians they are in their peaceable habits, their great hospitality, their manly, pleasant manners, and surprising honesty."

Here all caravans stop to recruit after the fatiguing march from the coast, and to make the necessary preparations for entering Masai Land. In Mr. Thomson's case this consisted in making up his cloth into war dresses and stringing 60,000 strings of beads. This took more than a fortnight, during which he busied himself with hunting and exploring the adjacent country. The principal feature in the landscape was the vast mass of Kilimanjaro, referred to by the Portuguese in 1530 as the "Mt. Olympus of Ethiopia," and called by the awestruck native, who often sees the snow-clad summit "away up in mid-heaven, cut off apparently from all earthly connection" by mists and clouds, "the House of God." It is an extinct volcano with two craters, the loftier "a dome of the most perfect proportions," rising to a height of nearly 19,000 feet. The other is a conical peak which springs from the plain "at an even angle to a sheer height of 15,000 feet, unbroken by a single irregularity or projecting buttress." To the north of this mountain the Masai occupy a strip of country which may be roughly described as about 500 miles long, with an average breadth of 90 miles. It is shut in on all sides by lofty ranges of mountains, the northerly part being a plateau culminating at a height of 9,000 feet, and swept over by hail-storms of such violence as to destroy great numbers of men. The southerly portion is a sterile desert, with here and there salt-encrusted marshes, now shining in the sun like "burnished silver," now appearing like "sheets of pure white snow or lakes of charmingly clear water."

The inhabitants, who seem to be rapidly decreasing in numbers from their incessant wars, are, in some respects, the most interesting of all the African tribes. "They present no point of resemblance either to the true negroes who surround them on the east, south, and west, or to the Galla and Somal who shut them in on the north. They distinctly differ in their strange mode of life, their curious customs, form of government, and religious belief, not to speak of their curious language." The first men whom Mr. Thomson saw caused him to exclaim involuntarily, "What splendid fellows!" A party who came into camp "were magnificent specimens of their race, considerably over six feet, and with an aristocratic savage dignity that filled me with admiration." They seemed to be absolutely devoid of fear. At one time "it was wonderful to see the fearless and insolent manner in which even small boys hustled our porters from the water, and made them stand out of the way till they had finished, and equally surprising to see the meek and patient way in which these indignities were submitted to by the porters, men who in other places are accustomed to lord it." The young women are "distinctly ladylike in both manner and physique. Their figures are slender and well-formed, without the abnormal development about the hips characteristic of the negro." At the age of fourteen a boy is circumcised and sent to live in a kraal where are only the unmarried men, the warriors, and the unmarried women. There he stays, perhaps twenty years, practising in military evolutions and going on raids, until he finds his strength begins to fail, when he marries and becomes one of the elders of his tribe. It is a strange custom, and "strikingly indicative of the fact that he had exchanged the spear for the distaff," that the newly married warrior must wear for a month the dress of a maiden. With the change in his life his character softens. He becomes generous and more peaceable, often protecting those whom, as a warrior, his only thought had been to destroy, while his face loses the habitual scowl of the young man, and is replaced "by a more pleasing and genial expression." In a sense the Masai are distinctly religious, though "their conception of the Deity seems to be marvellously vague. I was Ngăi. My lamp was Ngăi. Ngăi was in the steaming holes. His house was in the eternal snows of Kilimanjaro. In fact, whatever struck them as strange or incomprehensible, that they at once assumed had some connection with Ngăi. Their prayers to him were incessant."

Mr. Thomson's first attempt to enter the country of this singularly interesting people was unsuccessful. Though he crossed the border without difficulty, he was soon convinced that his caravan was far too small for him to proceed with safety. On the eve of an attack he prudently re-

treated, and by a rapid but dangerous night march succeeded in escaping from the country unharmed, but wofully plundered. Undismayed by his failure, he left his caravan at Taveta under the charge of a Maltese sailor, the only white man with him, and went back to the coast for a new supply of goods and porters. On his return he was so fortunate as to join a large caravan of traders and in their company to again enter Masai land, and this time with entire success. Though their numbers were now large enough for safety, yet the march was a hazardous and trying one. At no time could they feel secure from attack; and the first thing on halting for the night was to surround the camp with a high thorn fence as a protection against both beasts and savages. Buffaloes and rhinoceroses frequently charged through the caravan when on the march, and one evening before camp was reached lions leaped from the jungle and killed several donkeys. "The porters threw down their loads and fled. Donkeys were doing the same, kicking off their burdens and braying lustily with fear. Many of these, breaking through the bushes, were taken for lions by the panic-stricken porters, and shot down. The cattle got away from all control and crashed through the brake, adding further to the chaos. The shouts and cries of men, mingled with the roaring of lions, the braying of donkeys, and an almost continuous fusillade from fire-arms, furnished all the elements of a night of horror." But the Masai were worse than the lions. The greed and insolent curiosity of the warriors made it extremely difficult to avoid constant quarrels. At one place, says Mr. Thomson, "I was actually pulled about as if I was a toy to be played with. They grasped my arm, pulled my hair, and took off my hat. If I went into my tent they would squeeze themselves after me, until everything was filthy. They gloried in frightening my men by making a show of stabbing them, and roars of laughter greeted their piteous terror." Yet all these indignities had to be submitted to with a feint of good humor, or further progress among them would have been impossible.

A principal object of the expedition was to examine Mt. Kenia, and, as the traders' route lay far to the west, with thirty picked men and as many traders Thomson left the caravan and marched rapidly through the heart of the country to the mountain, rejoining the caravan at Lake Baringo in the north. This was one of the most daring exploits in the annals of African travel. By the aid of his extraordinary tact in dealing with the savages, and his reputation as a medicine-man, largely due to a frequent use of Eno's fruit salts and the judicious exhibition of two false teeth, he was able to "bore" his way, through obstacles apparently insurmountable, to the desired goal. Mt. Kenia, known hitherto only from native reports, proved to be an extinct volcano, its single summit, "a dazzling white pinnacle," being only a little lower than Kilimanjaro. Later he made a similar dash, this time with a hundred men, through a country still more dangerous, in which "the last three caravans which had preceded me had each lost more than 100 men by violence," and succeeded in reaching the Lake Victoria Nyanza without bloodshed. During this excursion he visited the strange inhabited caves on the slopes of Elgon, a high mountain some fifty miles north of the lake. The chambers, with roofs supported by rough pillars hewn out of extremely solid rock, bore incontestable evidence of their artificial origin. It did not occur to him to search for evidences of precious stones or metals, but it is possible that they were mines worked by the Egyptians in the days of the Pharaohs. The day after leaving Elgon he was nearly killed by a buffalo, his only accident, amid perils without number, during the whole journey. It is pleasant to read that his men, who at the outset had to be driven to their work like a slave caravan, now "were literally quarrelling to have the honor of being my carriers." His homeward march was attended by a frightful attack of dysentery, causing "a six weeks' struggle with death," but he safely reached the coast in May, 1884, after an absence of fourteen months.

The most exciting incidents in this book, in which there is not a single dull page, are the hunting adventures, in which Thomson appears to have shown a coolness and courage not surpassed by Gordon Cumming himself. They are too long, however, to quote, and we must refer the reader to the book for them. The quantity and variety of the game in the greater part of the country traversed were very great. On one expedition his "bag" consisted of four rhinoceroses, one giraffe, four zebras, and four antelopes, all of which had fallen to my own rifle within six hours." At the same time another man shot an elephant. On another occasion he "followed a herd of nearly sixty giraffes." Indeed, we are inclined to regret these vivid descriptions, as there is reason to fear that in no long time an irruption of European sportsmen will invade the land and exterminate or drive away the game. A word should be said in praise of the pictures in this volume, the most of which are from photographs taken by Mr. Thomson. They admirably illustrate one of the most fascinating books of travels we have ever read.

William Tyndale's Five Books of Moses, called the Pentateuch, being a Verbatim Reprint of the Edition of M.CCCCC.XXX. Compared with Tyndale's Genesis of 1534, and the Pentateuch in the Vulgate, Luther, and Matthew's Bible, with various Collations and Prolegomena. By the Rev. J. I. Mombert, D.D. New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.; London: Samuel Bagster & Sons. 1885.

It is not often that the lovers of early English Biblical literature are presented with a book from the modern press more inviting than this edition of Tyndale's Pentateuch. The *pièce de résistance* is a reprint, verbatim et literatim, of the sole extant and most rare edition of MCCCCCXXX. This is garnished with prolegomena and notes in profusion, and with photo-engravings of Tyndale's manuscript and of specimen pages of the early edition. There is a biographical notice, made up in great part of verbatim reprints of rare old documents on which modern knowledge rests. Then there are various bibliographical notices, collations, lists of places, of misprints in the original edition, and a glossary. These have been prepared with unstinted labor, and with the assistance of various learned and eminent admirers of Tyndale in England and America. It is pleasant to recognize among them Dr. S. Austin Allibone, to whom all workers in English literature are so much indebted. He, after his manner—and it is a manner to be honored in the observance—has enriched the volume with an Index to the Prolegomena. The whole work is plainly a labor of love, and a critic must be a cynic indeed who, with one of these noble large-paper copies before him, cannot sympathize with Doctor Mombert's paternal rejoicing over it. He dedicates it "to the memory of James Lenox," as the first book which has been prepared in the Lenox Library from material drawn from its shelves; and he rises in the preface to a certain rhythmical eloquence, as he speaks his last words of thanks and praise to all who have helped him, and of honor to the Apostle of Liberty who, at the cost of his life, gave the English Bible to the English people.

It is no wonder that they fall in love with Tyndale. He appears in the biography as a veritable saint, of the St. John type. He was a devoted student also, and deeply and soundly learned in Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, as well as Dutch and German. An autograph letter in Latin from prison, of which a facsimile is given, contains, to be sure, requests for his woollen shirts, and a warmer coat, and thicker leggings, and warmer nightcaps to relieve his catarrh, which is greatly aggravated by the prison-vaults; but, most of all, he begs for his Hebrew Bible, grammar, and lexicon, and a lamp to use in the evening. He says, in another place, that the Hebrew agrees with the English a thousand times more than with the Latin. In a thousand places the Hebrew will turn into good English word for word, where you must fetch a compass in the Latin, and yet have much work to translate it well-favoredly. He had the help, however, of Luther's German translation. Doctor Mombert makes various collations with the Latin and German to elaborate a demonstration that Tyndale translated from the Hebrew. When we compare his work with the Wycliffite translations, however, it is plain that he had the earlier English before him, and his translating from the Hebrew means little more than adjusting the earlier translations to it and correcting here and there. The adjustment, however, is a great work. If we lay the Anglo-Saxon translation alongside Wyclif and Tyndale, it looks as though Tyndale were following the Anglo-Saxon, while the Wycliffites servilely imitate the Latin syntax. But most likely the apostolic spirit determined his style, as it did Luther's, and he seems to fall back on the Anglo-Saxon only because he uses the native English idiom to reach the hearts of simple Englishmen. His success in producing moving English idiom is the despair of all subsequent translators. The felicities of our common English Bible are in great part due to him. Many of these have a new piquancy in the original spelling, which, being faithfully phonetic, continually suggests the origin of words and phrases which go incognito in the disguises of our modern orthography. Tyndale's books were publicly burned at St. Paul's Cross by the Bishop of London. He bought up every book of them he could get, to destroy them. The printers used the Bishop's money to good purpose, so that the Testaments came three-fold thick into England. He saw through it at last, and found, Hall says, "that he had the devil by the fist when he thought he had God by the toe." Finally, they burned Tyndale himself.

One can hardly understand, reading in our time a general narrative of these doings, why there was such fervency on both sides about the translations of the Bible. A look at these reprints goes far to explain it. They are plainly prepared as attacks on papacy and the Pope, and their supporters. "This is the light which the owles cannot abide," he says; "which thing moved me to translate the New Testament." Each of the books of the Pentateuch is accompanied by an introduction, and studded with marginal comments stabbing the man of sin under the fifth rib. Thus, at Genesis, 4:15, "And the Lord put a mark upon Cain," the margin says: "Of this place no doubt the pope which in all things maketh himself equal with God, took an occasion to mark all his creatures . . . so that no king or emperor dare punish them what so ever mischief they do." At Genesis 9:6, "He which shedeth mans blood shall have his blood shed by man," the margin admonishes kings not to suffer the pope's Caimes [Cains] to shed blood, theirs not shed again. At Exodus 32:11, Moses besought the Lord for his people, the margin says: "The pope wolde curse XX hundred thousande as blacke as coles, and send them to hell," followed up at verse 28 with "The pope's bull sleyeth more than Aaron's calf, even 100,000 for

one hair of them"; and at verse 32, "O pitiful Moses. . . . And O abhominable pope with all his merciless idols." There is no stint in attacks on the cruelty, and covetousness, and vice of the papists. At Exodus 36:6, Tyndale wants to know when the pope will "saye hoo" to offerings for building St. Peter's church. Deuteronomy 11:19, "Talk of my wordes when thou sittest in thine house," is margined, "Talke of robynhod [Robin Hood], saye oure prelates." The "prestes of the contre," he says (page 4), "have sene no more latin then that they read in their portesses and missales, except it be Albertus de Secretis mulierum in which they pore day and night," etc. This was not quite the kind of Gospel-book which the Pope and his "Caimes" could be expected to welcome, however lively it may be to a reviewer.

Tyndale's marginal notes are in fact much more interesting than those added by the American editor. It is a pity the latter were put in the margin, where they look like Tyndale's. They are mostly explanations of obsolete words or words in unfamiliar spelling, and will be more useful to amateurs than students. The last remark may be made of the vocabulary also. *Caimes*, which occurs in a quotation above, is explained as a misprint for *Caines* (p. 34); but it is the regular old spelling in Wyclif, and was the common spelling in Tyndale's time. He explains elsewhere (p. 153) his use of *Cain* in his text. *Bruterar*, Deut. 18:10.14, is explained as *murmurer*, but Tyndale himself explains it in another place (p. 634) as "prophesier" or "sothsayer."

Anne Boleyn. A Chapter of English History. 1527-1536. By Paul Friedmann. Macmillan & Co. 1884. 2 vols.

Since Mr. Froude made his futile attempt to "rehabilitate" Henry VIII., the life and actions of this monarch have been subjected to searching and impartial examination by a number of scholars who were by no means prejudiced against the main work of his reign; and the result has been at every step to confirm more and more the accepted judgment of history. The latest study in this field, Mr. Friedmann's 'Anne Boleyn,' is devoted to the ten most important and decisive years of this period; and his verdict is perhaps the most crushing that has yet been rendered. Not merely Henry, but all the leading personages of the tragedy—Wolsey, Cranmer, Cromwell, Anne (all but Catherine herself)—receive merciless condemnation. Possibly the last word upon the subject has not yet been spoken. No doubt there is a certain one-sidedness in a judgment based upon a single series of transactions; but it is hard to see how any one can in future attempt to defend the motives of the divorce, and of the severance of the Anglican Church from the papal authority. This great event must be judged not by the intentions of those who carried it through, but by its effects upon the character of the English people and the development of the English nation.

To say, indeed, that the English Reformation was the work of bad men, acting upon bad motives, is but to characterize the age. Public men everywhere were of the same type. They were no better in France; in Italy they were even worse. And the low tone of public morality and the terrible corruption of morals in this age must be pronounced the outcome—legitimate, if not necessary—of the political and ecclesiastical system of the middle ages. This is what centuries of unlimited ecclesiastical power had ended in. In the work of the Reformation, greed, sensuality, and selfish ambition conspired to destroy the system by which they themselves had thriven. When the convulsions of this stormy epoch were passed, humanity was found the better for them; men—Catholic as well as Protestant—were more earnest, more sincere, more pure than their fathers had been, and Catholics themselves should be thankful that it was no longer possible for a John XXIII. or an Alexander VI. to sit upon the papal throne.

Moreover, condemn Henry VIII. as heartily as we please, it appears clearly enough from these pages that he had a real grievance. In those days, says Mr. Friedmann (i, p. 48), divorces were effected "with a facility of which nobody can form an idea without being acquainted with the composition and practice of the courts before which such cases were brought. They were most corrupt, and always ready to please the strongest." There was no reason why Henry VIII. should not have a divorce, except that he was not the strongest. We suppose nobody doubts that if Charles V. had not been the nephew of Catherine of Arragon, the divorce would have been readily granted, Henry would have died a hearty "defender of the faith," and the English Reformation must have come, as that of Germany came, as a religious and ethical movement.

We find mention (vol. i, p. 264) of Henry's desire "that Elizabeth should be recognized as heir apparent." This should, of course, be "heir presumptive," inasmuch as the birth of a prince would at any moment have destroyed Elizabeth's right of inheritance, while that of an "heir apparent" is indefeasible.

Custom and Myth. By Andrew Lang, M.A., late Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. Harper & Bros. 1885. 12mo, pp. 312.

This work is, for the most part, an attack upon the "philological" method of studying comparative mythology, represented by the "orthodox" school, and especially Prof. Max Müller and Sir George W. Cox. For this method Mr. Lang would substitute the "method of folk-lore," based, not upon comparison of words in allied tongues, but of customs and legends in nations furthest removed from one another in language and physical character. That the philological method has been very one-sided and exaggerated in its interpretations, we have long felt; and we are heartily glad to see so vigorous an exposure of its inconsistencies and shortcomings. But it does not follow that the orthodox school is not often—perhaps generally—correct; or, on the other hand, that the "method of folk-lore" may not exhibit the same or equally great defects. The present volume is only a sketch, and this method, for its complete testing, needs to be worked out as elaborately, and criticised as keenly, as its rival. Mr. Lang's assault has naturally called out protests and vigorous defence on the part of the advocates of the other method. It is a little curious, however, to note how readily they fall into the very faults which they repudiate. Mr. Lang has accused them of want of agreement among themselves—their method "is discredited by the disputes of its adherents." Sir George Cox protests vigorously against this assertion in the columns of the *Academy*, and asks, by way of example, "Does any one doubt that Odin is the wind?" To which Professor Rhys replies, "My impulse would have been just as confidently to ask, Does any one still think that Odin is the wind?" appealing to Fick and Vigfusson for an etymological connection with *vates*, which would make him out to be a god of wisdom. Mr. Isaac Taylor suggests that there are two Odins—one connected with *vates* (the god of wisdom), the other with *vado* (the wind); and brings arguments for the identity of Woden with the Wild Huntsman, which Mr. Vigfusson proceeds straightway to demolish. Max Müller follows with a long argument to show that Woden, *Wuotan*, is "the striker with the thunderbolt"; and M. Gaidoz closes the discussion with a very sensible letter, in which he cites "Hamlet"—"'Tis like a camel," "very like a whale"—as an illustration of the variety of interpretations that may be put upon the same phenomenon. Evidently the science of comparative mythology has not reached the stage yet at which dogmatic assertions are advisable, whether from the point of view of philology or of folk-lore.

The History of the Present Tariff. By F. W. Taussig. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

We have here a very readable account of the protective legislation since 1860. It is a common thing for free-traders to denounce the whole body of tariff law as a mass of crudities and absurdities, flung together without plan or reason. But in fact there is not a line of it that does not show the most careful thought and the most experienced judgment. Every article that is enumerated is dealt in by somebody, and it is for the pecuniary interest of that somebody that the duty upon that article should be most judiciously regulated. To the ordinary citizen it may seem but an innocent absurdity that woollen goods should pay fifty cents a pound and thirty-five per cent. *ad valorem;* but to the blanket and flannel-maker there is no absurdity about it. It means to him a protective duty of about one hundred per cent. upon his manufactures, and entire relief from the competition of the hated foreigner. By the act of 1883, the duty upon cheap cotton goods was reduced from five cents to two and one-half cents per yard. It would be altogether too simple, however, to suppose that the Tariff Commission had any idea of reducing the burdens of the poor. Protectionists are to be feared *vel dona ferentes*. The truth is, that such goods can be made here as cheaply as anywhere, and the lower duty is just as prohibitive as the higher. The last revision of the tariff purported to bring about a general reduction of duties by twenty per cent. As a matter of fact, almost the only duties reduced were those the reduction of which could affect no domestic manufacture, while in many cases duties were materially raised. On the whole, the changes were in favor of increased protection.

Although this little book is but a sketch of the principal measures of protection, it is perhaps on that account the more valuable. There remains nothing to be said upon the theory of free trade; there remains everything to be done in arousing the American people. Tracts like this will be read by many who would not open a bulky volume of the same title, and they will find that what they regarded as the most confused and perplexing of subjects is not only comprehensible but also interesting. The discussion of the wool tariff is especially suggestive, although, of course, only an expert in the trade can speak with authority upon such a question. The style of the author is temperate throughout, and, indeed, he seems disposed rather to understate than to exaggerate his case.

Progressive Morality: an Essay in Ethics. By Thomas Fowler, President of Corpus Christi College, etc., Oxford. 12mo, pp. 201. Macmillan & Co.

Professor Fowler's essay is a clear and condensed work of sound practical good sense, but without much that is very brilliant or original. He avoids theoretical discussion, and touches disputed points too briefly to do much to convince those who differ with him; and this, although it may make the work better fitted for student use, naturally renders it less enjoyable to the general reader, who usually finds it more entertaining to hear about the mistakes of others than to be told what he should do himself. The author's main

position is the sound one that the theory and practice of morality have advanced and are capable of advancing still further, under the teaching of experience; but he modifies the current utilitarianism by making it aim, not at perfectionism or at greatest happiness, but at social welfare, thus setting up the well-being of society in the place of egoistic impulses for either one's own elevation or one's own pleasure. He admits that the strongest element in that "social sanction," as it has been called, which is perforce our main reliance for good influence outside of the narrow field of legal control, is really egoistic rather than social, being in substance a proud desire to act up to one's own standard of *noblesse oblige;* but he explains that this personal standard is, after all, determined by social and not by individual needs, and should be bettered as society grows. Here, however, we come upon the weakest side of the book—a failure to consider the moral side of the laws of growth and decay. There is no examination of either of the two great theories of evolution which have been made so prominent of late years, by Spencer and Darwin. These are far too important to be overlooked, for if it is true that progress must take place along the line of differentiation marked out by Spencer and Fiske, or by the path of natural selection made plain by Darwin and Galton, in either case our views of ethics must receive some alteration to fit them to these new conceptions of the meaning of our surroundings. If the welfare at which we are to aim is that of the future generations, and it can be effected only by means which are within our reach, but ill understood and of slow operation, then the explanation of those means becomes of transcendent importance, and the happiness of the moment is hardly worth considering in comparison with them.

In the concluding chapter on the practical application of his views to our conduct in particular cases, the author goes over ground much of which is already pretty well worn; but one can see the influence of the feeling of the day in his remarks upon the wrongfulness of bribery, and of indiscriminate charity and inconsiderate subscriptions. Of education, he says that the present dangers threaten the richer rather than the poorer classes, on account of the luxurious habits, the love of idle amusement, and the indifference to the responsibilities which wealth and position bring. It is only by teaching each class the duty of assuming its share in furthering the well-being of the community that we can avoid the threatened convulsions, for

"as intelligence expands, and a sense of the importance of social coöperation becomes diffused, it is almost certain that the existence of a merely idle and self-indulgent class will no longer be tolerated. Hence it is as much to the interests of the wealthier classes as of society at large that their children should be educated with a full sense of their social responsibilities, and equipped with all the moral and intellectual aptitudes which are requisite to enable them to take a lead in the development of the community of which they are members."

The only passages with which we should take issue in this chapter are those in which Professor Fowler speaks of avoiding the payment of Custom-house duties and other taxes, or dodging railway fares, or not paying one's other bills, as theft. Of course these are all wrong, but the legal distinction between these things and stealing should not be ignored, for it is not a legal quibble, but a profound moral distinction between acts of omission and acts of commission which is felt by almost every one, and supported by sound principle.

Artistic Anatomy. By Mathias Duval. Translated from the French by Frederic E. Fenton, M.R.C.P.E. Cassell & Co.

THE introduction of anatomy into the curriculum for artists was the beginning of the pedantry of art. There is in no direction a clearer case of counter-indicated study as qualification for any special education than that of the study of anatomy for the artistic. It is not only unsound in theory, but history practically proves its unsoundness. The great masters of the human figure, and especially in action, were the Greeks, of whom the author of this treatise says, what, for the rest, everybody knows:

"The Greek sculptors have reproduced the human form with marvellous anatomical exactness; in fact, the works of Phidias, those of Myron, those of Lysippus and of Praxiteles, those of Agasias, and other masterpieces given as models in all schools of art, are such that it is impossible to find fault with them, or to discover in them the least inexactitude, either from an anatomical or a physiological point of view. . . . At the time when these works of art were produced, the study of anatomy, or even the dissection of the human body, had not yet been attempted."

Yet the author goes on to qualify this general statement by a note as follows: "We must look for other reasons than ignorance or indifference to explain the fixed scapulæ in pre-Phidian sculpture, or the exaggerated forms given to the *extensor brevis* of the foot and other muscles"; and, he might have added, the daring violation of anatomy in the Apollo Belvedere and other statues.

That the knowledge of anatomy we now possess was not necessary to the perfection of sculpture, Greek art showed; that our possession of it does not lead to equally great art, is shown by the sculpture of our day; that the study of it is likely to divert artists from true excellence, is shown by the turgid sculpture of the imitators of Michael Angelo, and the effectless exaggerations which here and there crept into his own work.

There is sound theoretical reason for this antagonism. The business of an artist is to see, not the scientific quality of things, but their appearances; and when a man knows what a thing really is, he is likely to put the scientific fact in place of the actual appearance on which the fidelity of the art depends. He immediately inclines to show traits of his subject which do not really appear; hence exaggeration. What we want of the artist in his perception of nature is to recognize what is really seen, and this the Greek did with the human figure as no one ever will do it if dominated in his impressions by scientific facts; he will always more or less incline to see what he knows to be there, whether it is actually visible or not, and in corresponding degree to miss the exact appearance of the thing he regards.

We believe that the introduction of any science, even of geology, into art, tends immediately to pedantry and a certain insensibility to the lines of beauty in nature, and that an artist would be no better, but probably the worse, for the acquisition of all the natural sciences. Sharpening of the vision by faithful study; quickening all the perceptive faculties by simplifying and purifying the moral and intellectual conditions of life, and so protecting the sources and channels of emotion and enthusiasm; and, chief of all these (so far as a man may choose the manner of his living), a simple, energetic, and natural, as opposed to our artificial and over-civilized, life, such as the Greeks lived (and to which probably they owed, quite as much as to their unrestricted opportunities of seeing finely-developed humanity, their intellectual subtlety and delicate perception of beauty and artistic fitness), are the proper means of education of the artistic faculties with all those in sympathy with them, as well as of the education of the intellect in its roundest and fullest dimensions. Modern education drives us into specialties and one-sidedness; and the sciences, when not positive hindrances, are encumbrances to the distinctly artistic methods of vision and impression.

To the critic, anatomy and the sister sciences are an aid, because criticism is analytic and, in a certain way, scientific. To such as need and can profit by the study of the anatomy of the bones and muscles, the work of M. Duval is an unquestionably useful handbook. It is a compact and well-arranged manual, and embodies the lectures given at the École des Beaux Arts at Paris. The author errs, we believe, in common with many others, in presenting the canons of Greek sculpture as guides to artists; they were as variable with the Greeks as the types and epochs, and when they began to be adopted as authority sculpture had already found it necessary to lean on them because it was in its decline. Canons are, like anatomy, for critics and not for artists; and there is no surer sign of the lifelessness of a sculptor's art than his boast that he has discovered and applied a canon.

The Rescue of Greely. By Com. W. S. Schley and Prof. J. S. Soley, U. S. N. 8vo, pp. viii, 277. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1885. Maps and Illustrations.

THE latest addition to our Arctic literature is an extremely satisfactory book. The text is fairly, if not luxuriously printed; the illustrations effective, though somewhat coarse; the maps excellent, and the binding quiet and tasteful. The authors state in the preface, with reason, that the history of the rescue would hardly be complete without some account of the original expedition to Lady Franklin Bay, and of the two abortive voyages undertaken for its relief. In giving this account they have aimed at a description of the events as they occurred, without criticism of the individuals concerned in them. This part of their task appears to us well done. The peculiar attitude of the late Secretary of War, which unquestionably had serious influence on the train of events recorded, is veiled or ignored—a necessary result of the official relations of the authors of the work. With this exception it seems to us that the presentation of the facts has been made to indicate very well the manner in which official incompetence, the vicissitudes of Arctic seasons, and the blundering of poor Garlington, coöperated to bring about the final catastrophe. How the unparalleled run of the *Proteus* to Lady Franklin Bay in 1881 contributed its quota to the total by inducing a false sense of ease and security in those charged with the organization of relief expeditions, is clearly brought out. How great events may turn on trifles, is shown by the results of the failure to profit by the suggestions of the celebrated Cazianc memorandum, and of Garlington's failure to carry out his prearranged programme with the *Yantic.* Had either been decided differently, the probability is that the Greely party might have been saved from starvation.

Leaving this branch of the subject, the plans of Weyprecht and Howgate are clearly set forth, and how, out of the lobbying by Howgate for an ill-considered and abortive expedition, grew the possibility of a scientific station of the Weyprecht series; which, at the same time, was bound to an objectionable locality by its connection with the earlier plan. This recalls vividly the evolution, in former days, of the Wilkes exploring expedition out of an attempt to obtain from Congress an appropriation to find "Symmes's Hole."

Confronted with the crisis, operations for a rescue were imperative. To the tireless energy, judgment, and capacity of Secretary Chandler of the Navy a well-merited testimony appears. That he was ably seconded by Schley and others, goes without saying; but it is certain that the prime

element of success was the vigor with which all hands in the bureaux were stirred up, and given to understand that Schley was to have what he wanted and when he wanted it, and that no excuse for failure would be accepted.

The graceful and timely manner in which our British cousins came forward with the *Alert* in our instant of need is appropriately described. The exertions of the daughter of a Massachusetts Senator, by which Congress was moved to provide for a reward for any whaler who should render service in the relief of the Greely party, are not alluded to; though we do not take this silence to be invidious. Nevertheless, we believe that the promptness of the rescue was materially stimulated by the emulation which the reward excited, and that the lady in question may fairly congratulate herself on having been instrumental in saving several, if not all, of the lives of those concerned.

A little more than one-third of the book is devoted to the successful relief expedition and its return. The account is less vivid than that of Engineer Melville, recently alluded to in these columns, but more details are given, and the seamanship and good qualities of the whalemen and sealers in the race are recognized in an equally frank and manly way. The pathos of the situation at Cape Sabine is inherent; we can but thank the authors that they have spared us any fine writing. The literary form of the narrative is quiet, straightforward, and businesslike, as is eminently appropriate to so serious a topic. In conclusion, we can but express our gratification that a subject, in many respects so delicate, should have been handled in so dignified and worthy a manner, and our belief that the eventual verdict of experts on the matters relating to the relief expeditions will not greatly differ from that more or less directly intimated in the work under review.

Sir Moses Montefiore: a Centennial Biography. With selections from letters and journals. By Lucien Wolf. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1885.

THE name of Montefiore was until lately probably atmost unknown among Christians in the United States, except through a vague echo from the English press which made itself heard from time to time in our newspapers, especially within the past few months, when its owner was accomplishing the feat of surviving his hundredth year. Nevertheless, Sir Moses Montefiore comes of what would be in this country considered an old family, and is one of the remarkable men of our time. Like many other men gifted with the faculty of money-getting, his interests are not very wide; indeed, outside of Judaism he has had few. But as a Jew, as a leader in the movements for Jewish emancipation and in all efforts to protect his race from persecution, he has played a prominent part. In the curious Mortara case, which aroused the sympathies of Christians about as much as those of Jews, and in the investigation of the Damascus atrocities of forty years ago, he was very active. But his philanthropy, or rather race-feeling, also found other channels in which to benefit his people; he encouraged the Jews, in the Holy Land itself, to devote themselves to profitable industry, and if the agricultural dream of Jewish reformers were practicable, he would have been the man to carry it out. Mr. Wolf's life is well written, and gives an evidently truthful and at the same time pleasing picture of the old man.

Richelieu. By Gustave Masson. London: The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.

THIS Life of Richelieu corresponds with those of Constantine, Charlemagne, and Hus, in other volumes of the "Home Library." Mr. Masson's name is a guarantee that the work is carefully and accurately done. For the historical point of view, it is enough to say that he is a hearty admirer of the great statesman, and considers his work to have been very essential in the development of the French nation. This is a question too large to discuss in our present limits, and all will admit that some such work as his was necessary in order to make France into a nation. Nevertheless, the autocracy of Louis XIV. was built upon Richelieu's foundation; the decay of the time of Louis XV. was the natural outcome of this autocracy; and all this series of events culminated by a natural sequence in the cataclysm of the French Revolution. Richelieu's contemporary, Strafford—perhaps as great a man—lost his head for attempting to establish in England a régime like that which Richelieu was successfully building up in France; and we trace back the liberties which we enjoy to the frustration of Strafford's scheme. We know very well that France was not England; but the question will obtrude—Could not unity have been established even in France without bringing with it a deadening despotism?

Architectural Perspective for Beginners; containing eleven plates of practical examples, considered with reference to a student in an architect's office. By F. A. Wright, architect. William T. Comstock. 1885.

MR. WRIGHT'S thin quarto aims at teaching the essential graphical processes of architectural perspective, without treating of them geometrically. The processes are not complicated; so far as they can be learned without personal teaching, they can be learned from this book, we should say. Probably there is nothing of the kind in the market that is so good, and it is surprising to see in how small compass the things which it is actually necessary to do can be stated. The essential difficulty—that a person so taught is taught very narrowly, and not fitted to take up new problems or to vary his procedure intelligently—is, we fancy, insuperable, though fortunately not fatal. Mr. Wright has the advantage of understanding his subject, which is not the case with most persons who have undertaken to popularize it, and so he cannot dismiss it without an effort to clear up in a supplementary chapter the rationale of his procedures. How much is accomplished by such compromises between rule-of-thumb and theory is always doubtful. Here the effort at conciseness interferes more or less with precision, and now and again leads to misstatement. Half of the dozen plates in the volume are selected illustrations of various modes of rendering. The letter-press comments give some useful hints touching practice, but we think the author overpraises the English draughtsmen, whose work, in spite of unsurpassed freedom, vivacity, and sureness of handling, is apt to be overwrought even to fussiness. The example from Collcutt, plate 9, which is commended most warmly, has suffered, it is true, from doubled reproduction, but indicates an original labored, harsh, and spotty—much inferior to the quiet breadth of Mr. Norman Shaw's clear drawing above it. We must take exception, by the way, to the distinction made here and there between "architectural" drawing and "artistic." Mr. Wright evidently means literal and picturesque.

Little Arthur's History of France. From the earliest times to the fall of the Second Empire. With map and illustrations. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 12mo, pp. 295.

YOUNG people who have read 'Little Arthur's History of England' will be glad to have a history of France on the same plan, and of the same high excellence. The title of both books is liable to mislead, by making it appear that they are more distinctly "children's books" than is the case. The preface to this volume says that it is "not beyond the comprehension of an intelligent boy or girl of ten or eleven"—that is, "some two years older" than those for whom the 'England' is adapted. For our part, we should consider the 'France' well suited to the age of fourteen or fifteen, and not inappropriate for an even more advanced age. Indeed, many adults who wish a short readable history of France, would find this book exactly what they want. We read on page 16 that by the Treaty of Verdun (843) "Lothaire took Italy and part of the south of France." It ought to be stated—not merely for the sake of accuracy, but as an important historical fact—that Lothaire's portion embraced *all the east* of France, a strip running from the North Sea to the Mediterranean. Excellent as the book is, the illustrations are poor, and there is only one, very inadequate, map.

The Patriarchal Theory. Based on the Papers of the late John Ferguson McLennan. Edited and Completed by Donald McLennan, of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law. Macmillan & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 355.

MR. MCLENNAN'S 'Patriarchal Theory' is a polemic directed against the theory advanced by Sir Henry Maine in his 'Ancient Law,' and repeated in his 'Law and Custom,' that the patriarchal family is the most primitive form of society. In the latter work, when considering the points at controversy between Mr. Morgan and Mr. McLennan, Sir Henry takes issue with them both, in denying the probability of a stage of promiscuity in the history of the human race, and asserts that the patriarchal organization, if not the earliest actual form of society, was, at any rate, the earliest of which we can take cognizance. The book before us contains a strong and elaborate argument in opposition to this view, fortified by illustrations from a wide range of observation. Sir Henry Maine's principal argument, indeed, the *patria protestas* and agnatic system of relationship among the ancient Romans, was conclusively answered some years ago, as it seems to us, by Mr. Young, in the volume of 'Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law.' That the patriarch was the actual starting-point in the human race is hard to conceive; Abraham and Lot belong to a stage of society far removed from primitive savagery. The theory presented by Sir Henry Maine can at best be taken as an hypothesis, describing a phase of things through which all communities have passed, and back of which it is not at present possible to trace the steps of society with any certainty. But with the active investigation of which the book before us is an evidence, we have no doubt that the present obscurity will in time be cleared up. Of the correctness of Mr. McLennan's own theory of primitive society we have great question; but the present work is of high value, at least as a collection of significant facts and an exposure of the weak points in Sir Henry Maine's system.

The Field of Honor: being a Complete and Comprehensive History of Duelling in All Countries, etc. By Maj. Ben C. Truman. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1884.

THIS is a pretentious and disappointing book. It sadly lacks method. The divisions which the author makes of his subject are not clear, and even then are not adhered to. A great omission is the failure to give authorities—in a work, too, which is necessarily and confessedly a compilation. The author seems to have thrown a dragnet over the whole creation, and to have brought

all his catch to book, indiscriminately. As if his long pages of dreary chronicles of "meetings" were not enough when filled with matter that might fairly be called germane, he lugs in "artillery duels," and finds room on his "field of honor" for the "duel" of the *Kearsarge* and *Alabama*. The style is loose and careless. It may have been bad by nature, or corrupted by too much contact with the writings of newspaper correspondents and reporters, from whom Major Truman cites copiously and with great appreciation. Such phrases as "his iron mind" and "a deadly demeanor" betray their origin. In short, we fear that Major Truman indulges all too flattering expectations in believing that "descriptions of duels . . . are generally very delightful reading, and are seldom 'skipped.'" He certainly deserves credit for great industry and perseverance in having given his leisure time for twenty years, as he says he has, to the preparation of this book. We could wish that his other qualifications had equalled his diligence. The book is well printed, and, not without fitness, bound in a gory red.

To Kairwân the Holy: Scenes in Muhammedan Africa. By Alexander A. Boddy. Illustrated by A. F. Jacassey. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.; New York: Scribne & Welford. 1885. Pp. xiv, 275, 8vo.

A JOURNEY to-day to the Barbary States of North Africa, even if it includes a visit to Kairwân, is robbed of all its former romance. Mr. Boddy landed at Tripoli on his outward voyage, and spent a few days in wandering about its streets and in riding across the desert of "rosy yellow sand" to the first oasis. A coasting steamer took him to Susa, whence he drove in a carriage to Kairwân. The distance is but forty miles, and western civilization is kept constantly in mind by the "tram rails" laid along the camel track by the French in 1881. Presenting his passport to the French sentinel who guarded the gates, he was allowed to enter the sacred city from which for more than twelve centuries all unbelievers were so jealously and successfully excluded. His passport even opened to him the doors of the mosques and the tombs of the saints, and, notwithstanding the risk of a fatal encounter with a religious fanatic, he penetrated to the very holiest shrines. After four days of unwearied sight-seeing under a fierce June sun, he took his carriage again and drove a hundred miles over a treeless plain to Tunis. A visit to Carthage and a few hours spent at Bouah, the home of St. Augustine, finish the story, which is told in a pleasant, though at times somewhat flippant way. Mr. Boddy represents the intercourse between the Mohammedans of all North Africa to be close and frequent. At Kairwân, especially, where is the seat of the Abd-el-Kadr el Ghelani, the great confraternity to which the Mahdi belongs, his messengers are believed to be constantly bringing information of all that takes place in the Sudan. In a khan in the heart of Tunis, Mr. Boddy, who can speak Arabic, got involved in a controversy about Arabi Pasha and the Mahdi with some Moors, which threatened to become so heated that he deemed it prudent to retire. The book is pleasantly illustrated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allgemeine Weltgeschichte. Parts 4-7. B. Westermann & Co.
Baird, Dr. C. W. History of the Huguenot Emigration to America. In 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Barr, Amelia E. Jan Vedder's Wife. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Beowulf. Translated by Prof. James M. Garnett. 2d edition, revised. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Briggs, Prof. C. N. American Presbyterianism: its Origin and Early History. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Brinton, Prof. D. G. The Lenâpé and Their Legends, with the Complete Text and Symbols of the Walam Olum. [Brinton's Library of Aboriginal Literature, No. 5.] Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton.
Braddon, Miss M. E. Wyllard's Weird. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Brown, E. W. The Life of Society. A General View. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Buswell, H. F. The Law of Insanity. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bunce, O. B. The Adventures of Timias Terrystone. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Clark, E. H. G. Man's Birthright; or, The Higher Law of Property. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Clermont-Ganneau, Ch. Les Fraudes Archéologiques en Palestine. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Custer, Elizabeth B. Boots and Saddles; or, Life in Dakota with General Custer. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
De Witt, Dr. J. Praise Songs of Israel: a New Rendering of the Book of Psalms. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Dodge, Mary B. The Gray Masque, and Other Poems. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Edgren, Prof. H. The Sanskrit Language. Trübner & Co.
Engel, M. Die Lösung der Paradiesfrage. Leipzig: Otto Schulze.
Fenton, F. St. Paul's Epistles in Modern English. De Witt C. Lent.
Fenollosa, Prof. E. F. Review of the Chapter on Painting in Gonse's 'L'Art Japonais.' J. R. Osgood & Co.
Fuller, Prof. S. The Revelation of St. John the Divine, Self-Interpreted. Thomas Whittaker. $2.50.
Gibbs, J. W. M. The Works of Oliver Goldsmith. New ed. 5 vols. Vol. III. Scribner & Welford.
Giffen, Dr. R. The Progress of the Working Classes in the Last Half Century. With Note on American Wages. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Gladden, Rev. W. Working People and Their Employers. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Greer, T. A Modern Dædalus. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Halévy, L. Un Mariage d'Amour. Wm. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Hay, Mary Cecil. Lester's Secret: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Hitchcock-Brown, Professors. Teaching of the Twelve Apostles. New edition, revised and enlarged. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Holloway, Laura C. Chinese Gordon, the Uncrowned King. Funk & Wagnalls.
Jordan, W. Die Sebalds. Roman aus der Gegenwart. Two vols. B. Westermann & Co.
Kingsley, C. Madam How and Lady Why; or, First Lessens in Earth Lore for Children. Illustrated. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Lewald, F. Vornehme Welt, etc. Chicago: L. Schick. 20 cents.
Litchfield, Grace Denio. The Knight of the Black Forest. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 164. January to March, 1885. Boston: Littell & Co.
Louis Pasteur, His Life and Labors. By his Son-in-Law. From the French. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Lyall, Dr. W. R. Propædeia Prophetica; or, The Use and Design of the Old Testament Examined. New edition, with notes by Canon Pearson. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Malmesbury, Earl of. Memoirs of an Ex-Minister. An Autobiography. New edition. Scribner & Welford.
Mansi, J. D. Sacrorum Conciliorum Nova et Amplissima Collectio. Editio instaurata. Part I. B. Westermann & Co.
Marshall, A. The Present Position of Economics. Macmillan & Co.
Marchand, C. M. New Method of French Conversation. Fourth Edition. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
McCosh, Pres. J. Herbert Spencer's Philosophy, as Culminated in His Ethics. Charles Scribner's Sons.
McElroy, Prof. J. G. R. The Structure of English Prose. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.20.
Messenger, Lillian R. Fragments from an Old Inn. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Mitchell, S. W. Lectures on Diseases of the Nervous System, Especially in Women. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Lea Brothers & Co. $1.75.
Mommsen, Th. Römische Geschichte. Band V.—Die Provinzen von Cæsar bis Diocletian. Berlin: Weidmann; New York: Westermann. $3.30.
Monteith, J. New Physical Geography. For Grammar and High Schools and Colleges. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Murfree, W. L., Sr. A Treatise on the Law of Official Bonds, and Other Penal Bonds. St. Louis: Review Publishing Co.
Nature and Reality of Religion. A Controversy between Frederic Harrison and Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
O'Brien, F. J. The Diamond Lens, with Other Stories. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
O'Connor, B. F. Choix de Contes Contemporains. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Our Living World. An Artistic Edition of the Rev. J. G. Wood's Natural History of Animate Creation. Complete in 42 Parts. Parts 1-8. Selmar Hess. 50 cents per part.
Pater, W. Marius, the Epicurean: his Sensations and Ideas. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $6.
Pattison, Mark. Memoirs. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Perry, Bishop W. S. The History of the American Episcopal Church. 1587-1883. In two vols. Vol. I.—The Planting and Growth of the American Colonial Church. 1587-1783. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Price, Eleanor C. Gerald: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Pusey, Canon E. B. The Minor Prophets. With a Commentary. Vol. I.—Hosea, Joel, Amos, Obadiah, and Jonah. Funk & Wagnalls. $3.
Raffalovich, M. A. Tuberose and Meadowsweet. London: David Bogue.
Remsen, Prof. I. An Introduction to the Study of the Compounds of Carbon; or, Organic Chemistry. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1.30.
Riemann, Hugo. Musikalische Dynamik und Agogik. B. Westermann & Co.
Rogers, W. B. A Reprint of Annual Reports and other Papers, on the Geology of the Virginias. D. Appleton & Co.
Sack, I. Die Religion Altisraels. Berlin: Wilhelm Friedrich; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Scomp, Prof. H. A. A Manual of the Romaic or "Modern" Greek, and its Application to Ancient Greek. Nashville: Southern Methodist Publishing House.
Schley, Commander W. S., and Soley, Prof. J. R. The Rescue of Greely. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Shaw, Marian. Queen Bess; or, What's in a Name? G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
S. F. and C. W. F. Lessons on Practical Subjects for Grammar School Children. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Snider, D. J. Agamemnon's Daughter: a Poem. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1.50.
Spence-Exell-Neil. Thirty Thousand Thoughts: being Extracts covering a Comprehensive Circle of Religious and Allied Topics. Vol. III. Funk & Wagnalls.
Spofford, A. R. American Almanac and Treasury of Facts, Statistical, Financial, and Political, for the Year 1885. American News Co.
Stanford's Popular Map of the Seat of Military Operations in the Sudan. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 40 cents.
Stearns, W. A. Labrador: A Sketch of its Peoples, its Industries, and its Natural History. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Stormonth, Rev. J. A Dictionary of the English Language. The Pronunciation Carefully Revised by the Rev. P. H. Phelp. Harper & Brothers.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 16, 1885.

The Week.

THE number of people who are coming round to the belief that President Cleveland is honest, and is giving the country a good Administration, is very remarkable. We have commented elsewhere on Mr. William Walter Phelps's conversion. Mr. John Sherman's is almost as striking. He says he expects the affairs of the nation to be administered honestly, and is on "the bull side" of the money market. He does not like war, but if anybody else does, he is not sorry to make a little money out of the fighting. Then there is our funny sour old critic, the *Tribune*, which actually commends Mr. Phelps's and Mr. Sherman's approval of the Administration. But it had to make one "reserve." It appears that Mr. Phelps, in his youthful impetuosity, has failed to observe that Mr. Cleveland is trying not to give the country an absolutely good administration, but as good an administration as possible on the plan of "putting the gray above the blue." But then we have little doubt that if the matter were laid before Phelps in a plain, simple way, so that he could grasp it, he would admit that Mr. Cleveland's plan of putting blue and gray on exactly the same level is on the whole the best. Most of the troubles of government in this world have come from not keeping all colors on the same level. There is in every country a large body of people who are not happy unless they are "above" somebody else, for some reason or other. They always want somebody kept down—sometimes because he is a "Papist," sometimes because he is a "heretic," sometimes because he is black, and sometimes because he is gray, sometimes because he is an aristocrat, and sometimes because he is a "quondam rebel," or at some time or other in his life did something he then thought right, but which turned out to be wrong. But wise statesmen send politicians of this class to caterwaul their sorrows to each other over their tea or their rum, and pay no heed to them.

The Hard Shells of the Union League Club passed a resolution last week intended to counteract the effect of the resolution adopted a month ago, which requested the Committee on Admissions not to ask candidates for membership how they voted at the last Presidential election. The latter resolution was not rescinded, but the following was adopted as additional to it:

> "Resolved, that the Club reaffirms and declares its adherence to the resolution of 1880, which reads as follows:
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> "'Resolved, That the Club expresses the hope that the Committee on Admissions will not report for admission the name of any person whose views on public matters do not, in their opinion, agree with those of the Republican party, as heretofore expressed.'"

The "testimony" of the Club, therefore, is to the effect that membership is to be confined hereafter to Republicans, but that it is not necessary, in order to be a Republican, that a person should have voted for Mr. Blaine at the last election. In default of this test, how is it to be learned whether a candidate for membership is a Republican? The new resolutions prescribe that he must be a person whose "views on public matters" agree with those of the Republican party. This brings up the question, what are Republican "views on public matters"? This conundrum, when put by one of the speakers, was received with a ripple of laughter, which rose to a guffaw when the counter-interrogatory was put, "What are the principles of the Democratic party?" An answer to the former question was attempted to be made by another speaker, whose effort was certainly not the greatest of his life, and was brought to a close by the most manifest signs of impatience on the part of his adherents. The answer was in effect that "loyalty" was the test of Republicanism, meaning loyalty twenty years ago, for nobody doubts that the Democrats are loyal enough to the Government to-day. A third speaker, who had announced at the previous meeting that he did not vote for Mr. Blaine, gave utterance to the feeling of the majority of the members by saying that the Union League Club was not a good place for Democrats, and that they had better not try to get in because they would be uncomfortable, but that no distinction should be made among persons who commonly act with the Republican party. This was the best possible substitute for a catechism of Republican principles, and it is well that no more drastic measures were taken to define them.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal's* Washington despatch of a recent date says that "Edmund Jussen, of Illinois, selected for Consul at Vienna, is a brother-in-law of Carl Schurz, and was appointed at the request of Mr. Schurz." The latter statement is equally injurious to both the gentlemen named. Mr. Jussen is a prominent Democrat, having acted with that party for at least twelve years. His identification with the party is of as long standing and of as distinct a character as that of Judge Trumbull or General Palmer. His position and talents are such as to qualify him abundantly for the position to which he has been appointed, without any assistance from a brother-in-law, however highly distinguished. But as a matter of fact he was not recommended by Mr. Schurz for the Vienna consulship or for any other place, and we believe it is true also that Mr. Schurz has not recommended anybody for any position under the present Administration, although he, in common with the Independents generally, favored the reappointment of Postmaster Pearson on public grounds.

The London correspondent of the *Tribune* declares that—

> "In the early days of Garfield's brief Administration, it was understood that he meant to recommend to Congress the raising of the legation to the rank of embassy. Had he lived we should perhaps have seen for the first time in history an American Ambassador at the Court of St. James. Much would have been gained by the change had it been complete. An American Minister who had been waiting an hour in Lord Granville's anteroom, would not then have had to wait another hour while the Ambassador who arrived after him walked in before him and transacted his errand. That is but one of many practical advantages to be gained by such a promotion: it would facilitate business."

The fact is, that the rule of precedence properly applies only in approaching the sovereign, and not to the course of current business at the Foreign Office. Mr. Bancroft, when American Minister at Berlin, made an issue on the question, and Prince Bismarck decided it Mr. Bancroft had waited for some time in the anteroom for audience. Lord Loftus, the British Ambassador, came in later, and when the door opened he entered and left Mr. Bancroft waiting. The American Minister retired and addressed a note of complaint to the Foreign Office, which accepted Mr. Bancroft's view as correct. Prince Bismarck ordered that henceforth all diplomatic agents, should stand on the same level in that sense, and that the rule should be, as in a barber's shop, "first come, first served."

If war be declared between Great Britain and Russia, it is likely to be fiercely waged on sea, as well as on land, and to extend to the capture of the ships and cargoes that may be under the flag of the belligerents. Not yet does international law, or do treaties between Great Britain and Russia, exempt private property at sea from capture if belonging to citizens or subjects of the enemy, and found under an enemy's flag. Both Great Britain and Russia stipulated at Paris that "Privateering is and remains abolished." President Pierce refused on the part of the United States to accede to the declaration unless an addition could be made exempting from capture all private property at sea excepting contraband of war. France, Russia, Italy, and Holland favored the addition, but Great Britain opposed it. Russia was said, at the time, to favor it. In 1857 President Buchanan withdrew what came to be known in international jurisprudence as "The Marcy Amendment." In our civil war of 1861-5 Congress authorized President Lincoln to issue letters of marque, but he never used the power. The Confederate Government also offered its letters of marque, but as the United States threatened to treat the holders as pirates, nearly all the maritime Powers warned their subjects serving in such privateers that they would not protect them. Russia can, however, arm, man, and put in commission, to scour the seas for English vessels and cargoes, as many ships as she can build or buy and own. One swift ocean steamer, well armed and cruising under the Russian flag and under Russian command, could do terrible execution on the rich and unarmed maritime commerce of England.

The second article of the Declaration of Paris in 1856, to which England and Russia assented, also proclaimed that "The neutral flag covers enemy's goods, excepting contraband of war." If war should unfortunately be waged on the ocean between England and Russia, that declaration, and the rule "Free ships, free goods," would be of enormous benefit to the Government and people of the United States if they only had (as they have not) the ships to do the carrying trade for both bellige-

rents. Why cannot the ships be quickly had? Simply because an ancient and injurious law of Congress forbids the registry of a foreign-built vessel as an American vessel, and the sailing of such vessels under the American flag. Our laws encourage the naturalization of foreign-born men, women, and children, and permit the introduction into the country and the use therein of every conceivable article (excepting obscene books and counterfeit money); but the introduction and use of a foreign-built vessel is forbidden and condemned. Why? In order (nearly a century ago) to encourage and protect the building of vessels within our territory —a purpose which was perhaps defensible in whole or in part so long as vessels were built of wood, but which ceased to be so when iron and steel vessels came to the front. It will be remembered that President Grant's Administration in July, 1870, advised Congress to repeal the obnoxious statute when the Franco-German war was imminent, and had the message not been sent to Congress on the last day of the session it is probable the repeal would then have been carried.

The absolute dulness of sterling exchange in the presence of excited markets for commodities and securities, and of the prospect of a war between two great European Powers, may be explained by the fact that a large amount of money was transferred from New York to London some weeks ago in consequence of the silver scare. The amount so transferred is estimated by competent judges at not less than $25,000,000. When the slight premium on gold was disclosed in Boston in the latter part of Secretary McCulloch's term, and when the Secretary himself entered into correspondence with the New York banks on the subject of using silver certificates at the Clearing-house, parties having considerable sums of ready money on hand commenced buying sixty-day sterling bills, in order to insure themselves against depreciation of their funds. These bills having matured, the money was either reinvested in new sixty-day bills or loaned on securities in London. At all events, it has not returned to this country. It stands as a credit to New York, offsetting *pro tanto* the call for money from this side, which would naturally have arisen in the expectation of war. Commonly the first thing done by foreign bankers as the result of a European commotion is to get together as much money as possible; and as American securities are those least affected by war, they are the first things sold. At the present time the amount of first-class American securities held abroad is small, while the amount of American money on deposit or immediately available is large beyond precedent, and this state of things is chiefly owing to the silver scare, although the rate of interest which sixty-day sterling afforded was not without its influence in the stagnant money market which has ruled here during the past winter.

Apart from expectations of war, business is on all hands reported improving with the advance of spring weather. The improvement is still uneven, and New York remains probably behind every city of importance in feeling it. The great interior markets for grain and provisions, with their dependencies, were the first to feel it and still maintain their lead; but the impulse is spreading throughout the North and West, and shows generally that quiet character which was predicted for it in the closing months of last year. The movement of goods of all kinds is increasing, and the railroads are handling an enlarged tonnage, which shows in improved receipts generally outside of the overbuilt territory between Chicago and the Atlantic Coast. Manufacturers appear to be doing rather better also, except in cotton goods, and in that line a suspension of production amounting to one month between this date and the first of July is spoken of as very desirable if not necessary. The coal trade is moving along quietly, with a good business at the low prices recently established. The iron and steel trade, taken as a whole, has not disappointed the expectations raised by the revival of January; but there are some internal disturbances, apparently caused by the growing application of some forms of steel to uses hitherto believed to be better served by iron. But the substitution of steel for iron, wherever found feasible, is an advance in the employment of metals, and likely therefore to increase the total amount of work done and wages paid.

The position of the railroads, with all the increase of business that is visible or expected, remains less favorable than could be wished, mainly in consequence of the great schemes of reorganization which are now pressing for attention. Leaving on one side the Philadelphia & Reading concern, which has been wrecked by going outside its proper business as a railroad, we have to await a great mass of purely railroad reorganization, in which the West Shore line and the so-called Nickel-Plate line involve the whole question of the business of the trunk lines between Chicago and New York. Something must be done to bring the fixed charges of these companies down to a point where they can be met with reasonable certainty; and, until this is done, nothing short of a wonderful expansion of traffic can restore the former prosperity of the other trunk lines. Further West there is the vast and sprawling Wabash system to be reformed or expunged, and the Denver & Rio Grande Railway and its Western extension, not to speak of smaller concerns both in the Middle States and the West. The process of arranging new plans for all these companies, with the inevitable long labor of conciliating different interests, has a very unsettling effect upon railroad stocks generally; and to this, more than to anything else, seems due the comparative dulness of the Stock Exchange.

The Connecticut Legislature has been devoting a great deal of time to the subject of railway passes during the present session, and has at last hit upon a solution which is to be commended. The lower house has adopted a proposition for the submission to the people of a constitutional amendment authorizing the Legislature to arrange for the transportation of its members from their homes to the capital at public expense. At present the members receive a salary of $300 for each session, and as the average length is four months, this is small pay. The present allowance for mileage is inadequate to pay the railway fares, and in order to make both ends meet the railway companies are allowed to give the members free passes. A feeling has got abroad in the State that by this indirect and cheap method of bribery the railway companies are enabled to control the railway legislation of the State absolutely, and there is not lacking strong evidence in confirmation of this view. One solution of the trouble which was seriously proposed was very funny. It was that a law be passed compelling the companies to grant the passes which they now give voluntarily, in order to relieve the members of all sense of obligation. This was promptly disposed of by the remark of the Speaker that the State would receive it with "scorn and derision," which we have no doubt was true prophecy.

The verdict of the jury upon the financial operations of James D. Fish is likely to insure his imprisonment for the remainder of his life. There is some doubt concerning the number of years for which he may be sentenced on the eleven counts upon which he has been found guilty, but the total is likely to be from ten to twenty. A clearer case of rascality has not been put before a jury within our recollection. In audacity Fish's operations equalled if they did not surpass those of Tweed; and in open violation of all obligations, legal, moral, and every other, they went even beyond Tweed's limits. The rascality of it all was so plain that even a modern jury could not fail to comprehend it. Fish, as President of the bank, used its funds in such a way as to steal nearly the whole of them for the benefit of Ward and himself, his own share being between a half and three-quarters of a million of dollars. He and Ward together contrived to steal, in the short space of three years, something like two millions of dollars, by pretending to be engaged in a business which never had any existence, not even on paper. They kept no books, and had no capital except that which they borrowed from the Marine Bank without security, and that which they induced confiding people to "invest." They stole what they wanted for themselves, distributed the remainder in "dividends" of such enormous size as to encourage further investments, and, when any questions were asked, spoke mysteriously of "Government contracts," winked at each other, and went ahead.

There has always been one inexplicable phase of this memorable swindle—and the testimony of Fish has thrown no light upon it—and that is why this precious pair did not foresee the inevitable collapse in time to get out of the reach of the law. They must have known that the end was only a question of very brief time. A man need not be a "Napoleon of Finance" to understand that a business which consisted entirely of taking in money and paying it out again in extravagant dividends, could not last long. They seem never to have done enough actual business in stocks or other speculative ventures to pay their office rent. All their collateral was pledged three or four times over, and they must have known that the sure outcome of such financiering was detection and

ruin. Yet they both stayed here and allowed themselves to be caught. Ward could have locked up his office and disappeared three days before the crash came, and nobody would have found out what the condition of affairs was till he was safely beyond the reach of the law. Fish could have done the same. When men engage in a swindle, get the money out of it, and run, their course is comprehensible enough. But when two men, both sharp enough to deceive some of the sharpest men in Wall Street, engage in a swindle, succeed in it far enough to steal millions of dollars, and then, instead of running away with the money, sit still and allow themselves to be put in prison for years, if not for life, their conduct passes comprehension.

The Board of Overseers of Harvard College have followed the decisive example of the Corporation, and voted that it is inexpedient not to compel attendance at morning prayers. The report which was adopted was drawn up by the Rev. Dr. Peabody, who for many years officiated at the College chapel. He had, we believe, as a colleague on the special committee, the Rev. Phillips Brooks, who now occasionally performs the service asked to be made voluntary. There was a manifest impropriety in putting any clergyman on such a committee, much more two who may fairly be called interested parties. The petition of the undergraduates was the largest ever known, and the College Faculty is notoriously strongly in favor of making prayers "elective." The incident is one more evidence of the growing antagonism between the Overseers and the Faculty, the only natural governing power in the University.

The news from the Canadian Northwest is very conflicting, and the greater part of it is clearly untrustworthy. The only facts which seem to be established are that the Indians have pretty generally joined Riel, and that the rebellion is much more formidable than it was a week ago. The Government forces are advancing steadily toward the scene of the troubles, and at last accounts were in good condition. By all accounts the rebels are well armed and abundantly supplied with food. They are eager for fight, and there are enough of them to make the task of suppressing them one which may cover many months and cost many lives. In such a war the English, Scotch, and other settlers will be the greatest sufferers. They will be robbed of their herds, their farms will be pillaged, and those of them who are not massacred will be driven from the country. No further information comes to hand about the commission of inquiry which it was said the Government had appointed, but it is to be hoped in the interest of humanity that this or some other plan of peaceful settlement will be tried before hostilities are carried much further. It is claimed by the Opposition to the Macdonald Ministry that a majority of the people believe that the half-breeds have real grievances. In addition to this belief, there is the precedent of 1869 in favor of concessions. The rebellion of that year was based upon precisely the same grounds as the present one, and it ended in the accordance to the rebellious half-breeds of Manitoba of rights which their brethren in the Saskatchewan country have never received, although their title to them is equally good.

The Mexican Congress began its second session on April 1. The message of President Diaz was a long and detailed review of affairs both domestic and foreign. He congratulated the country upon the fact that for the second time since 1877 a change in Executive had been effected "without the occurrence of any incident to disturb the solemnity of the act." Mexico is extending her foreign relations. Sweden and Norway for the first time have accredited an ambassador at the Mexican capital, and ministers plenipotentiary are now en route from Portugal and from China. The President referred with pride to the favorable reception accorded his prompt and energetic interference with the aspirations of Barrios. Among the matters to be submitted to Congress, he mentioned the consideration of the additional article to the commercial treaty with the United States deferring until May, 1886, the passage of laws in pursuance of the treaty; and of a new treaty of extradition arranged between Mexico and the United States. He announced that the negotiations for the conversion of the English debt were suspended for the present. The more important domestic matters requiring the attention of Congress were laws to be submitted with a view to the reduction of postal rates and the establishment of city delivery, the simplification and reduction of the tariff, and the cutting down of the force of employees and the use of better methods in the Treasury Department.

As the later and fuller accounts begin to come in, it appears that Barrios displayed not only audacity but also no small shrewdness and resource. He caused to be established a newspaper for the furtherance of his projects, the *Central American Union*, in which were published glowing assurances of the success of the great plan of federation. He secured from several of the foreign ambassadors at his capital expressions of sympathy, which of course were purely personal, but which were published as if they implied the countenance and support of the countries represented by these ministers. The legations of Germany, Italy, Spain, and Peru allowed themselves to be made tools of in this way. The representatives of Mexico, England, and the United States were not so easily caught, however, and confined their notes to the bare statement that they would hasten to communicate with their Governments. What is still more surprising and indicative of the address of Barrios, he obtained the approval of the Church, the Archbishop of Guatemala having been induced to issue a pastoral letter exhorting all his clergy to give their prayers and best support to "the grand idea of union." It is but a short time since Barrios was most fiercely denounced by the Church on account of his suppression of the Jesuits and the establishment of religious liberty. The inference is that he had used arguments with the Archbishop of the sort that have always proved so convincing to the Church of Spanish America.

The visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales to Ireland has been a great success in Dublin, which is distinctly a loyalist stronghold. On the population there, the Nationalist counsel of neutrality has apparently made little impression, as the welcome of the crowd was most hearty, and the Princess seems to have done one of the little things which touch the Irish heart in a way Englishmen find it difficult to understand, by wearing a green velvet dress. In fact, when one sees how powerful such trifles are in Ireland, the neglect of them by the English Government is an extraordinary illustration of the national stolidity. To have put Irish regiments in the army into green uniforms, as the Scotch have been allowed to wear the kilt and bonnet, would probably, laughable as it seems, have been a master stroke of policy, and yet it has never been done. The most extraordinary mistake of all is the failure of any of the very large royal family to live in Ireland, or even spend part of the year in it. These brief royal visits are made at intervals of twenty years, by people who receive large salaries for simply being ornamental, gracious, kindly, and well-mannered. That terrible Canadian Englishman, Goldwin Smith, who watches over the British empire from the heights of Toronto, has written a great deal of sonorous nonsense about the Irish question, but he has been sane and sound and useful in the sharp comments which he every now and then directs against royal neglect of Ireland.

The bringing of British troops into collision with the Russians on Afghan soil is evidently going to be a matter of much delicacy. Nothing is more certain than that the Afghans, left to themselves, cannot stop a Russian advance up the Robat valley, or hold Herat against a Russian army. So that the advance of British troops by the Bolan Pass from Quettah will be a necessary consequence of the outbreak of hostilities. Quettah is not in Afghanistan, but close to the line, in Kelat, one of the principalities of Beluchistan, and is admirably fitted to furnish a base for operations in the direction of Herat. But Kandahar, which is on Afghan soil, would have to be a very important stage on the road. Luckily neither the province of Kandahar nor Herat lies in what may be called Afghanistan proper. The march of the British would be for the most part through a fertile country, along the edge of the mountains, among a much less warlike and better disposed population than the Afghans, whose connection with Kabul has been fitful and uncertain. The railroad to Lahore from Kurrachee on the Indian Ocean passes at Rokko within one hundred miles of Quettah. A branch line connecting the two places, which would bring Quettah within a few hours of the sea, has been long projected, and, we believe, work on it is already in progress, but it will be of little use in this campaign, in which the bulk of the transportation will have to be done, as in Sir Frederick Roberts's, with camels, which are hard to get and hard to keep alive after they have been obtained. The valley of the Murghab and of the Heri-Rud used to be among the most productive spots on the earth's surface. But they were converted into a desert by the Turkoman raids, and are only beginning to recover since the capture of Merv by the Russians put a curb on these ferocious brigands of the desert.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 8, to TUESDAY, April 14, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

SECRETARY WHITNEY on Friday received the following telegram from Commander Kane, of the *Galena*, at Colon: "Our forces are now guarding both ends of transit. Relief trains are running, but much uneasiness still exists. News from Cartagena to-day reports no change in the situation. The arrival of the *Svatara* at Aspinwall is reported." Secretary Bayard received on Friday official information from Mr. Hall, American Minister to Central America, that General Barrios was killed in battle on April 2. General Barrilas, being the constitutional successor, assumed the duties of President of Guatemala. Later the Congress of Guatemala declared Señor Sinivaldy provisional President until a general election can be held.

Admiral Jouett telegraphed Secretary Whitney on Saturday from Colon as follows: "The *Tennessee* arrived to-day. All well. I shall open transit to-morrow and keep it open. Everything is quiet here, but trouble is feared at Panama. I shall send 100 men to Panama to-morrow."

Secretary Lamar told Couch, the leader of the Oklahoma "boomers," on Monday, that the Administration regards Oklahoma as not a part of the public domain open to entry and settlement under the laws of the United States, and that the policy of the President is to protect that territory from the intrusion of white persons.

The Civil-Service Commission furnishes the following for publication: "We have information that in many of the States the numbers applying to be examined are greatly in excess of what is needed to secure competent persons for all vacancies likely to occur for at least six months. The Commission does not wish to be responsible for the many disappointments which must follow the examination of a needless number."

It is found that General Henry R. Jackson, the newly appointed Minister to Mexico, is under the same disabilities as General Lawton, whose appointment as Minister to Russia was not confirmed.

General Grant spent remarkably comfortable days from Wednesday till Saturday. Queen Victoria telegraphed her sympathy on Wednesday and inquired after the General's condition. He had very uncomfortable days on Sunday and Monday, but on Tuesday was feeling better than for several weeks. He was able to walk around his room and read the papers.

It is conceded that Carter Harrison (Dem.) is elected Mayor of Chicago on the returns, but there will be a contest.

There were some fears of a riot in Chicago on Sunday in view of the excitement over the recent election and the talk of vigilance committees. The day force of policemen slept in the station houses on Sunday night. The City Hall was under guard, and a large detachment of armed police was at the armory station under waiting orders.

Senator Murphy's Skating-Rink Bill, prescribing that school children shall not be permitted in the rinks during school hours, or to attend them without guardians at night, and prohibiting the sale of liquor in the rinks, was passed by the Senate at Albany on Wednesday night. The Republican Senators in caucus decided to reduce the additional appropriation for the new Capitol from $1,000,000 to $500,000. On Thursday in the Assembly the Field Civil Code Bill was ordered to a third reading by 62 to 35.

The Low Forestry Bill was ordered to a third reading by the Senate at Albany on Monday. As amended, it now provides for the appointment of a Forestry Commissioner by the Governor and Senate, to hold office for three years, and to receive a salary of $3,000. He is to have charge of all forest and waste lands of the State, with a special view to preventing fires and to encouraging tree planting, the sum of $5,500 yearly to be allowed him for expenses in these directions, including the moneys paid to agents and assistants. The Senate ordered the Niagara Park Bill to a third reading on Tuesday night.

The General Term of the Superior Court of this city on Monday handed down its decision in the case of the people upon the relation of Roosevelt against ex-Mayor Franklin Edson, in which it reverses the order of Judge Freedman, adjudging ex-Mayor Edson guilty of contempt of court, fining him $250, and directing his incarceration in Ludlow Street Jail for fifteen days, and directs that an order be entered dismissing all proceedings with costs.

Decisions were handed down in the Court of Appeals at Albany on Tuesday—one in favor of Police Commissioner McClave as against Mason, and the other in favor of Corporation Counsel Lacombe as against Wood. Mr. McClave was appointed a Police Commissioner by Mayor Edson, and his appointment was contested by Mr. Mason on the ground that the latter's term had not expired. Mr. Wood was appointed Corporation Counsel by Mr. Kirk, President of the Board of Aldermen, under authority which he assumed as acting Mayor.

The trial of James D. Fish, late President of the Marine Bank of this city, ended on Saturday. The indictment originally contained twenty-five counts, and the jury found Mr. Fish guilty on twelve counts. These charged specific acts of misapplication of the bank moneys and making false entries. On three of the counts, or, as afterward condensed, one count, charging abstraction of the bank's securities, he was found not guilty. The prisoner was remanded to Ludlow Street Jail.

Eight tenement houses on West Sixty-second Street, in this city, which were nearly completed, collapsed on Monday afternoon, burying a number of workmen in the ruins. About twelve were injured, one of whom has since died. C. A. Buddensiek, the contractor for the work, has been arrested.

General Jacob D. Cox, ex-Secretary of the Interior, was on Monday elected President of the Cincinnati University, and will accept the office.

The Harvard College Overseers on Wednesday adopted the following resolution: "That it is inexpedient to grant the petition of sundry undergraduates of Harvard College for the repeal of the rules now requiring attendance on daily prayers."

The Cathedral of the Incarnation at Garden City, L. I., erected by Mrs. Cornelia M. Stewart as a memorial of her late husband, A. T. Stewart, was formally opened on Thursday morning with appropriate and impressive services.

The Farmers' Bank of Norfolk, Va., failed on Thursday. It had a capital stock of $50,000.

Richard Grant White died in this city on Wednesday, at the age of sixty-three, after a lingering illness. He was the son of Richard Mansfield White, and eighth in descent from John White, a prominent Puritan and one of the founders of Cambridge, Mass. In 1839 he was graduated from the University of the City of New York. He was admitted to the bar in 1845. While waiting for practice he wrote articles upon music for the *Courier and Enquirer*, and afterward upon art. Upon the establishment of the *World*, he became one of its editors. Mr. White's first magazine article was on Beethoven, and appeared in the *American Magazine* in 1853. His first ventures in Shaksperian criticism were made in a series of articles upon the marginal notes of the Collier folio of 1632. These articles were printed in *Putnam's Magazine*. In 1857 appeared the first parts of Mr. White's edition of Shakspere. 'Words and their Uses,' one of the best known of Mr. White's books, appeared in 1865. In 1861 Mr. White received an appointment to the head of the Revenue Marine Bureau in New York, which position he held until he resigned in 1878. For nearly thirty years Mr. White has been constantly before the public as a writer of magazine and newspaper articles upon literary and art matters. He made a special study of the violin, and wrote much about it.

FOREIGN.

England was startled on Thursday morning by a report published in the London *Standard* that there had been a collision between the Russian and Afghan troops. This news was confirmed later by the following from the St. Petersburg *Official Messenger*: "General Komaroff reports that, in consequence of provocative and manifestly hostile proceedings of the Afghans, he was compelled to attack them on March 30 on both banks of the Kushk River. The result was the defeat of the Afghans, with the loss of 500 men, all their artillery, two standards, and their entire camp and provisions. The Russian loss was 1 officer and 10 soldiers killed, and 3 subalterns and 29 soldiers wounded. When the fighting ended, General Komaroff returned across the river to the positions he had formerly occupied."

A despatch to the London *Times* from Gulran, dated April 3, stated that the Russians, while making a pretext of changing the position of their outposts on the Afghan frontier, attacked Panjdeh on March 30 and drove the Afghans out of their position. The Afghans stubbornly resisted their assailants. Two companies held one position against the Russians until its defenders were killed. The Afghans retreated to Merutchak in perfect order. The Russians made no pursuit. The Saruks remain neutral, but plundered the Afghans' camp.

Parliament reassembled on Thursday afternoon after the Easter recess. In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone confirmed the intelligence of the battle between the Russians and Afghans, and said: "From the information which the Government have received of the fight, the Russians have apparently been guilty of an unjustifiable attack on the Afghans. England has demanded from Russia full explanations in regard to the affair." In conclusion, he said that the Government had received no information corroborative of the report that the Russians had occupied Panjdeh.

The London Stock Exchange was thrown into a panic by the news. British consols fell from 97 7-16 to 94⅞. Russian bonds fell from 90½ to 80. In the Paris market there was a fall in 3 per cent. rentes from 78f. 20c. to 76f. 47½c. In the United States, wheat rose at Chicago from 83 to 88¼.

In the House of Commons on Thursday evening Mr. Gladstone said it was evident that the Russians had attacked the Afghans. The Afghans had in this attack been defeated after making a gallant resistance. It was apparent also that the Russians, after the fight, had returned to their former positions, or at least to the left bank of the Kushk River, which might be equivalent to such a retirement. The Government had been informed, the Premier went on, that the Russians had made every endeavor to induce the Afghans to begin the fighting. Russian troops had even twice attempted to pass forcibly through the Afghan picket lines. The Government had asked for an explanation of this attack from Russia. Sir Edward Thornton, the British Ambassador to St. Petersburg, had telegraphed that M. de Giers, the Russian Prime Minister, had expressed for himself and for the Czar an earnest hope that this unhappy incident might not prevent the continuation of the negotiations for peace. This remark was greeted with shouts of derisive laughter. Later Mr. Gladstone said that the Government had no reason to believe that any aggressive act had been done by the Afghans to provoke the attack on Panjdeh. This declaration caused a sensation, and for a

moment the House resounded with cries of "Hear! hear!"

On Friday afternoon Mr. Gladstone announced that Russia had already asked General Komaroff to explain his conduct in attacking Panjdeh. Mr. Gladstone stated that Sir Edward Thornton, British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, had informed him that the Russians did not occupy Panjdeh, but had retired to the positions they occupied before the battle with the Afghans.

The total effective Russian force ready for an immediate advance on the strategic points of the Afghan frontier is 95,000. The British forces actually mobilized and ready for an advance are 92,000.

On Friday the sentiment of both the Russian and English press was unanimous for war. The London stock market was, however, stronger.

Sir Peter Lumsden began on Friday his march toward the Robat Pass, which he has orders to occupy to prevent the Russians from advancing to Herat, and has since taken a strong position at Tirpul. He is believed now to be able to prevent the Russians from attempting a *coup de main* in the direction of Herat.

The British Government received on Monday official despatches confirming reports of a Russian advance in force. 45,000 Russian troops are on the march to Sarakhs. Troops were recently massing rapidly from all stations in Daghestan at Baku. Ten thousand passed through Tiflis during the last fortnight in March. Lord Dufferin informed the Government on Monday that the Amir consents to the passage of British troops through Afghanistan. Bismarck's organ, the Berlin *North German Gazette*, puts the blame for the recent collision upon the Afghans.

General Komaroff has made a detailed statement to the Russian Government tending to show that the Afghans provoked the recent attack. He says: "On the 29th I sent the Afghan commander an energetic summons to evacuate the left bank of the Kushk and the right bank of the Murghab as far as the mouth of the Kushk. He replied that, acting on the advice of the English, he would not retire beyond the Kushk. I then sent him a private letter couched in amicable terms. On the 30th, in order to support my demand, I marched with my detachment against the Afghan position, still expecting a pacific issue; but fire from the Afghan artillery and an attack of their cavalry compelled me to accept a combat." It was reported on Sunday that a council of war had been held at St. Petersburg, at which the Czar presided, and that the Czar had appointed General Komaroff Commander-in-Chief in Turkestan, and had issued orders to push 50,000 troops forward to the Afghan border.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, stated that the Government had telegraphed to Sir Peter Lumsden for information as to the correctness of the Russian commander's justification of his conduct in attacking the Afghans. Explaining the delay of the Government in reaching a final decision with Russia, Mr. Gladstone said that the reports of the Russian officers who took part in the Panjdeh battle, and those of the English officers who witnessed the engagement, differed so materially in substance and effect that the Government felt obliged to make an independent inquiry. This was proceeding now, and the Government were doing everything in their power toward ascertaining the facts. Russia had, the Premier admitted, failed to answer the material parts of England's communication sent on the day of the receipt of the news of the battle.

A grand durbar was held on Wednesday at Rawalpindi in honor of the Amir of Afghanistan, and proved a great success. The scene was brilliant and impressive. The Earl of Dufferin, Viceroy of India, sat upon a dais, with the Amir upon his right and the Duke of Connaught upon his left. After the presentation of a number of gifts the Amir made an address, during which he said he was greatly obliged for the favors bestowed upon him by Queen Victoria and the Earl of Dufferin, and that in return he would render every service in the power of his army or of his people. As the British promised to help the Afghans to beat off external enemies, the Afghans would in the firmest manner stand side by side with the British.

General Wolseley says he has not abandoned the idea of capturing Khartum in the autumn.

The rebellion against El Mahdi is spreading. He has been severely defeated at El Obeid by Abdullah El Safia. He has made the announcement that he will not attack Dongola until after the fast of the Ramadan, three months hence. Italy will garrison the Sudan, permitting the British troops to be withdrawn for service in Afghanistan. The Italians will also take the place of the British at Cairo.

An official proclamation has been issued at Constantinople stating that the Mahdi, acting in opposition to the principles of Islamism, has carried his seditious audacity to the extent of issuing further incendiary manifestoes in Hedjaz and Yemen against Ottoman domination; that Mussulmans will regard the Sudanese agitator as an impostor and robber chief of the worst kind, and will treat the new appeal of fanaticism and barbarism with the same profound contempt as heretofore.

The British have occupied Handub and the adjacent wells. Four miles of the Suakim-Berber railway have been constructed. The country around Handub appears to be quite clear of the enemy.

The latest advices from Kassala state that the garrison there has a sufficient supply of provisions for a month, and plenty of ammunition. The rebels attacked an Abyssinian caravan which was en route to Galla and killed thirteen persons.

The Prince and Princess of Wales and Prince Albert Victor arrived at Kingstown, Ireland, on Wednesday noon, on the royal yacht *Osborne*. Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, received the Prince and his party, and the Town Commission presented an address of welcome. The Princess at the same time was made the recipient of numerous bouquets. The crowd, which numbered thousands, kept up a continuous cheering during the reception, and cheered loud and long as the royal guests proceeded to Dublin. They arrived at Dublin at 2 o'clock and were accorded a splendid reception. All along the route to Dublin Castle they were heartily cheered. Earl Spencer, the Irish Viceroy, was loudly cheered as he drove through the streets. Lord Mayor John O'Connor, who is a strong Nationalist, but who drove in official state with the royal escort, was loudly hissed by the Nationalists. Not a sign of welcome was visible on the City Hall of Dublin.

Dublin was brilliantly illuminated in the evening. The police had some difficulty at one time in preventing a collision when some Nationalists began shouting "God save Ireland!" and attempted to raise cheers for Parnell. An attempt was made to burn the union jack which had been stolen from the Mansion House by students, but the attacking party was driven off by a combined force of students and loyalists, headed by one hundred policemen with drawn revolvers. The mob took revenge by breaking the windows of the house from which the flag was flying

The Prince of Wales visited the slums in Dublin on Thursday, and freely denounced the wretched condition of the dwellings. He expressed the hope that such buildings would soon be swept from the face of the earth. He held a levee at Dublin Castle in the afternoon, which was attended by more than 3,000 people. The royal party left for the South of Ireland on Monday.

A serious riot occurred in Mallow, Ireland, on Monday, upon the arrival there of the Prince of Wales. A large concourse of Nationalists, headed by Messrs. O'Brien, Harrington, and Deasy, members of Parliament, gathered at the railway station. Fearing trouble, the railway officials, with the aid of the constabulary, ejected the Nationalists from the station. One report says the police charged the crowd at the point of the bayonet. Messrs. O'Brien and Harrington were somewhat injured. Others were seriously hurt. Upon the arrival of the Prince and Princess they were warmly cheered, and addresses of welcome were presented to them. John O'Connor, member of Parliament for Tipperary, made an inflammatory speech at Cork on Monday night at a meeting of the Irish National League. The result of this oration was a repetition at Cork of the riot at Mallow. Windows and doors of houses which had been decorated in honor of the Prince of Wales were smashed. The Prince and Princess of Wales, on their way to Cork on Tuesday, were well received by the people. The loyalists made a good demonstration at Cork. The procession in the evening was, however, attacked by Nationalists. Severe rioting occurred.

Sir Edward Sullivan, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, died on Monday in Dublin at the age of sixty-three. He was created a baronet of the United Kingdom in 1881, and, on the retirement of John Thomas Ball, was appointed Lord Chancellor of Ireland.

Mr. George Samuel Nottage, Lord Mayor of London, died on Saturday morning, of pleurisy. Alderman Fowler has been elected to succeed him.

The Earl of Selkirk, a representative peer for Scotland, is dead. He was born April 22, 1809.

Admiral Sir George Rose Sartorius, who was present with Nelson at the battle of Trafalgar in 1805, when only fifteen years of age, is dead. He was born August 9, 1790. He became a British Admiral of the Fleet in 1869.

In the French Senate on Wednesday, M. de Freycinet, Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated that the preludes of a treaty of peace with China had been virtually concluded. Before, however, giving effect to the recent negotiations he was anxious to ascertain the opinion of the Chinese Government, and had telegraphed to Pekin. He would be, therefore, unable to announce the conclusion of a peace treaty until China should reply. M. Floquet was elected President of the Chamber of Deputies. Both French and Chinese troops have been ordered by their Governments to cease hostilities.

The Emperor of China has issued a decree informing the people that the French humbly sued for peace, and that he has graciously granted their prayer. Viceroys and Governors are warned to exercise great care to prevent acts of treachery before the conclusion of a definitive treaty.

Despatches from Shanghai received on Tuesday stated that there is a hitch in the final arrangements for the execution of the treaty owing to some concessions which China asks and which M. Patenôtre, the French Ambassador, refuses to grant. The Peking *Official Gazette* has, however, published an Imperial decree ordering the execution of the preliminaries of peace.

Despatches were received at Winnipeg on Thursday stopping all troops at their present camps. This action was taken because the Government had appointed a commission to adjust matters with the half-breeds, and endeavor to satisfy their claims. More than fourteen persons at Frog Lake were massacred on Thursday by the Indians. The troops under General Middleton, however, are advancing toward the Saskatchewan, and a battle is expected in a few days.

A treaty of peace has been signed between the Governments of San Salvador and Honduras, and the latter republic has joined the alliance against Guatemala. The armies of San Salvador and her allies are advancing on the city of Guatemala, and are everywhere welcomed by the populace.

THE PRESIDENT'S CRITICS.

THE number and variety of ways in which the Administration is disappointing its enemies are without parallel or precedent in American history. Take Mr. William Walter Phelps's case for example. During the canvass, we presume that he, like all Mr. Blaine's adherents, anticipated that Mr. Cleveland, if elected, would abolish or greatly lower the tariff, so as to throw immense bodies of workingmen out of employment, would make arrangements to pay the Rebel debt, pension the Rebel soldiers, and compensate the old slaveholders for the loss of their slaves—and all out of the United States Treasury. This was bad enough; but in addition to this he was to make a clean sweep of all Republican office-holders (especially such of them as had served in the Union armies), and put dishonest and dissolute Democrats in their places. But Mr. Phelps now says, in an interview at Washington, that the trouble with President Cleveland is that instead of wrecking the Government, as per programme, he refuses to wreck it, and that instead of sacrificing his country to his party, he is sacrificing his party to the country. As all this sounds very strange, we had better give it in Mr. Phelps's own words:

"My opinion is that Mr. Cleveland is going to give a very good Administration to the country, but a very bad one for the party. He is doing nothing at all for his party. The party managers are dissatisfied, and they have a right to be. They have a right to expect him to do something for the good of the party. He might get just as good men for these prominent appointments, and yet give them where they would do the party some good. Now there's the case of my namesake, who was given the English mission. No better man for the place could have been found, but just as good a one might have been had, and the appointment have gone where it would have been of advantage to the party. So with all the rest. It would be just as easy for him to serve his party if he wanted to, but he wants to ignore party altogether. He has made up his mind to stubbornly resist party pressure and refuse to recognize party claims.

"This will meet with the approval of the people," said Mr. Phelps, "but will bring about a party disruption. The process of disruption will go on all through his Administration, and at the end of the four years he will have driven the party managers off. They will be growing more and more discontented as he continues to ignore them, and from time to time the more outspoken will come out and denounce the Administration. The Republicans and the non-partisans will applaud his action, and give him all possible encouragement to go on, and this will more thoroughly disgust the old Democratic leaders. I know there are lots of Democratic Senators who would be better satisfied if Blaine were in the White House. There were some, last November, who had no favors to ask of Mr. Blaine, who would just as lief have seen Blaine elected. They would like his methods better and would be closer to him. Then, too, the South would have had more to expect from his election. There were millions of dollars in the East ready to be put in business enterprises in the South had he been elected. This money is now locked up in New York. I meet with fresh proof every day that Democrats voted for Blaine. If he were to be nominated in 1888, Democratic managers would support him, and he would get an immense Democratic vote."

"But will not Cleveland gain great strength among the people who are not politicians? Will he not draw off all those of no particular politics who have always voted with the Republicans?"

"Yes, he will draw off all those; but they, with all their numbers, cannot make up for the loss of party managers."

This is all very odd, for most of the Blaine managers offered us a positive guarantee that even if Mr. Cleveland was all that the silly Mugwumps said he was, in the matter of good intentions, his inherent weakness of character and his want of experience were such that, instead of ruling his wicked old party, the wicked old party would rule him. Moreover, one of the reasons why Republicans were urged to vote for Blaine was, that the Democratic Senators dreaded his coming into power, knowing how he would confound their politics and frustrate their knavish tricks. But now it appears they actually wish Blaine had been elected, so little to their taste is Cleveland. Was there ever an odder revolution in the wheel of fortune than this? We must say, however, that we were a little wiser during the canvass on this point than Mr. Phelps. We have always held and boldly declared that Blaine was the choice of the corrupt element in both political parties, and that the wicked old Democrats did not desire Cleveland's nomination or his election, and would have gladly assisted in counting him out after his election if the opportunity had offered itself. It is not news to us that they are now sorry that Blaine was not elected. They always desired his election. He and not Cleveland was really their man. Corruptionists belong to no country and no party. The world, with all that it contains, is their oyster.

The fate which Mr. Phelps foresees for Mr. Cleveland is a sad one enough from the Blaine point of view. He thinks that if the President keeps on as he is going, he will end by satisfying the friends of good government and disgusting everybody else. That a Blaine man should consider this the tragic termination of a career is not surprising. To the true Blainite, in fact, it indicates a mild but hopeless form of insanity. The case of the Mugwumps, which Mr. Phelps so deftly analyzes, is perhaps more puzzling than any. The part the Mugwumps played in the canvass, as described by Blaine orators, was that of silly dupes. They had filled their imagination with an ideal candidate, who, if elected, was to respect civil-service reform and refuse to be overruled by "the politicians." Of course it was not possible to show them by actual experiment how foolish they were, because Mr. Blaine's election had been already arranged. But if the experiment could be tried, if they could be allowed to put their doll in the White House, they were to find out that it was stuffed with sawdust, and that the world was hollow; and shrewd men like Mr. Phelps, disgusted with their blubbering, were to rebuke them sharply and bid them attend to things they understood better than politics. The Mugwumps, however, elected their man, and now, confound him, he is doing all they said he would do. He is actually satisfying that absurd portion of the American people who care more for honest government than for party.

One admission of Mr. Phelps's we especially enjoy—that in which he reports large sums of money "locked up" in New York, which would have been actively employed at "the South" and other places had Blaine been elected. We pointed out frequently during the campaign that the Blaine canvass was really a business enterprise, and that his Cabinet would be rather a firm than a council of political advisers. His administration was intended to be the greatest money-making scheme ever launched in this country, and that his defeat has caused a great deal of money to lie idle in New York will surprise no careful observer. What is surprising in the matter is Mr. Phelps's truly frank confession. There are plenty of reasons in Cleveland's Administration why political rogues and jobbers should keep their funds lying idle, but not one why an honest man should not invest freely in the South or anywhere else.

THE WABASH SWINDLE.

MUCH has been said and printed during the past eighteen months concerning the "Wabash swindle," but the avenues to correct information have been so well guarded that it has been impossible until recently for anybody not in the original secret to find out its true proportions. It has been stated in general terms that the Wabash Railway, consisting at the close of the year 1879 of the consolidated Toledo, Wabash & Western and St. Louis, Kansas City & Northern lines, and embracing about 1,000 miles of fairly paying road, was made the nucleus for the reorganization of some 2,400 miles of broken-down non-paying roads, the former to serve as a bladder for "floating" several millions of new bonds and an equal amount of preferred and common stock upon the confiding public of two hemispheres. The accounts of the whole system having been kept in a lump so far as the public was concerned, so that it was impossible for investors to know what the real facts regarding these fag-ends of railways were. Dividends of one and one-half per cent. quarterly were paid on the preferred stock during the year 1881, until the securities were fairly swimming. Then the company was said to be "in difficulties." Dividends ceased, and the securities declined with alarming rapidity. Then there was a shortage of money to pay the interest on the general-mortgage bonds, and Mr. Jay Gould advanced or raised the money necessary to pay one or more instalments, taking as security such collaterals as the company happened to have, not already in pawn. Then the whole concern, embracing upward of 3,400 miles of road, was leased for ninety-nine years to the St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern Railroad Company, which was itself under lease to the Missouri Pacific Railroad Company, the lessee company agreeing to pay to the lessor (the Wabash, St. Louis & Pacific) all the earnings over and above taxes, operating expenses, and bond interest! One year later the lessee company threw up the lease, assigning as a reason that the leased property did not earn sufficient money to meet these several charges. Then the road passed into the hands of receivers, one of them being Mr. Solon Humphreys, who was President of the Company in 1880, when the "floating" took place. It was plaintively remarked, in the circular announcing the receivership, that the step was taken in consequence of the action of the St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern Company, and that it would be necessary to ask the bondholders to "coöperate in a plan of relief."

Nobody could doubt that underneath this default there must be hidden some awful rottenness, but nobody could accurately state its character and dimensions. Means for taking

its measurement are furnished by the report just filed by the receivers, showing the results of operation of the separate pieces of railway for the six months ending November 30, 1884. This report is accompanied by a map of the "Wabash system," showing in red lines the parent stem as it existed before the floating, and in black lines the things floated. The *tout ensemble* resembles a cobweb wrecked by a gale of wind, with one corner fastened at Toledo and the threads dispersed at random over the States of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri. All evidences of a "system" vanish at a glance. It is a congeries of predestined bankruptcies, the details of which are set forth in the body of the report. We doubt if any such exhibit was ever made in any part of the civilized world. The report first states that the parent stem—the old Wabash Railway of 1879—has earned sufficient money to pay all the expenses of operation, "and interest on all the bonds issued before the date of said consolidation," November 10, 1879. Then follows a detailed statement of the earnings, operating expenses, and rental of the twenty-five leased lines. These may be grouped under two heads showing (1) earnings and operating expenses only, (2) earnings, operating expenses, and rental—viz.:

I.

EARNINGS LESS THAN OPERATING EXPENSES.

St. Joseph & St. Louis	$52,118 83
St. Louis, Ottumwa & Council Bluffs	13,006 13
Council Bluffs & St. Louis	5,288 64
Clarinda & St. Louis	4,624 69
Quincy, Missouri & Pacific	10,201 93
Des Moines & St. Louis	33,508 35
Des Moines & Northwestern	9,557 38
Eel River	7,011 64
Champaign, Havana & W	24,170 69
Cairo Division	73,294 44
Attica, Covington & S	1,750 26
Peoria, Pekin & Jacksonville	11,484 42
Springfield & Northwestern	35,760 19
St. Louis, Jerseyville & Springfield	18,788 00
Champaign & Southern	2,045 89
Havana, Rantoul & E	9,785 28
	$312,396 76

EARNINGS EXCEEDING OPERATING EXPENSES.

Boone Co. & Booneville	$5,436 56
St. Louis, Council Bluffs & Omaha	15,766 56
Brunswick & Chillicothe	14,666 13
Missouri, Iowa & Nebraska	10,188 96
Centerville, Moravia & Albia	1,861 71
Toledo, Peoria & Western	98,257 91
Chicago Division	208,308 45
Detroit, Butler & St. Louis	37,463 61
Indianapolis Division	94,270 33
	$486,220 22
Deficit	312,396 76
Surplus for six months over operating expenses on 25 leased lines	$173,823 46

II.

EARNINGS LESS THAN OPERATING EXPENSES AND RENTAL.

St. Joseph & St. Louis	$77,212
St. Louis, Ottumwa & Council Bluffs	24,293
St. Louis, Council Bluffs & Omaha	3,013
Council Bluffs & St. Louis	87,538
Clarinda & St. Louis	12,544
Missouri, Iowa & Nebraska	57,881
Quincy, Missouri & Pacific	46,327
Centreville, Moravia & Albia	10,138
Des Moines & St. Louis	33,508
Des Moines & Northwestern	9,557
Eel River	70,431
Toledo, Peoria & Western	117,242
Champaign, Havana & W	72,402
Detroit, Butler & St. Louis	24,096
Indianapolis Division	10,354
Cairo Division	169,719
Attica, Covington & S	1,750
Peoria, Pekin & Jacksonville	11,484
Springfield & Northwestern	35,760
St. Louis, Jerseyville & Springfield	50,828
Champaign & Southern	2,045
Havana, Rantoul & E	20,285
Total	$948,407

EARNINGS EXCEEDING OPERATING EXPENSES AND RENTAL.

Boone County & Booneville	$1,937
Brunswick & Chillicothe	5,531
Chicago division	95,808
Total	$103,276
Deficit	948,407
Net deficit, 6 months, on 25 leased lines	845,131

This does not furnish the full measure of the Wabash deficit, there being $17,000,000 of general-mortgage 6 per cent. bonds outstanding, covering all the leased lines as well as the parent stem. The total bonded debt of the consolidated company is stated in Poor's Manual to be $76,394,854 (including collateral trust bonds for $5,671,000), the interest charge upon which is $4,755,000. Deducting the original bonded debt of the parent stem, say $35,500,000, for which the interest is earned, there remains a balance of $41,000,000 of bonds, to say nothing of stock, for which only $206,000 per annum (the surplus of the three lines which pay more than their own first-mortgage interest) is visible for purposes of distribution to the investors.

THE AFGHAN WAR.

Sir Henry Rawlinson, whose work on 'England and Russia in the East' entitles him to the foremost position as an authority on Central Asian affairs, contributes an article to the current number of the *Nineteenth Century* on the Russian advance, in which that now exciting topic is treated with great breadth of vision and fulness of information. The keynote of the Russian advance, in Mr. Rawlinson's view, was sounded soon after and in consequence of the Crimean war. It was disclosed to Russia by the event of that conflict, that in her aspirations toward Constantinople she would always find an enemy in England—an enemy unassailable by reason of her insular position, an enemy whose only exposed point lay across Central Asia. To reach this exposed point so as to put a pressure upon England, causing her to relax her vigilance in Europe, and withdraw in part her strength from the Dardanelles, was the mainspring of her Central Asian policy. Her advance to the eastward has not been without its beneficent influences. It has suppressed rapine, promoted peaceful industry, protected life and property, and rescued large districts of fertile country from barbarism. But these have been the incidents, not the end, of the inexorable forward movement. The movement would be impossible unless the nomadic tribes were subjected to the rules of civilized life. Civilized or partly civilized they must be in order that the next forward step might be taken safely.

The movement began in 1867 from Orenburg. Thorough work was made. Every advanced post taken was well secured before the next step was taken. In 1869 the Russians crossed the Caspian, and invaded the country of the Turkomans, without provocation and without apology. Khiva was taken in 1873, Geok-Tepe in 1880, and Merv in 1884. The occupation of this capital position had a sort of electrical effect upon all the Asiatic peoples. Persia and Afghanistan were alarmed for their immediate safety, and the Anglo-Indian Government took the most active measures to settle the northern boundaries of the latter country by negotiations with Russia which had been dragging along more than ten years, but had been prevented from reaching a definitive conclusion through the inability or unwillingness of the Russian Government to make stipulations respecting a territory beyond her military reach. Nevertheless, a tentative agreement had been reached as early as 1872, that the "dependencies of Herat" were a part of Shir Ali's dominions and that these extended westward as far as the Heri-Rud, and northward to the foothills which skirt the Turkoman desert. Puli-Khatun is within this territory, very near its northwestern angle, and Puli-Khisti and Panjdeh are on its northern frontier. This tentative agreement is known as the Granville-Gortchakoff memorandum. It was not put into the form of a treaty, but was accepted by both Governments as the basis for one when the proper surveys should have been made.

It is worthy of note that Russia was the first to move the definitive settlement of this boundary. In 1882 she suggested in the interest of peace that the Granville-Gortchakoff arrangement should be perfected by actual surveys. This proposition, says Sir Henry, "was received by us at the time with some coldness." Not until the fall of Merv did the English Government bestir itself to mark out the boundary with precision. Then (in July, 1884), the joint commission, consisting of Sir Peter Lumsden and General Zelenoi, was appointed to make the survey. Once established at Merv, the Russian authorities discovered that the Parapamisus range of mountains was much fitter to be the boundary of Afghanistan than the foothills skirting the Turkoman desert, and began to argue that the "dependencies of Herat" to the north of this range had been forfeited by *non user*, having been swept by Turkoman raids for fifty years. Russia, it was claimed, had succeeded to all the rights of the Turkomans, and had expressly received the allegiance of a tribe one of whose clans occupied Panjdeh and the Kushk Valley within the Afghan frontier. In order to settle this question of the right of succession to Turkoman claims and Turkoman occupation before proceeding with the survey, General Zelenoi was ordered back to Tiflis, and a Russian force was moved forward to Puli-Khatun, within the disputed territory. The Afghans then despatched to Panjdeh the military force whose collision with the Russians took place on the 30th ult., as already known. The latest news received leaves no doubt that the Russians are in occupation of Panjdeh, and have no intention of retiring from it.

Mr. Gladstone's statement in the House of Commons on Thursday showed that the Ministry look on General Komaroff's attack on the Afghans as probably deliberate and not accidental. The disavowal of the Czar and M. de Giers, which was received by telegraph, was greeted with "shouts of derisive laughter." It also came out that the instructions not to advance which M. de Giers had assured the British Government on the 17th of March should be at once sent to the military commander on the Afghan frontier, had not been heard of by that officer at a very recent date. It is not quite clear yet, however, that the Afghans have offered no provocation by changing their position; for, although Mr. Gladstone, in his first statement, declared they had not moved up to March 3, a telegram from Sir Peter Lumsden, received subsequently, showed that they had made one very serious move forward prior to that date. Sir Peter's story is, that, owing to the Russians threaten-

ing to advance in force on Ak-Tapa, which lies on the other side of the Kushk Valley, and about fifteen miles from Panjdeh, the Afghans had moved their whole force down and across the river beyond Ak-Tapa, and as far as Puli-Khisti. This brought them within ten miles of Sara-Yazis, on the river, where the Russians had until then had their advanced guard, and of course greatly increased the chances of a collision. It is not likely, however, that this fact of the Afghan advance will produce much impression on the British mind in its present state of anger and mistrust.

The way in which the Russians have pushed their advances in Central Asia accounts for this mistrust. Every one of them for fifty years has been preceded by assurances that it was not to take place. When Khiva was captured by General Kaufmann in 1873, in spite of solemn assurances that nothing of the kind was in contemplation, the Czar declared that he had given him strict orders to evacuate the place immediately; but he afterward acquiesced in the General's representations that this was impossible, as, if he did, the Khanate would become a prey to the wandering Turkomans. Similiar assurances were given subsequently, that Merv was in no way an object of Russian desire, but within three or four years this too was seized on, the reason being the turbulence and aggressiveness of the Tekke Turkomans who had their headquarters there. Merv is within ten easy stages of Herat, and attainable from the Caspian by a road for nearly the whole distance through an inhabited country, where an abundant supply of water exists, with rich pasturage and a healthy climate. In fact, long before Merv was occupied, the road to it from the Caspian was carefully surveyed. All this, with a good deal more, has produced in England a sort of passionate belief in Russian perfidy, which Komaroff's fighting without orders only intensifies.

THE LATE LORD CAIRNS.

LONDON, April 3, 1885.

ONE of the sudden weather changes of our treacherous English spring has just carried off the greatest English judge of this generation, a man who, like so many of our great advocates and judges, also played a part, second only to the highest, in the politics of his time. Many of your readers, and especially of your professional readers, who have been accustomed to study his exposition of the law in the English Law Reports, may be glad to hear something about so prominent a figure in contemporary English life.

He was one of those Scoto-Irishmen of Ulster who combine in a remarkable way the passionate partisanship of Ireland with the shrewd sense and solid persistency of Scotland. Born an Episcopalian, he grew up an Orangeman and Tory in politics, an earnest Low-Church Evangelical in religion; nor did his opinions in either respect ever seem to alter during his long life. His great abilities were perceived both at school and at college (Trinity College, Dublin), and so much impressed the counsel in whose chambers he studied for a year in London that he strongly dissuaded the young man from returning to Dublin to practise at the Irish bar, promising him a brilliant career on the wider theatre of London. His prediction was verified by the rapidity with which Cairns, who, it is fair to say, had also the advantage of influential connections in the City of London, rose into note. He obtained a seat in Parliament for his native town of Belfast when only thirty-three years of age, and was appointed Solicitor-General to Lord Derby's second Ministry six years later—a post which most eminent lawyers have not reached till near fifty. In the House of Commons he proved himself a very powerful as well as ready speaker, and would doubtless have remained in an assembly where he rendered such valuable services to his party but for the weakness of his lungs and throat, which had threatened his life since boyhood. He therefore accepted the office of Lord Justice of Appeal in 1867, with a seat in the House of Lords, and next year was made Lord Chancellor by Mr. Disraeli, then Prime Minister.

After Lord Derby's death, he led the Tory party in the House of Lords for a time, but his strong anti-High-Church proclivities, and a certain jealousy felt toward him as a newcomer, prevented him from becoming popular there, so that ultimately the leadership of that House settled itself in the hands of Lord Salisbury, a man much inferior to Cairns in judgment, and indeed in mental power altogether, but in far closer sympathy with the feelings and habits of the titled order. He took prominent part in all great debates in the House of Lords and in the discussion of legal measures, and was indeed so absolutely master of the Chamber when such measures came under discussion, that the Liberal Government of 1868 to 1874, and again from 1880 till now, could do nothing in the Lords except by his permission, which, of course, was never given when a political issue was affected. Yet the vehemence of his party feeling did not overcast his judgment. It was mainly through his interposition that the House of Lords consented to pass the Irish Church Bill of 1869—a measure which, of course, Lord Cairns disliked as heartily as any one did, but which he thought it best to accept for the sake of saving to the disestablished Church a part of her funds, which might have been lost had the bill been rejected then and passed next year by an angrier House of Commons. Of all the members of Lord Beaconsfield's late Ministry, he was the one whom Lord Beaconsfield himself had been wont most to respect and to rely on. In January, 1874, when Mr. Gladstone's suddenly announced dissolution of Parliament startled all England one Saturday morning, Disraeli, who heard of it while still in bed, was at first frightened, thinking that the Liberal leaders had played boldly and would carry the elections. When one of his party managers came to see him, he was found restless and dejected, and cried out, "Send for Cairns at once." Lord Cairns was sent for, came full of vigor, hope, and counsel, and after an hour's talk so restored the confidence of his ally that Disraeli sat down in the best spirits to compose his electoral manifesto. As everybody knows, Cairns's forecast was right, and the Tories won by a large majority.

For political success Lord Cairns had several qualities of the utmost value—a clear head, a resolute will, and splendid oratorical gifts. He was not an imaginative speaker, nor specially skilled in touching the emotions; but he had a matchless power of statement and no less matchless closeness and cogency in argument. His diction, without being exceptionally choice, was pure and precise, and his manner had a dignity and weight which seemed to compel your attention even when the matter was uninteresting. A voice not naturally powerful, for the chest was weak, and sometimes apt to sound hollow, was managed with great skill; action and gesture were used sparingly, but effectively, and the tall, well-built figure and strongly-marked, somewhat Roman features helped to strengthen the impression of power, courage, resolution, which belonged to the whole man. The qualities of oratory I have described in him may seem better fitted to a sober and dignified assembly like the House of Lords than to a changeful and impulsive body like the House of Commons. Yet, in point of fact, he spoke better in the Commons than in the Lords, and would have left a higher oratorical reputation had his displays been more numerous in the popular House. The reason seems to be that the heat of that House warmed his somewhat chilly temperament, and roused him to a more energetic and ardent style of speaking than was needed in the Lords, where he and his friends, commanding a large majority, had things all their own way. In the Commons he confronted a crowd of zealous adversaries, and put forth all the forces of his logic and rhetoric to overcome them. In the Lords he was apt to be didactic, sometimes even tedious; he overproved his own case without meeting the case of the other side; his manner wanted animation and his matter variety. Still, he was a great speaker, greater in his own line, especially upon legal topics, where a power of lucid exposition was required, than any one he has left behind him.

Why, it may be asked, with these gifts, and with so much firmness and energy of character, did he not play an even more leading part in politics, and succeed, after Lord Beaconsfield's death, to the chieftaincy of the Tory party? The answer is to be found partly in the prejudice which still survives in England against legal politicians, partly in certain defects of his own personality. Although sincerely pious, and exemplary in all the relations of domestic life, he seemed ungenial, unbending, in ordinary social life. Few men of our time equally eminent have had so few personal friends. There was a dryness, a coldness, and what appeared (for it may not have been really so) a hauteur about his manner which repelled strangers and kept acquaintanceship from ripening into friendship. To succeed as a leader, a man must usually (I do not say invariably, because there are a few remarkable instances—Mr. Parnell's would appear to be one of them—to the contrary) at least seem sympathetic: must be able to enter into the feelings of his followers, and show himself interested in them not merely as partisans but as human beings. There must be a certain glow, a certain *abandon* about him, which makes them care for him as a human being, and not merely as a general. Whether Lord Cairns wanted warmth of heart, or whether it was that a real warmth failed to pierce the cloak of reserve and pride which he habitually wore, I do not attempt to determine. But the defect told heavily against him. He never became a familiar figure to the mass of his party—a person whose features they knew, at whose name they would cheer; and nowadays all leaders, even of the aristocratic party, must have won this kind of popularity if they are to sway the state.

In the field of law, where passion and emotion have no place, and even imagination must be content to move with clipped wings along the ground, the merits of Lord Cairns's intellect showed to best advantage. At the Chancery bar he was one of a trio who have been rarely, if ever, equalled during the present century, and whom none of our now practising advocates rivals. The other two were Mr., afterward Lord Justice, Rolt, and Mr. Roundell Palmer, the present Lord Chancellor Selborne. All were admirable lawyers, but, of the three, Rolt excelled in his spirited presentation of a case and lively acuteness of his arguments. Palmer was conspicuous for exhaustless ingenuity, and for a subtlety which sometimes led him away into reasonings too fine for a court to follow. Cairns was broad, massive, convincing, with a robust urgency of logic which seemed to seize and hold you, so that while he spoke you could fancy no con-

clusion possible save that toward which he moved. All these famous men were raised to the judicial bench. Rolt sat there for too short a time (a few months only) for him to be able to enrich our jurisprudence or leave a memory of himself in the Reports. Palmer has sat in the House of Lords for twelve years, and, while sustaining his reputation as a man of eminent legal capacity, has been, on the whole, less brilliant as a judge than he was as an advocate, because his tendency to over-refinements is more dangerous in the judicial than in the forensic mind. He has made in many respects an admirable Chancellor, more industrious and more zealous for law reform than Cairns was. But Cairns was the greater judge, and has become to the present generation a sort of model of judicial excellence. In hearing a cause he was singularly patient, rarely interrupting counsel, and only to put some pertinent question. He remained so still that sometimes people doubted whether he was really attending to all that was passed upon. But when the time came for him to deliver judgment, which in the English House of Lords is done in the form of a speech addressed to the House in moving or supporting a motion which is, in fact, the judgment, it was seen how fully he had apprehended the case in all its bearings. His deliverances were never lengthy, but they were exhaustive. They went straight to the vital principles on which the question turned, stated these in the most luminous way, and applied them with unerring exactitude to the particular facts. It is as a storehouse of principles that his judgments are so valuable. They display less case knowledge than those of some other judges. But Cairns was not one of those men who love cases for their own sake, and he never cared to call upon more learning than was needed for the present purpose. It was in the grasp of the principles involved, in the breadth of view which enabled him to see these principles in their relation to one another, in the perfectly lucid language in which he expounded and applied them, that his strength lay. Herein he surpassed the most eminent of his contemporary judges, the late Master of the Rolls, for while Sir George Jessel had perhaps a quicker mind than Cairns, he had not so large a one, nor one so thoroughly philosophical in the methods by which it moved.

It was very characteristic of Lord Cairns that in law he was wholly free from the partisanship which so much tinged his politics. No one was more perfectly fair upon the bench; no one seemed more honestly anxious to arrive at a true decision. And as a law reformer, although he effected less than might have been hoped from his abilities or expected from the absolute sway which he exercised while Chancellor in Lord Beaconsfield's Government, he was free from prejudice, and willing to sweep away antiquated rules or usages if they seemed to block the channel of speedy justice. But in politics all this impartiality and elevation vanished. He was not merely a party man, which an English politician is forced to be, but a partisan—that is, a man wholly devoted to his party, who argued every question in its interests, seemed unable to rise to a higher and more national view, and often condescended to arguments whose unsoundness his penetrating intellect could hardly have failed to detect. While his professional tone was always singularly pure and blameless, he seemed to set for himself a less exacting standard of political conscientiousness. Yet if in this he failed to reach so high a level as his splendid abilities might have warranted, the defect was due not to self-interest, but rather to that intensity of partisanship which marks the Irish Orangeman. It is therefore rather as a judge than as a politician that he will be, and that his friends must desire him to be, held in honorable remembrance. Y.

CATHERINE DE MÉDICIS.

PARIS, March 26, 1885.

COUNT HECTOR DE LA FERRIÈRE has undertaken the task of publishing the correspondence of Queen Catherine de Médicis. His publication is a part of the "Documents inédits sur l' Histoire de France." The first volume appeared a few years ago, and a second has just made its appearance. It opens at the period of the Peace of Amboise, which was made between the Catholics and the Protestants against Queen Elizabeth, as one of the objects of the peace was the retaking of Havre, which was in the hands of the English.

It was not very easy for the Queen to force the Peace of Amboise on her subjects. First of all, she had to meet the resistance of the *parlements*, especially of the Parliament of Paris, which had then and until the reign of Louis XIV. a singular sort of power. There is nothing in history which can exactly be compared to this Parliament of Paris. It was vested with the right of verifying the royal edicts, and these had not the force of law before verification. It had a right of general remonstrance against the abuses and the disorders of the kingdom. It easily became, especially during the minorities, the instrument of the princes; at times, it was in open rebellion, especially when it could have on its side a prince of the blood. When the Peace of Amboise had been concluded, Catherine de Médicis sent two deputies to the Parliament of Paris, De Losses and De Gounor. I must here say a word of Gounor, who was a very important man in his time. He was a perpetual sort of arbiter between the Protestants and the Catholics, and he was fitted for this task by a total absence of fanaticism and a sort of easy scepticism which had endeared him to Catherine de Médicis, who was very much attached to the forms of the Catholic religion, but very little to its dogmas. Catherine was not a theologian; she liked the *old* Church, with its pomps and ceremonies, but the discussions of the Bishops and of the Protestant ministers meant nothing for her. As for Gounor, one word will show his state of mind; during one of the first *collogues* (such was the name given to the meetings in which Catholics and Protestants together discussed the points on which they differed), after a long discussion on the Eucharist, Gounor said: "I really don't know why you debate so long; for," he added, turning toward the Protestants, "if God is in the Eucharist, you cannot take him out of it; and," turning to the Catholic side, "if he is not, you cannot put him in."

The two deputies of the Queen were received by the Parliament. De Losses explained the necessity of verifying at once the letters patent; a single day's delay placed the Queen and the King at the mercy of the Protestants, who were still in arms. The First President, Christophe de Thou, asked him two questions: "Will the cities which are still in the hands of the Protestants be given back to the King? Will the Germans leave the kingdom?" "They have promised to," said De Losses, "and the cities will be given back." Gounor spoke in his turn, and showed the deplorable state of the country: the royal army had not been paid for three months; the receivers of taxes had deserted Normandy and taken refuge in Brittany; in Languedoc the King had only three cities left—Toulouse, Narbonne, and Carcassonne; in Dauphiny he had only one—Vienne. "I speak without passion," said he finally; "I am not a Huguenot, and I beg the court not to postpone the registration of the edict."

The court, however, asked, by the mouth of De Thou, that two princes of the blood should be sent, and be present on the day of the registration. Catherine sent the Cardinal de Bourbon and the Duc de Montpensier, and the registration was made with great solemnity. The First President, having taken the sense of all the members, declared that the letters patent would be inscribed with the special mention, "Read and published in presence of the Cardinal de Bourbon and of the Duc de Montpensier, specially delegated by the King." In the other Parliaments of the kingdom the Queen was obliged to exert a strong pressure in order to obtain the verification of the edict.

She had even more difficulties with the foreign Powers. It was the interest of all these Powers that France should be convulsed and enfeebled by civil war. One of the articles of the Peace of Amboise was the "expulsion of the foreigners." This article was directed not only against the *Reiter*, who returned to Germany with Prince Porcien as a hostage and guarantee of the sums still due to them, but also against the English, still masters of Havre. It was not to be hoped that Queen Elizabeth would give away this stronghold; she pretended to have the right to keep it till Calais should be given to her. The Protestant chiefs had bound themselves to her by the Treaty of Hampton Court. Coligny and D'Andelot, his brother, had advised Catherine de Médicis that they could not bear arms against Elizabeth. Catherine counted on the pertinacity and the pride of Elizabeth; she knew that the Queen of England, who was very much offended with the Protestants of France, would accept no composition and would make war inevitable. Elizabeth refused to give back Havre; Briquemant, the French envoy, told her that war was then certain. Elizabeth wrote to Warwick: "I make no account of his threats; I have for a long time been accustomed to the bragging of the French. I have dismissed Briquemant without any hope of an adjustment as long as I have not Calais."

The Queen of England had a special envoy, Middlemore, accredited to the Prince of Condé and the Protestant chiefs. The ambassador to the Queen was Smith. Both Middlemore and Smith did their best to bring over Condé to their cause, but their efforts were vain. Condé always maintained that he had never consented that Elizabeth should keep Havre till she got Calais. He had, to be sure, given a *blanc-seing* to his envoy at the time of the negotiation of his treaty with Elizabeth; but the Ministers of Elizabeth had surreptitiously introduced this article. Coligny spoke in the same sense, and said to the English ambassadors that it was not in his nor in anybody's power to give away what belonged to the crown.

Catherine de Médicis sent a new envoy to England, M. d'Alluye, the youngest of her secretaries, proud, presumptuous, just the sort of man who was sure to rouse Elizabeth and to throw her off her guard. He took with him La Haye, who represented more particularly Condé. Elizabeth was imprudent enough, in her conversations with D'Alluye, to tell him that the occupation of Havre had been the revenge of Calais. This was the magical word which Catherine de Médicis expected; with this word she was sure to excite the national passion in France. Condé ceased to hesitate: he was a French prince. As M. de la Ferrière says: "The honor of France overcame his ingratitude. The old Constable of Montmorency felt young again, and from his mouth fell the word which rallied under the same flag Protestants and Catholics: 'From here to Bayonne, one cry—*Vive la France!*'" The rest is well known. Elizabeth was as unwilling to spend money for the protection of Havre as she was to abandon the place. When the English fleet arrived it was too late, and Havre surrendered. Catherine made her entry, and she had the satisfaction of seeing the English fleet, which brought

six thousand men, depart with the English garrison.

The majority of Charles IX. was declared at Rouen, and Catherine came and kneeled before her son, who kissed her and told her that it was still for her to command. A short time afterward the Queen-mother, who was a very good rider (see Brantôme's 'Lives of Illustrious Women'), but who had become very heavy, had a fall from her horse at Mantes.

"If," says M. de la Ferrière, "death had taken her at that moment of her life, what a page she would occupy in our history! She had, in the same year, under the happy inspiration of patriotism, put an end to the first civil war, preserved Metz, which was threatened by Germany, retaken Havre from the English, and, effacing the shame of the Treaty of Cateau-Cambrésis, had forever preserved in our hands Calais, one of the keys of France. The blood of Saint Bartholomew would not have reddened her hands, and France, saved by her, would have erected statues to her. Why was it not so?"

During her convalescence, she occupied herself in writing counsel for the conduct of her son Charles. A copy of this letter "au Roy Monsieur mon fils" is in the National Library. This is the place she makes for him: to receive at his *lever*, "quand il prenait sa chemise et que les habillemens entraient," all the princes, knights, captains, chevaliers de l'ordre, gentlemen of the bedchamber; to see them and converse with them. After this *lever*, nobody was to remain but the members of the Council and four secretaries; after mass, dinner, and after dinner, once at least in the week, "give audience; a thing which infinitely contents your subjects. Then retire, and come to me or to the Queen, and keep a certain sort of court, which is a thing the French like infinitely." I cannot follow these instructions in all their minute details; they concern the police of the court, but have little to do with general politics. It has pleased some historians, and M. de la Ferrière has somewhat indulged in this view, to represent Catherine de Médicis as a deep politician, a predecessor of Richelieu and of Mazarin. I cannot admit this conception of her character. She was a shrewd Italian, astute, designing, capable of secrecy, firm, courageous; but to talk of her patriotism seems an exaggeration. She was very fond of her children, and invariably when she speaks of the kingdom she speaks of it as the property of her children. She defends the kingdom as a good trustee defends the capital he keeps in hand. Her love for her children was very blind, and, in one sense, very selfish; she wished them always to be completely under her influence: she was the Queen-mother, but she wished to be also the Queen. Her children were the instruments of her ambition, and her ambition had no other object than the greatness of her children. In all her correspondence I do not find any national view, any theoretical or general policy, any preference for the Spanish alliance or the English alliance. She changed friends as she changed enemies, with the greatest ease; she had but one or two fixed hatreds. Coligny was one; she disliked him profoundly, she feared him, she knew that she was nothing in his eyes, and she could not conquer his pride and his indomitable character.

The second part of the new volume of M. de la Ferrière is filled with the documents and letters which refer to the famous interview at Bayonne. Catherine thought herself strong enough to deal with Philip II. and with the Duke of Alba; she was soon undeceived, and she really left Bayonne disappointed. She had not secured the friendship of Spain, and she had alarmed the whole Protestant world, and the rumors which followed the interview were the preface of new wars of religion. She would have done much better to adhere to the edict of Amboise. The Protestants were able to represent her as the tool of Spanish fanaticism, when she had in reality obtained nothing from the bigoted and perverse Philip.

Correspondence.

TENNESSEE MOUNTAIN DIALECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Professor Alexander's interesting letter in the *Nation* of April 2 inspires the wish for a fuller analysis, from his pen, of the dialect of the Tennessee mountain region of which he writes. It appears to be difficult to report dialect speech accurately. But the expression "stiddier," which occurs so often in Miss Murfree's stories, is certainly "instead of your," when correctly used; and in the speech of the people of the region, as I have heard it, it appears as "'stid o' yer," as I should represent it: "'Stid o' yer takin' up with sich a forehanded gal as Emiline, ye have to run arter a doless thing like that." Miss Murfree does not always use it correctly. But "brigaty" I have heard as often as the other form, not only in that region, but among descendants of the "Scotch-Irish settlers in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and elsewhere." The people of the same region do not all speak their dialect precisely alike. "Jawin'," for jawing (scolding), is right, but these people also say "jourin'" (sounding the "r" distinctly) for speech or actions intended to excite anger or produce a personal collision. I think they generally say *shore* for *sure*, but Miss Murfree does not so represent their speech, I believe. Though sometimes inaccurate, she uses many characteristic expressions correctly. I should like to ask Professor Alexander if he has heard "saddy" for "thanks," or "thank you," in Tennessee, and what he thinks it comes from.

The chief interest of Miss Murfree's stories for me is in the fact that the author, without patronizing her characters or apologizing for them, truthfully portrays representatives of a population not yet influenced by the modern world. The instinctive virtues of courage, truth, and faithfulness survive in greater degree among the people of portions of Tennessee, North Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia than in any other regions with which I am acquainted. (Some of these people are starving just now, I believe.) The first and last stories in Miss Murfree's book, for instance, seem to me to be truthful in this respect, and examples of good art, without distortion or excess, and so of great value in literature. I hope the dialect may be carefully revised for future editions.

J. B. Harrison.

New York, April 7, 1885.

"HOLDING A SALON."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am sorry for those who (like your correspondent "H.") "cannot read the *Nation* without self-consciousness"; and I am equally sorry for those who (like "H.") "try to hold a salon." But it appears to me that the two causes of trouble are somewhat closely connected, and I would suggest to "H." that if she (the sex is, I believe, unmistakable) will never again attempt to hold a salon, she will be always able to read her *Nation* with quietness of soul.

To translate "tenir un salon" by "keeping a saloon" would not be more out of reason than to attempt to transplant the idea of the "salon" from Paris to New York, from France to America. A "salon" is possible (omitting all other considerations) only under certain conditions of leisure—both leisure of time and leisure of mind—pervading the society from which its habitués are to be drawn. It may be said that Americans are absolutely ignorant of the leisure of men who are or have been hard workers in intellectual fields, but whose tasks are for the most part set by themselves; or the leisure of women who have no occasion for "cares" about money or health. To create a salon there must be in its neighborhood, at least vaguely influencing it, disengaged savants, disengaged statesmen, army and navy officers, journalists, professional men, artists (including authors), bankers and brokers, and leisurely talkers, intermingled with women willing not only to give up "the world" for (in a more definite sense) "society," but to devote the best powers of their intelligence to making *other women* charming. By this last gentle paradox I mean that (outside the "specialized" salon—the salon of *intimates*—where the hostess is the only woman needed, and she chiefly as the bond of union among her guests, the string on which they are strung) the atmosphere of the most successful salons is created by a diffusion of entirely unpretending women, in sympathy among themselves about the pretty game of agreeableness they are playing.

A "salon" is simply impossible, as yet, in any city of this land; one might as well try to make a salad of grass and a little butter and salt, or an omelet without fire. It is more or less out of season now everywhere: but even where it is possible, each individual salon is a thing of slow growth—it does not spring up in a night. Its birth is as spontaneous and original as that of an organized being, and its cultivation as prolonged. One cannot hold a salon this winter or that, one "holds" it for life. And "H." must pardon me for saying that at the best it is not every woman who can be a proficient in this art.

If by "holding a salon" "H." merely means that she has been "at home" to her friends once a week during the winter, she would, by using the native and not the foreign phrase, do something to "clear her mind of cant," and might thus take a step toward the discovery that if her salooners are "ridiculously stiff and self-conscious," it is not the fault of the *Nation*. * *

OUR FOREIGN SERVICE—ITS DEFECTS AND THE REMEDIES THEREFOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a former article I called attention to the great importance to our Government and people of our foreign service, and pointed out some of the grave defects at present existing in it, as a natural result of the "spoils" system. No branch of our public service, let me repeat, not even our army and navy, stands in greater need of special training, experience, and stability than does our foreign service; and in this opinion I am sure all will concur who are at all conversant with the important, varied, complex, and often delicate duties required of this service. Not unfrequently peace between nations depends upon the capacity, skill, and experience of their representatives abroad. An untrained and inexpert consul or minister may involve us in serious difficulties with our neighbors when there is no principle or right involved. A few years ago our Government was called upon to send two men-of-war to Tripoli to demand redress for imaginary insults offered to our consul, and they had actually to lower their guns and prepare to bombard the city before the stubborn Pasha would consent to apologize for an offence never offered. The commanders of both vessels have since told me how they regretted thus humiliating the authorities, well knowing that the difficulty grew entirely out of the incapacity—or worse—of our consular representative; and an official report of the case was made to this effect. Had such action been taken against a self-respecting country it would certainly have been resented, and we might have been involved in serious trouble.

Only two or three years ago a man-of-war was called all the way from Italy to an important Turkish port, at the instance of our consular agent—who is not an American—to demand the release of a man accused, and no doubt guilty, of brigandage, and, what is still worse, who had not a shadow of right to American protection. Yet he was liberated on the demand—in the form of a forty-eight-hour ultimatum—of the commander, who told me he acted with great regret, as he had no doubt, from what he could learn, that the man was guilty of the charge against him. But our commander did not then know that the man had no right to American protection. Our minister in Constantinople was afterward highly incensed at hearing of some one of the foreign ambassadors asking the Turkish minister why he did not have that American "tub" sunk instead of submitting to the indignity. Let us hope that our gifted and amiable new minister will understand how to maintain fully all our rights without submitting even the despised Turk to such gross injustice.

I mention these instances, and I could mention many others, to show how our friendly relations with other countries may be disturbed by the character of our foreign representatives. Individual rights may and often do suffer for the same reason. In a recent case an innocent American lady even was imprisoned for two months, owing entirely to the inexperience and want of energy of a new consul. Everywhere abroad one hears anecdotes not at all to the credit of our representatives. Where they are guilty of nothing worse, they often violate every rule of propriety and etiquette, and not infrequently are debarred entry into good society because of the character of the associates they select. The only final means of remedying the evil will be to so change the laws as to make the service fixed and permanent, and tenure in it dependent solely on merit. There is no more room for the exercise of the spoils system in our foreign service than in the army and navy. Special training and qualifications are, to say the least, just as necessary in the former as in either branch of the military service, and change except for cause just as unwise and unjust. This is the universal experience of all other countries, except Turkey, and to some extent Greece. Would we take either of these as our model? The pretence that a permanent civil service is "unrepublican" or "undemocratic" is too ridiculous for serious consideration. No country has a more permanent civil service than the model little republic of Switzerland; and yet nowhere do we find a truer republican or a more sincerely democratic spirit in all classes. France has not found it necessary to degrade her civil service by the introduction of our "spoils" system because she has become a republic. Experience and capacity are just as necessary in the government of a republic as in a monarchy, and the "spoils" system just as demoralizing and degrading, and perhaps even more dangerous.

Some years ago we introduced into our consular service the grade of consular clerk, which was made permanent by law, with admission to it on examination and established fitness, and removal for cause only. The intention of this law was to gradually train a consular corps, and the idea was excellent. But it never proceeded beyond this first step. The result has been that a consular clerk who desires to remain in the service declines promotion, well knowing that from a higher position he may be removed at any time, for no other reason than thats ome one else desires his position. What is necessary is to extend this system to at least our entire consular service, and I would say also to the subordinate grades of our diplomatic, with promotion according to experience and established character and capacity, just as in our army and navy, and just as all other civilized countries have found best. General Grant was reported some time since, in an interview with the so-called Central and South American Industrial Commission, as saying that our consular officers now had no incentive or encouragement to do their duty. Let us adopt a common-sense service, such as will secure tenure with promotion according to merit, and the incentive to an intelligent and energetic performance of duty will be furnished. Our consular officers will then seek to recommend themselves by their good conduct and efficiency, and will not be dependent, as now, on the favor of politicians. Then, too, there will be no occasion to send out such ridiculous and costly junketing commissions as the one above referred to, for doing work that our consuls should and could do very much better. But as long as the present system remains unchanged, we are dependent entirely on the Government for the more or less careful selection of our representatives. Fortunately, with such a President as Mr. Cleveland, and such a Secretary of State as Mr. Bayard, both pledged to introduce reform methods into every branch of the service, we have every reason to hope that the character and efficiency of our foreign as well as of our home service will be greatly improved. But the only lasting way to make it good and efficient is to enact a law to govern it, embodying the principles of civil-service reform.

While, however, I consider that our foreign service is at present very inefficient, and a considerable proportion of our representatives very incapable and unfit for their positions, I should consider sweeping changes, especially in the consular branch of the service, as a grave error. We have some very capable and excellent representatives, well trained in every way for their work, and such should remain undisturbed, both for the good of the service and out of justice to the individual who has carefully prepared himself for the proper performance of his duties. Changes enough, no doubt, can be made for good cause among the inexperienced and incompetent who have been recently foisted upon the service by the "spoils" system or from favoritism. But they should be made slowly, and where unfitness is made manifest; and the places vacated should be filled solely with a view to character and capacity, and without regard to political views or political influences. Our foreign officials, just as much as our army and navy officers, should regard themselves as the representatives of the entire country and not of a party; and partisan services should not only not be expected of them, but should not be tolerated. So-called "voluntary" contributions to Jay Hubbell "corruption" funds should be regarded a sufficient cause for removal rather than non-contribution.

It is, nevertheless, not the *personnel* alone of our foreign service that needs reforming. The service itself also stands in urgent need of careful revision and adaptation and classification according to present wants and requirements. The existing arrangement and classification (if such may be said to exist at all) is antiquated, made when positions were of very different relative importance from what they now are, and when the cost of living abroad in many instances was hardly half what it now is. Congress has from time to time added its patchwork to this antiquated system on account of political favor toward certain incumbents, and created new positions that have grown into importance. The result is that our existing service is generally most inadequately and unequally remunerated, and classified without any regard to the relative importance of positions. I believe that as a general rule the salaries of our consular officers are not over half those of any of the other great Powers, and they are sometimes less than a third and even a fourth. In one position held by the writer his salary was less than a fourth that of the French and Russian consuls; and in another about a third that of the English and French and half that of the other great Powers. In one case it was but a little over one-third that of even the Swedish consul. Yet in every position he has held, the official fees of his consulate have been considerably more than those of any other foreign consulate, and the labor greater than any except perhaps the English. Now is it just or wise or creditable to our country that its representatives should be so miserably paid compared with those of other countries—and that, too, while our consular service is made a considerable source of revenue to our Government over and above its entire expenditures? Unless our representatives have personal means of their own, they are frequently unable to live at all respectably or even comfortably if they have families, not to speak of living somewhat as their colleagues of other countries live. Yet no people expect so much of their representatives abroad as Americans, or are so ready to complain if what they imagine duty is not performed.

How is the necessary revision and classification of our foreign service to be brought about? Clearly not by any one individual in the State Department. That has been tried more than once, with ignominious failure before Congress. Besides, the field is too broad and the work too great for any one person, however well informed, to perform properly. Still less can it be fitly done by the ordinary appropriation committee of Congress, which usually has entirely too much on its hands, besides not being appointed with a view to capacity for doing such work. I shall always remember an interview I had with the amiable Chairman of the Sub-Committee on the Consular and Diplomatic Appropriation Bill a few years ago, and my astonishment at his utter ignorance of our service, its regulations and duties. The only way, in my opinion, that the work can be done properly is by a joint commission of Senate and House, specially selected for the purpose, and aided by at least three persons selected by the Secretary of State, one from the State Department and one each from the diplomatic and consular branch of the service—all three selected with a special view to their acquaintance with the wants of the service. Such a commission should have time to examine thoroughly into the condition and wants of the service in every part of the world. It should send a circular, with carefully prepared questions covering the ground on which it desired information, to be answered by every one of our foreign representatives; and sub-committees might perhaps visit some of the more important positions. It might also procure important information from the leading foreign governments as to the organization and remuneration of their diplomatic and consular services. Such a Parliamentary commission thoroughly reorganized the English consular service a few years ago, and a similar one was appointed in Italy a year or two ago, at the instance of the Government, to reorganize the Italian foreign service. This commission divided itself into two sub-commissions, one presided over by Signor Cairoli, ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, and the other by Senator Cadorna, ex-Ambassador to London, both men thoroughly familiar with the requirements of the foreign service of their country.

The work done by such a commission would not only be more thoroughly discussed and considered than any scheme emanating from Congress itself, but would also have much more moral weight with Congress, and consequently be more likely to be adopted. When adopted, it should be fixed by law, and not left subject to

change at the whims, and freaks, and spites of every appropriation committee, as is now the case. As Mr. Schuyler has well pointed out in his lectures, and as he knows by experience, a minister or consul has no guarantee now of what his salary may be from year to year, or even that his position itself may not be abolished at the mere whim of some eccentric Congressman. Such instability and uncertainty is certainly most injurious and discreditable to our service, as well as cruelly unjust to individuals, and a remedy therefor ought to be found. B. O. D.

VARIED PHRASING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. John Morley, in his excellent critical analysis of George Eliot (*Macmillan's Magazine*), says that it "has been observed by a contemporary writer that men and women are more fairly judged, if judge them we must, by the way in which they bear the burden of an error than by the decision which laid that burden on their lives." Those readers who are familiar with Mr. Morley's volume on Rousseau will recognize that the "contemporary writer" is Mr. Morley himself, and, turning to the pages published in 1873, will find this passage (I. 111): "Men and women are often more fairly judged by the way in which they bear the burden of their own deeds [the fashion in which they carry themselves in their entanglements] than by the prime act which laid the burden on their lives [and made the entanglement fast knotted]. The deeper part of us shows in the manner of accepting consequences." In the later edition (1878, p. 77) the clauses I have put in brackets are (perhaps judiciously) omitted, and "their own deeds" is changed (with loss of emphasis, it seems to me) to "what they have done." And a note is added (dated 1877), saying, "The other day I came for the first time upon the following in the sayings of Madame de Lambert: "Ce ne sont pas toujours les fautes qui nous perdent; c'est la manière de se conduire après les avoir faites."

I think one cannot but be interested in the case of so thoughtful a writer as Mr. Morley by seeing the persistence in his mind of this judgment; and this very persistence strongly enforces the value of the truth he asserts—a truth somewhat unfamiliar to most minds. C.

VOODOOISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am not aware that a derivation has ever been offered for the term Voodoo or Voudou—the designation in our Southern States of the sorcery practised by negroes—and I am tempted to suggest the following. In the fifteenth century, in France, the abhorrence inculcated for heresy and the foul doings attributed to heretics led to the Waldenses or Vaudois being confounded with witches, so that the popular name given to sorcerers was Vaudois, and witchcraft was called Vaudoisie—just as, at an earlier period, the wickedness ascribed to the "Bulgarian" or Albigensian heretics enriched the vernaculars of England, France, and Italy with an infamous word. That this is the origin of the word Voodoo is rendered probable by its occurrence in the Creole dialect of the French colonies of Haiti and Louisiana, while in the English West Indies the magic rites of the negroes are known by the name of "Obeah," which I presume is imported from Africa. If my conjecture be correct, it illustrates the necessity of combining folk-lore with philology in the elucidation of comparative mythology. Littré, I observe, gives "Vaudoux" as the Creole name for sorcerers, and this presumably is the correct form of the word.

Respectfully, L.

Philadelphia, April 11, 1885.

THE CAVES OF DAHIRA ATROCITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Justice to the memory of an "upright man" requires the corrective statement that it was not Marshal Bugeaud who smothered the Ouled Rida in the caves of Dahira (see last week's *Nation*, p. 293), but Colonel Pélissier, afterward Duc de Malakoff. M. H.

[True; but Marshal Bugeaud expressly sanctioned it as in accordance with his orders. —Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have nearly ready 'The Russians at the Gates of Herat,' by Charles Marvin; 'Assyriology, its Use and Abuse,' by Prof. Francis Brown; and 'A Child's Garden of Verses,' by Robert Louis Stevenson.

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have in press for the Historical and Philosophical Society of Ohio 'The Diary of David Zeisberger,' the famous Moravian missionary to the Indians of Ohio from 1781 to 1798. This has been translated from the German by Eugene F. Bliss, and will fill two volumes 8vo. A limited edition will be printed from the types, and a few copies will be for sale by the publishers, the rest being absorbed by the Society.

'The Oldest Church Manual' is the title of yet another work based on 'The Teaching of the Apostles,' which Funk & Wagnalls announce. It will contain facsimiles of the Bryennios manuscript.

Two more volumes extend the Riverside Aldine series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), namely, Bret Harte's 'Luck of Roaring Camp, and Other Stories,' and Lowell's 'Fireside Travels.' Preservation in this pretty collection is the very apotheosis of the magazine article. The same firm has assigned Massachusetts, in its "American Commonwealths" series, to Mr. Brooks Adams, son of Charles Francis Adams.

Mr. John Durand's translation (Henry Holt & Co.) of the third volume of Taine's 'French Revolution' follows not long after the appearance of the original, which we have already reviewed at length.

The geological work of the brothers Henry D. and William B. Rogers in Pennsylvania and Virginia respectively was among the most important contributions to the earlier geological knowledge of this country. But while, through the liberality of State appropriations, that of the former appeared in three large quarto volumes, and has contributed largely to the development of the great mineral resources of Pennsylvania, Virginia, though scarcely less rich in natural wealth, was less generous in the means she afforded to the other brother for carrying on his investigations, and only preliminary annual reports for the years 1835 to 1841 were printed. Even these have long been out of print, and Professor Rogers, though often requested to republish them, with characteristic modesty declined to do so, on account of what he considered their immaturity and imperfection. The financial condition of Virginia, however, is scarcely more prosperous to-day than it was forty years ago, and there seems to be little prospect that the reports in question will be soon superseded. It was, therefore, not only a fitting act of devotion to his memory, but a service to science, on the part of his wife, to collect together his various papers bearing upon the subject in one volume (D. Appleton & Co.). Although so long a time has elapsed since Professor Rogers's observations were made, and geological knowledge has meanwhile made such rapid strides, it is a striking proof of his great acumen and ability that his work still forms the basis of all that is known of Virginian geology.

A work for which the learned world has waited during a whole generation cannot be reviewed in haste. We note the reception from B. Westermann & Co. of the fifth volume of Mommsen's 'Römische Geschichte.' This portion relates to the Provinces from Cæsar to Diocletian, and the author's excuse for bringing it out before the fourth, or any succeeding volume, is, that the story of the Roman provinces under the Empire is nowhere else told connectedly. Dr. H. Kiepert has provided ten maps in illustration of the text, which fills thirteen chapters.

We have received two additional volumes of "Harper's New Classical Series," published under the general supervision of Professor Drisler, of Columbia College. One of these volumes contains books vi. and vii. of Herodotus, edited by Professor A. C. Merriam, of the same college, the other the Olympian and Pythian Odes of Pindar, edited by Prof. B. L. Gildersleeve, of Johns Hopkins University. All that Professor Merriam has aimed at is to make a useful text-book, and in this he seems to have succeeded. The text is that of the edition of Stein in Haupt and Sauppe's series. The notes are also based upon Stein's, but embody in a very condensed form the results of the labors of the best modern editors. The introduction contains a life of Herodotus, an epitome of all the books of his history, and a summary of the peculiarities of his dialect. The references in the notes to the grammars of Hadley, Goodwin, and Curtius are more than ordinarily full, as are also the cross-references to parallel passages in the work itself. Professor Gildersleeve's work is in many respects remarkable—a text-book and much more. We shall embrace the earliest opportunity that the pressure on our time and space affords, to give it further consideration.

The late Professor John Norton Pomeroy's able articles on the "Civil Code" in California have just been published as a handy weapon against the Field Code in New York by the Bar Association of this city. They were originally contributed to the *West Coast Reporter*.

Mr. Parker Pillsbury, Concord, N. H., continues his reprints of famous anti-slavery tracts by reproducing J. G. Birney's 'The American Churches the Bulwarks of American Slavery,' from the third American edition. In a brief introduction, Mr. Pillsbury relates Mr. Birney's conversion from slaveholding to abolitionism.

An effort which we hope may succeed is making to put the *Overland Monthly* on a stable financial footing. Amid so much that is transient in California, this periodical richly deserves to be maintained.

Portraits of William Phillips and of his nephew Samuel Phillips, both Lieutenant-Governors of Massachusetts, and the latter the founder of Phillips Andover Academy, are given in the April issue of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. Mr. B. F. De Costa discusses with great learning the place of Sandy Hook in the old cartography. Mr. H. F. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" have this month largely to do with emigrants to Virginia, but also introduce important information about the Chauncys, celebrated in the annals of Harvard College, the Ushers, Whittinghams, Byfields, etc., etc.

A 'Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island,' comprising three generations of settlers who came before 1690, will be undertaken by J. O. Austin, P. O. box 81, Providence, R. I., if he receives sufficient support.

Science for April 10 gives a facsimile of a map drawn by General Gordon, to show his route in 1874 from Suakim to Berber and Khartum. Mr.

H. G. Prout, who has several similar autographs in his possession, vindicates General Gordon against the imputation of owing his success to his fanaticism, and not to his soldierly training and qualities.

The steadily growing edition of the *Century* has had the happy effect of retarding its date of publication beyond that of the other magazines, until it is fairly forced for its forthcoming May number to appear on the first day of May. The date upon the cover and that of actual appearance being thus made identical, the publishers announce that this harmony will be observed hereafter, the June number being issued on June 1, etc. The public will certainly approve this return to common sense, whether the *Century's* example be followed by the other magazines or not.

In the April number of *Longman's Magazine* Mr. Edward A. Freeman begins a series of papers "On Some Modern Abuses of Language," first considering the original and exact meaning of *decimate*, *triumph*, *ovation*, *Gothic*, *vandal*, *ritualist*, and *prolétariat*. In the same number there is an interesting essay on "Irish Popular Poetry" by Mr. James O'Donoghue, with abundant quotations, among which is included "Paddies Evermore," by the present Mr. Justice O'Hagan. Apropos of this the essayist tells us "that, within the last few years, a stipendiary magistrate sent a ballad-singer to gaol for singing a song which his worship had written in the dreamy days of his hot and inexperienced youth."

The *Portfolio* for April has a very interesting engraving of Constable's "Salisbury Cathedral" by Brandard, conveying as well, perhaps, as line-engraving could, the glitter and rainy-weather sparkle of the master, and showing, too, the careless and flimsy way in which he drew his details. It is a fine and impressive ensemble, and the composition, taken as a suggestion of accidental arrangement, is most happy dissembling of the kind of art whose perfection is in the concealing art. But how any one who knows what a tree is, could say of Constable's tree-drawing what Mr. Monkhouse does, is incomprehensible: "We doubt if any trees were ever drawn at once so carefully and so elegantly, and with such true variation of form and color." No *careful* student of nature could have allowed such bough drawing as Constable did to enter his portfolio. The results on canvas are large and poetic; and, in spite of a certain vulgarity of execution, indicating a coarseness of perception and feeling of form, they have the charm of genuineness and a grip on the secrets of nature. This is enough, without claiming for him refinements and perfections he would probably have considered finical if they had been presented to him, and have laughed at. The literary attraction of the number is, as last month, in the study of Watkiss Lloyd on the Drama of the Greeks in relation to the Arts.

Miss Amelia B. Edwards and Professor Sayce—the former in a communication to the *Academy*, and the latter in a correspondence from Siout to the same journal—both enthusiastically report the advance made by Professor Maspero in his excavations at Luxor. Sayce speaks of "wonders" accomplished. "The ancient temple of Luxor is slowly rising again to the light of day, as at the touch of a magician's wand, . . . a worthy rival of the finest temples that still exist in Egypt." The forest of columns of the great hall of Amenhotep III. is visible for two-thirds of their height, a magnificent landmark to travellers on the Nile. A small portico, dating from Rameses II., and several colossi, some prostrate and some yet erect, have also been brought to light; and some remains of a great quay, inscribed with the names and titles of Amenhotep, have been discovered. Professor Sayce also mentions the disinterment by Maspero at Thebes of the sarcophagus of Nitocris, the Queen of Psammetichus II. It is curious to notice that Miss Edwards consistently calls the famous French Egyptologist Maspéro, and Sayce alternately Maspero and Maspéro, while his real name, as shown by the quotations from his own writings in notes to his 'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples de l'Orient,' is unaccented, as it also is in the notice of him in Vapereau's 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains.'

There has recently been invented a process, partly mechanical, partly chemical, by which plane-surface maps are reproduced "with the curves and altitudes in relief so represented as to correspond absolutely with the elevations established by accurate observations." These maps cost no more than ordinary flat maps, are drawn on moderately thin paper, can be rolled, and are not injured by water. The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* says "that the relief is produced on them in such a manner that at a single glance one can take in the whole topography of a district, its defiles and heights, its watercourses, and all the lesser obstacles of the country in which military operations have to be carried on." The owner of the patent is M. de Mendonça, a Portuguese nobleman.

In January last a considerable majority of the Trustees of the British Museum (very few being present, it should be said) voted in favor of opening the Natural History Museum at South Kensington on Sunday afternoons. A resolution "to support" this decision was debated in the House of Lords on March 20th, and received a tie vote, 64 to 64. But "the numbers being equal, it was (according to ancient rule) resolved in the negative." Lord Cairns, the Duke of Argyll, and the Archbishop of Canterbury were the principal opponents of the measure, restating the old arguments. Lord Granville, on the other hand, spoke and voted in favor of it, saying, however, "that the Government had not thought it right to take any action in regard to a social question the merits of which very much depended on the public feeling and the public opinion which existed." The Prince of Wales and the Duke of Edinburgh, who favor the measure, were paired with two Bishops. None of the Bishops voted for the resolution, though many, including the Bishop of Peterborough, refrained from voting. The *Spectator* intimates that a similar measure will be introduced into and passed by the House of Commons.

The work of printing the catalogue of the British Museum is being diligently prosecuted by the officers of that institution. This collection of books now comprises 1,350,000 printed books and 50,000 manuscripts. There have been hitherto three issues of a catalogue of the Museum—in 1787, 1813, and 1819 respectively. The present catalogue, begun in 1875, at the close of last year comprised 64 volumes, containing 330,000 titles. Separate lists on special subjects have been constructed, such as America, Bacon, Bunyan, Byron, Æschylus, Æsopus, and Virgil. The article Academies, now in press, will fill six volumes. The Bible, which takes up twenty-one volumes of the manuscript catalogue, will require three or four in the printed form. The printed catalogues are sold by annual subscription.

Mr. Julian Hawthorne's novelette, 'Noble Blood,' has recently been published in London by Chatto & Windus as 'Miss Cadogna.' His 'Fortune's Fool' has just appeared in the Tauchnitz collection.

Mr. Charles Hutt is about to issue in London Mr. H. C. Bunner's volume of poems called 'Airs from Arcady.' Mr. Hutt takes the American book printed and bound—a tribute to the taste of the American publishers. It may be noted that the cover of this volume of poems by the editor of *Puck* was designed by the editor of *Life*, Mr. J. A. Mitchell.

Under the changed title of 'Monsieur at Home,' Messrs. Field & Tuer, the English publishers of M. "Max O'Rell's" overpraised books, issue an English edition of Mr. Albert Rhodes's little book on the 'French at Home,' published here by Dodd, Mead & Co., and made up of essays contributed chiefly to the *Galaxy*.

M. "Max O'Rell," it is now an open secret, is not an Englishman in disguise, and his name is not MacSorrel, as the preternaturally wise have surmised. He is M. Paul Blouët, French master at Westminster School, and editor of the Clarendon Press volumes on 'French Oratory.'

The Paris courts have just given the public the pleasure of seeing the engineer hoist with his own petard. Éd. Delpit announced a romance entitled 'Le Supplice d'une mère,' whereupon Edm. Lepelletier applied for whatever corresponds to an injunction in French law, on the ground that he published a novel last year with that title. The talk about this woke up Gondry du Jardinet, who three years ago had hit upon the same name, and now sues both Delpit and Lepelletier. Lepelletier is the worst off, because his book has been sold and he is responsible for "dommages-intérêts," while Delpit has slipped out of the case by simply changing his title before publication to 'Les Souffrances d'une mère.'

In December of last year the Science Building of the University of Wisconsin was totally destroyed by fire, with all its contents. The building had originally cost $80,000, and the collections and apparatus could hardly be exactly valued. The whole loss to the University was perhaps $120,000, on which there was $41,000 insurance. We lately mentioned the disposition of the State Senate, for political revenge, to cut down the appropriation to repair this loss which had been voted by the Assembly. We are glad to say that better counsels prevailed, and that provision has been made for the rebuilding of Science Hall ($150,000); for a new chemical laboratory ($20,000); for heating apparatus ($20,000); and for cabinets, etc. ($41,000)—in all, $231,000. Building will be commenced at once.

Wisconsin is not such a bad place to live in: the same Legislature has just declared that it will not be necessary to levy any State tax for the year 1885 nor for 1886. The receipts, with the present balance in the treasury, will meet all expenses and leave a handsome surplus besides.

The Providence Art Club has just closed an exhibition in which were shown more than one hundred miniatures procured from Rhode Island families. The first on the list was one of Washington presented to Colonel Lear, his private secretary.

A series of authors' readings, says the *Critic*, will be given at the Madison Square Theatre on the afternoons of April 28, 29, and 30, in aid of the international copyright movement.

—The Catalogue of the University of Pennsylvania for 1884-85, which has just appeared, shows an increase in the faculties of fifteen professors and instructors, making a total of 143 engaged in active work and 4 emeritus-professors. Two new departments have been added, viz.: of Physical Culture and of Biology. Why the former should be called a department is not quite clear, since its faculty embraces only one man, and it has no students peculiar to it. Its work is nothing more than that done elsewhere in the regular college gymnasia. The School of Biology may better lay claim to the title of department. It includes eight active members in its faculty under the direction of Doctor Leidy, and seems likely to become a centre of instruction and investigation for the line of work peculiar to it. Its new laboratory building is fully equipped

with everything necessary to the most advanced work in original investigation. The Veterinary School, though established two years ago, did not really begin work until last autumn, when it opened with thirty-three students in its entering class. Its course is three years in length, and is carefully graded after the model of the best European schools. The Medical and Dental Schools have held their own. The fourth year of the Medical Course does not seem to correspond to any great public want, since there are only three students enrolled in it. In the College Department, which includes the College of Liberal Arts, the Scientific School, and the Wharton School of Political Science, some very significant changes have taken place. A new course, called the Philosophical Course—comically enough, too, since there is almost no philosophy in it—has been opened to the students. It drops Greek, diminishes the amount of Latin in the Classical Course, and adds strong courses in French and German and Natural Science. All the courses are made interchangeably elective at the close of the Sophomore year. This is a radical, perhaps one might better say revolutionary, step. It means simply that this rather conservative institution has finally joined the ranks of the more progressive colleges of the country, and adds another to the rapidly-growing list of elective-course institutions. The student now has an opportunity to choose in his Junior and Senior years from a large number of studies, including, among others, Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, French, German, English, comparative philology, mathematics, history, political science, natural science, engineering, etc. The University now has more than 1,000 students, coming from every State in the Union and from twenty-one foreign States; Germany, France, Great Britain, Sweden, China, and Japan being represented by from one to ten students each. Most of the foreign students are in the Dental and Medical Schools.

—It is a long-established result of pure theory that if the axis of figure and the axis of rotation of the earth do not coincide, a periodic change in the latitudes of stations on the earth's surface will result. At any given station all the changes would take place within a period of about ten months; and these changes would perpetually repeat themselves. The first observations of high accuracy which were made with a view to test this were those of Dr. C. A. F. Peters, at Pulkowa in 1843. These were repeated by Professor Gyldén in 1866 and by Doctor Nyrén in 1872. Their results show that the *periodic* change of latitude, if, indeed, there is any, must be extremely small. In the course of their investigations on this point the absolute values of the latitude of Pulkowa were deduced as follows:

Peters, 1843;	Latitude is	59° 46′	18″.73
Gyldén, 1866;	" "	" "	18″.65
Nyrén, 1872;	" "	" "	18″.50

That is, a diminution of the latitude of 0″.08 apparently occurred from 1843 to 1866, and one of 0″.15 from 1866 to 1872. 0″.01 is about one English foot, and the diminutions were therefore about eight and fifteen feet respectively. Although these are extremely small quantities to be determined in this way, the precise measures on which they depend lent some basis to a belief that there might be a *secular* change of latitude at a given place. The latitude itself is nothing but the angle between a plumb-line at the station and another line drawn from the station to the highest point of the equator. Secular changes of latitude might be due to geological changes in the earth itself, such as might occur by the shifting of large masses in the interior of the earth, etc., thus changing the direction of the plumb-line. Since M. Nyrén's investigations various astronomers have considered the changes at other stations besides Pulkowa. The whole subject has been treated by Mr. Fergola, of Italy, who has collected old and modern determinations of the latitude at various observatories. It is noteworthy that at observatories in the northern hemisphere, as Washington, Paris, Rome, Milan, Naples, Koenigsberg, the modern latitudes appear to be consistently all smaller than the older ones. For example, at Washington in 1845 a very careful determination gave 38° 53′ 39″.25; in 1863 Professor Newcomb found 38° 53′ 38″.78. The differences are greater than should be expected from the precision of the observations. Under these circumstances, the International Geodetic Conference of 1883 proposed a scheme of simultaneous observations of the same stars at fixed observatories situated near the same parallel of latitude. This limitation does away with some of the chief difficulties in the nature of unknown refractions, etc. It is understood that the observatories of Lisbon and Washington are now engaged in a series of this sort. The result will be to determine the difference of latitude of the two points, as it is now. A repetition of the measures should show if there has been any change in this difference, within the limits of accuracy of the method. To determine any change as small as 8 or 10 feet the observations would have to be amazingly precise, and at any rate we shall have to wait many years for a satisfactory result.

—In the meantime, a most interesting contribution to this question has been made at our very doors—at the Engineer School of Application at Willet's Point, New York Harbor, under General Abbot, U. S. A. General Abbot is in charge of the professional studies of young Engineer officers, and has established a school of Practical Astronomy of the best kind. Among other things, his young officers determine the latitude of his station yearly. Although the observers are not perfectly skilled, the great number of observations taken must, in great measure, compensate for this. General Abbot finds for the latitude:

Before 1880		40° 47′	21″.70
During 1880		"	21″.59—326 observations.
"	1881	"	21″.47—591 "
"	1882	"	21″.37—235 "
"	1883	"	21″.15—497 "
"	1884	"	20″.75—523 "

That is, he finds a diminution of 95 feet from first to last, and of nearly 20 feet per year in the mean. It is certainly *possible* that the differences may be due to accumulated error; but it is highly unlikely. It would seem that this regular annual determination of the latitude has led to striking results. Certainly, it becomes the duty of fixed observatories to test this question; and if the U. S. Coast Survey could keep one of its skilled observers at work determining the latitude of one of its well-established stations for a few years, we should have a most interesting contribution to the subject. The time would not be lost.

—A new game has been evolved in Berlin by an ingenious adaptation to circumstances. The rooms under the arches of the Berlin City Railway have been used for a variety of purposes—restaurants, storehouses, shops, and hygienic establishments. Some one wanted to have a nine-pin alley there, but unfortunately the alleys ought to be seventy-five feet long, and the arches only give a length of thirty-five or forty. Hereupon it occurred to the engineer Kiebitz to let the alley run up one side of a room and down the other, in the form of a letter U. If the course had been made flat, as in the ordinary alley, it would have been very difficult, if not impossible, to direct the ball so as to hit any particular pin. This would have made the game one of chance alone, and deprived it of all interest. But this difficulty was overcome very ingeniously. The outer side of the course is raised considerably all round the curve, the highest rise being at the middle of the U, from which the boards sink gradually toward both ends to a level. The appearance is that of a curved-bottom trough, bent into horseshoe shape in such a way that at its middle one side is brought up into the air and forms an angle there of perhaps forty degrees with the floor. The result is, that according as the ball is sent with more or less force, it rises more or less on this hill as it whirls round the curve, and comes to the other end on one side or the other or in the middle, as may be desired. The nicest gradations of play are possible. It is by no means easy to catch the knack, but with sufficient practice the player can make his ten-strokes or pick off single balls as in the usual game. There is one slight advantage, that the balls come in within a few feet of the place whence they are despatched, so that no channel for return balls is needed. The horseshoe alley should be introduced into this country. Our practised players, to whom all the varieties of "twisters" are familiar, would find a new interest in the game.

—The advocates for the disposal of sewage by irrigation have by no means given up their case. Mr. J. Bailey Denton has just issued a second edition of his 'Ten Years' Experience of Intermittent Downward Filtration,' in which he relates really fourteen years' experience. The old filtration schemes overworked their land. The natural filter supplied by porous soil becomes clogged like any other. But if the sewage is cut off for a time, oxygen from the air quickly restores to the soil its purifying qualities. Doctor Frankland first suggested in England this method of cleansing the filter. Mr. Denton's plan is to divide the space at command into four equal plots, using each for six hours at a time and then giving it eighteen hours' rest. He finds that an area of suitable land underdrained from five to seven feet will suffice for the sewage of 2,000 people. At this rate London would require some six square miles. This, however, is supposing that all floating ingredients and what may be called trade sewage be extracted from the liquid by chemical precipitation or mechanical deposition. Undoubtedly the six square miles could be found in the neighborhood of London; but the space required is so enormous, and the result of irrigation on so large a scale is, after all, so disputable, that the fishes of the Thames and the North Sea need not fear the loss of their phosphates at present. For places where suitable land is not to be had, a system of purification by direct atmospheric oxygenation has been patented by Messrs. Shone, Donaldson, and Ault. The sewage is first clarified by settlement and upward filtration through coke or gravel, and this is oxidated by pressing it through perforated plates, which break it up into fine spray that falls in a cascade into a receptacle and then runs off through a conduit to the next plate, the passage being long enough to allow the impurities in the sewage to combine with the oxygen absorbed in the previous cascade.

—M. de la Blanchère, in 'Un épisode d'histoire coloniale,' has related the adventurous career of Le Vacher de la Case in Madagascar. It is like so much of the history of French colonization. There is plenty of daring, a temporary brilliant success, and no permanent result whatever. He landed in the island, where the French had a fort and some 200 soldiers, in 1656, and soon became the guest, the friend, and finally the son-in-law of the King of Amboula, to whose authority he succeeded. Naturally he used his position to increase the power of his countrymen in the island; and although his efforts were met, perhaps equally naturally, by jealousy and secret enmity by the authorities of Fort Dauphin, still

he succeeded in carrying out a series of remarkable expeditions. The accounts are no doubt true: they can be paralleled in the history of India; but they read more like the memoirs of the Baron von Münchhausen than like serious history. With ten, twenty, or fifty men expeditions were made through an island peopled by 3,000,000. A dozen men conquered a province. Thirteen men held their ground all day against 6,000 Malagasys, and forced them to retreat. The 300 at Thermopylæ were outdone. At another time La Case challenged the leader of a hostile army to single combat, and, with no other arms than a shield and sagai, met him between the two armies and killed him. But as alone he did it, his death in 1673 left the French powerless. They were soon driven out of the island, after a considerable portion had been massacred.

—Twenty-four letters of Heine to J. H. Detmold are printed for the first time in the March *Rundschau*. Detmold was for thirty years one of Heine's most devoted friends, and as he is but briefly alluded to in Strodtmann's biography, this batch of letters is all the more interesting, although they do not contain anything to modify Heine's literary portrait as previously known to the world. His felicitous diction, as well as his polemic habits and his Hellenism, are revealed in every line, and occasionally a short poem in prose creeps in, as in a letter dated at Ramsgate, in which he describes himself as sitting on a high balcony, and, while writing, "looking down on the beautiful wide ocean, whose waves climb up the rock and regale my heart with their musical roar." His habit of mocking at the things most dear to his heart crops out in a letter dated at Granville: "The theatre I am no longer obliged to visit, but in place of it I have to walk about in the spring weather. Green trees produce ennui quite as much as vaudevilles. Next to art, there is nothing more dreadful than nature." In literary warfare Heine believed that it was allowable to "meet perfidy with perfidy"; and in these letters he frequently instructs Detmold in regard to a subtle and effective method of attacking, in a leading newspaper, some one of his numerous enemies. Imploring Detmold's assistance in insuring the favorable reception of a new book, he betrays the confidence in his own genius which, according to Schopenhauer, is characteristic of all great minds: "Help me for the present," he writes to Detmold; "for the future of the book I myself have provided." He frequently alludes to his physical sufferings. In July, 1837, he writes that his left hand becomes daily more and more emaciated, and is visibly dying out; and in the September following he barely escaped losing his eyesight.

—Several of the letters are concerned with the great blow which finally broke down Heine's health, namely, the news that his wealthy uncle, Solomon, had left him but a slight sum in his testament, and made no mention of the annual pension which he had for years been paying Heine, who had reason to believe it would be enlarged and continued after his relative's death. His personal enemies had a hand in this matter, and the necessity he felt of coming to terms with them, if he wished his pension to be maintained by his uncle's heir, forced from him this cry of despair, addressed to Detmold: "I am willing to make any desired declaration, even to apologize, in order to soothe offended vanity; I have no objection to committing myself to paper, no objection to a printed pillory; a man who has much fame can afford to yield a slight *point d'honneur*. But my pension I must have, in full and irrevocable, and without any conditions. In accordance with this confession I want you to act. *Contemnere mundum, contemnere se ipsum, contemnere, se contemni*, was taugh by the old monks, and I arrive at this maxim through disgust, weariness of life, contempt of mankind and the press, through sickness, through Mathilde. It is a dreary marasmus, a weariness of feeling and thought, a yawning—the pen drops from my hand." Perhaps the most interesting feature of these letters is the details they contain concerning a literary project which Heine wished to carry out with Detmold, but which unfortunately came to naught. It was to make a collection of extracts from German authors since Goethe's birth, both prose and poetry, and culled not only from books but from periodicals as well. This anthology was to be superior to ordinary compilations, in so far as the selections were all to be made in such a way as to promote the modern Hellenic spirit with which Heine's name is identified, and through which he exercised so great an influence on the generation that followed him. To use his own words: "My opinion is, that the poetic selections should occupy only about one-eighth of the work, and should be poems of recent authors, pervaded by the joyous Hellenic spirit, with only a few that are tinged with Christian asceticism; in a word, promotive of cosmopolitan, liberal, Hellenic tendencies. The prose selections should be made in the same spirit."

GEORGE ELIOT.—II.

George Eliot's Life, as related in her Letters and Journals, arranged and edited by her husband, J. W. Cross. In three vols. Harper & Bros. 1885.

George Eliot is out and out the greatest among England's didactic novelists. Her biography, with all its defects, has one element of supreme interest: it tells us, indeed, less of George Eliot herself than may be gathered from her books, but it explains the nature and limits of her genius and the sources of her influence. This is what gives to the book such a charm, in the eyes of a critic like Lord Acton, as to lead him to the paradoxical opinion that Mr. Cross's lifeless portrait is the most interesting of George Eliot's works.

The 'Life' makes clear a point which George Eliot's writings, especially her earlier novels, left in doubt. The primary and predominant characteristic of her genius was the desire to learn and to teach the truth. Her impulse to portray character and to describe striking scenes —her imagination, in short, as a novelist—was subordinate to her moral enthusiasm. One might naturally have thought that the contrary was the case. With the didactic novelists who come nearest to George Eliot in power, and certainly with Richardson—the only writer of the class who can lay any claim to be her superior—the desire to spread the author's convictions was, whether the writer was aware of it or not, subordinate to the passion for literary portraiture. Richardson, we may suppose, believed that his object in telling the story of Pamela was to exhibit virtue triumphing over temptation, and that he made the world weep over the fate of Clarissa in order to make us sympathize with virtue in misfortune. But whatever Richardson said or thought, he told his tales because he loved telling them; and the very reason why he has entranced the world with the beauty of Clarissa and with the cleverness of Lovelace, almost the only villain (unless that unfeminine term be applied to Becky Sharp) whose wit is really made visible, is that Richardson delighted in painting Clarissa and Lovelace. It is very strange that it should not have been so with the author of 'Adam Bede,' of 'The Mill on the Floss,' or of 'Silas Marner.' But every circumstance of George Eliot's life proves that the didactic impulse was her ruling passion. Her early Evangelicalism, her admiration for Hannah More and Wilberforce, her enthusiasm for Young (the strength of which may be measured by the force of her exaggerated reaction of feeling against him), her elaborate condemnation of novel reading, and a hundred other notes of her tone in youth, stand at first sight in grotesque opposition to her attitude of feeling and belief from the day when she came under the influence of the Brays.

But life is not really made up of striking antitheses. In every remarkable nature the most noteworthy thing is the identity of character under changes of opinion. Assuredly this was so with George Eliot. Her views change, her nature remains throughout the same. The girl of nineteen who writes, "I have just begun the Life of Wilberforce. . . . There is a similarity, if I may compare myself with such a man, between his temptations, or rather *besetments*, and my own that makes his experience very interesting to me. Oh that I might be made as useful in my lowly and obscure station as he was in the exalted one assigned to him," is quite of a piece with the young woman who, four years later, writes: "To *fear* the examination of any proposition appears to me an intellectual and a moral palsy which will ever hinder the firm grasping of any substance whatever. For my part, I wish to be among the ranks of that glorious crusade which is seeking to set Truth's Holy Sepulchre free from an usurped domination. We then shall see her resurrection. . . . I hardly know whether I am ranting after the manner of one of the Primitive Methodist prophetesses with a cart for her rostrum, I am writing so fast. Good-bye, and blessings on you, as they will infallibly be on the children of peace and virtue." Though George Eliot never ranted, there was in her from first to last something of the Methodist prophetess. Every work she wrote had in her own eyes a moral design, and her estimate of her own productions depended rather on their supposed moral influence than on their artistic power. She looked on the 'Spanish Gipsy' and on 'Daniel Deronda' with a favor which cannot fairly be accounted for by a mother's notorious partiality for her least well-favored offspring. The charm lies in the supposed success of the poem and the novel in setting forth their author's convictions. "I am vexed," she writes in 1867, "by the non-success of the serial edition. It is not, Heaven knows, that I read my own books, or am puffed up about them; but I have been of late quite astonished by the strengthening testimonies that have happened to come to me, of people who care about every one of my books, and continue to read them, *especially young men, who are just the class I care most to influence*." The words we have underlined are the language of a preacher writing about the blessed influence of his sermons. No phrase like them will be found in the whole of Scott's correspondence; it would be a great surprise to find anything of a like tone in Thackeray's references to his own novels; and, to take a fairer example, we doubt whether the phrase we have cited could be paralleled from any letter of Miss Brontë. There is a description given, either in George Eliot's Life, or in one of the interesting notices which her biography has evoked, of a conversation held between her and Mr. Frederick Myers, on a summer's evening, in the gardens of Trinity College. The one impression conveyed in striking language by the auditor who reports the scene, is the fervor with which George Eliot dwelt on the sacredness of duty, and of its power when the hopes or fancies of religious belief had been discarded. Here, late in George Eliot's life, we have repeated the tones, though not the opinions, of the evangelical enthusiast of nineteen.

The extent to which the true set, so to speak

of George Eliot's nature lay rather toward the teaching of what seemed to her the truth than toward artistic creation, is exhibited in two traits of character which, at first sight, cause some perplexity to the readers of her life. The first of these traits is her moral and intellectual decisiveness. Modern biographies in abundance accustom us to the transition from orthodoxy to scepticism. But such a passage is, with earnest natures, as was George Eliot's, generally gradual; it is the work of many years or of a lifetime. In the case of George Eliot the change is astoundingly rapid. In 1839 she is the admirer of Hannah More and Wilberforce, who sends a feeble religious poem to the *Christian Observer*. In 1841 Hennell's 'Enquiry' converts her at once to an advanced Freethinker; in 1844 she is the translator of Strauss. Contrast the decisive rapidity of this change of faith with the slow and wavering alteration of view portrayed in Clough's biography, in Newman's 'Phases of Faith,' or in Miss Martineau's autobiographical memoir. The explanation is, that George Eliot had the capacity common to religious teachers for sudden and thorough conversion from one form to another of equally earnest, equally fervent, and equally dogmatic belief. This quality, whether it be a sign of strength or a sign of weakness, marks the missionary nature. Absolute conviction is the source of the wish and the cause of the power to convert others.

The second and more intellectual trait is George Eliot's natural turn, and, oddly enough, her comparative incapacity, for the labors of criticism. As a critic she produced her first serious work. Her last publication contains the reflections of Theophrastus Such. Yet, to judge by the specimens which the public have in their hands, her critical powers never reached a high level. Matthew Arnold or Swinburne could no more have sunk to the heavy humor and angry irony of George Eliot's criticism on Young than (as we may, without disrespect to either of these writers, assume) they could have written 'The Mill on the Floss' or 'Silas Marner.' We can now see why she first adopted and at last relapsed into a sort of literary labor not suited to her genius. She addressed the world as critic or essayist because this was the most obvious mode of teaching the truths which were in her, and because, strangely unlike most of the great novelists, she was not inspired with the passion for the telling of tales. She was thirty-seven before she attempted fiction; it was the sagacity of Lewes, not her own impulse, to which we owe the stories on which rests George Eliot's fame. To see all that this means, contrast George Eliot with Miss Brontë. The child born in a desolate parsonage, who had scarcely a character or event to study beyond the circle of her own family, shows, even before she came to womanhood, the passion and gift for impressive description. George Eliot's letters do not contain a graphic touch, and she had seen men and life for years before (under the impulse of another mind) she perceived the precious talent of which she was the possessor.

Appreciate George Eliot's nature, and you can understand in part the limits of her genius. Her imagination depended, so to speak, for producing its effects, on accumulation of knowledge and on meditation upon character. She thought out the conduct of her heroes and heroines much, apparently, as one might think out an intellectual problem. The capacity to do this with truth, and to picture forth the result of her thoughts with vividness, was her special and most extraordinary gift. Hence (as has been well remarked) the humor in her characters seems rather to arise from George Eliot's insight than from humor in herself. No doubt a good deal must be allowed for the obvious though unconscious tendency of Mr. Cross to suppress the lighter aspects of his wife's life and conversation; much allowance also must be made for the peculiarities of her position. One of her letters declares—no doubt with perfect truth—that she felt no repentance for her union with Lewes, but also implies the constant presence of a desire to redeem by great services to moral truth any evils which might result from the example of her life. The sentiment is natural and pathetic; but the morbid sense of moral responsibility is not favorable to the free play of fancy. Yet when all this is allowed for, the marked absence from George Eliot's letters of the humor which lights up even the most solemn of her novels, certainly suggests that she drew humorous characters because humor (in the instance, say, of Mrs. Poyser) corresponded with George Eliot's conception of the fitness of things, rather than because she had constantly before her, like Fielding, or Lamb, or Dickens, or Thackeray, the humorous or satirical aspects of existence. Pathos, tenderness, and a tendency to moral analysis seem to have been portions of her own mind; and from the perfection of the analysis arose the humorousness of the portrait which was its result. The author who in her own lifetime approved the publication of the 'Wise, Witty, and Tender Sayings of George Eliot,' must either have been deficient in that finest kind of irony which sheds light on the absurdities of a person's own position, or else (what is more probable) have been influenced by a sentiment which, under the strangest change of form, was at bottom the evangelical passion for "saving souls."

That George Eliot did, in a manner, save the souls of many who listened to her words, can hardly be doubted by any one who has ever felt the force of her influence. She brought home to thousands the moral aspect of scientific law, she kindled or intensified the passion for sympathy. On some other occasion we may weigh the worth of her moral teaching. We now only note its power. She, like all preachers, hardly appreciated the true source of her weight. Whitefield would have been surprised and displeased had any one told him that one-half of the effect produced by his sermons sprang from his talent as an actor; that he and Garrick achieved different results by similar means. In like manner, George Eliot would have been astonished and aggrieved had she been told that all her scientific metaphors and all her "wise, witty, and tender sayings," beautiful and impressive as many of them are, are not the parts of her writings which have told upon mankind. Men are more easily taught by pictures than by dogmas. The catastrophe which followed the indulgence of Arthur Donnithorne's passion; the pathos of the contrast between the infinity of Maggie's longings and the miserable limitation of outward surroundings; the terrible and subtle retribution which fell upon Lydgate, simply because, like most of us, he could not consistently live up to the highest dictates of his heart and intellect—have taught thousands who have already forgotten the too obtrusive reflections which oppress the reader of the 'Spanish Gipsy' or of 'Daniel Deronda.' The truth appears to be, that George Eliot's didactic efforts, and their immense influence, flowed from her bringing to the teaching of ethical notions which were strictly in harmony with the best thought of her day, a trained intellect of a force not often possessed by man or woman, and a power of literary painting which has hardly ever before fallen to the lot of any one whose main object was the preaching of moral doctrine. This is her strength, it is also her weakness. The didactic novelist does not belong to quite the highest class among writers of imagination. Sermons, however fine, are from the nature of things doomed to ultimate oblivion. The reason is not that sermons are dull or poor, but that didactic oratory, like every other form of oratory, obtains its success by exact adaptation to the wants of the generation who hear it. The question which can be solved only some century hence is, whether the vividness of George Eliot's pictures will keep alive the interest in her novels. Her "wise, witty, and tender sayings" are, with all their merits, full of menace to her lasting reputation.

AMONGST THE SHANS.

Amongst the Shans. By Archibald Ross Colquhoun. Scribner & Welford.

Were Cæsar now writing, as of old, he would declare that all Asia has been divided into three parts—Russian, British, and Chinese. The Gauls wish to add a fourth part for themselves, with as yet indifferent success. They seem bent upon the conquest of the peninsula below China, which ancient and modern writers call "The Golden." Meanwhile British capital is moving in the more healthy interior, and the commercial conquest of the peninsula seems reasonably probable. What a mechanic would call a "purchase" has already been secured in British Burmah, in which a thousand miles of railway in operation await connection with Canton. On the contrary, supposing the French to conquer Annam, they are beyond the Malay Peninsula, with its tremendous détour for ships from Europe, while high mountains wall them off from the rich interior. Were the proposed railroad from Canton to Rangoon built, British vessels laden for the East, once through the Suez Canal, would save, on an average, as compared with the French vessels, twenty degrees of latitude and the same of longitude. Perhaps some De Lesseps may cut through the Isthmus of Kraw and shorten sailing distance from Marseilles; yet it is evident the French have knocked at the wrong door, while the British already own the gateway and terminal facilities provided by nature to the Golden Peninsula, with its nearly level roadway to China.

The herald and pioneer of this promising enterprise is the railway engineer, Archibald Ross Colquhoun. The reason for this, his second publication within eighteen months, is not literary. The author writes not for fame, nor with an eye to the checks of publishers, nor has he the passion of the bookmaker; his object is purely commercial. Like his former volume, 'Across Chrysê,' 'Amongst the Shans' is a campaign document in favor of a stalwart policy of trade with all the Chinas. Yet our engineer builds his book well. It has a value apart from that of a narrative of exploration. It is tripartite in construction, and contains historical matter, from the pens of specialists, which is of sterling interest. Year by year the obscure corners of Asia are being examined, and new spoils gathered for the ethnologist and student of religion. In this eddy of humanity, around which the currents of migration have so often drifted, scholars have discovered rich deposits. Mr. Colquhoun has been very fortunate in obtaining the services of Prof. Terrien de Lacouperie, whose researches in archaic Chinese and Assyriology have been productive of brilliant results. This author is not only useful in demolishing the sham scholarship of Klaproth, but is steadily building up from accumulating evidence a demonstrable theory of the origin of the Chinese. He locates their ancestral seats in ancient Iran. He has especially studied aboriginal China, and his book entitled 'China Before the Chinese' will soon be published. His preliminary chapter on the "Cradle of the Shan Race," in Mr. Colquhoun's latest work, is dry reading, and to many will be unsatisfactory; but the reason for this is evident. To the eye a succession of Chinese sounds expressed by Roman letters is dreary and monotonous. With the varied and sugges-

tive Chinese character these verbal corpses leap to life, and are eloquent. Where one sound may represent one hundred distinct ideas and another hundred shades of expression, the difficulty of argument without the native character, which produces varied ideographic expression before the eye, is manifest. Nevertheless, without the aid of Chinese typography, Professor Lacouperie shows that the Shans, who now live between China and Siam, have migrated from the region of Shen-se, in northwestern China. Heretofore the American missionaries, basing their speculations upon native traditions, arrived at a similar belief. Professor Lacouperie's confirmation from Chinese sources is an interesting discovery.

Mr. Holt S. Hallet, who has made the study of the people of the Golden Peninsula his specialty, has, with the aid of the Siamese ambassador, the libraries of the India Office, and of the Royal Geographical Society, constructed an outline of Shan history which occupies fifty-two pages. He concludes the story of their vicissitudes with this striking paragraph:

"We have now followed the Shans as they gradually spread from the basin of the Yangtsi-kiang to the south of Indo-China; have seen how great empires have been broken up, and their inhabitants been forced to take refuge in the hill country; have watched the effect of the lust of conquest upon these countries, and seen the desolation it has brought about; have seen that a religion which makes it a sin to kill a fly is not strong enough to hold it from massacring millions of their fellow-creatures, and attempting to force the whole world to grovel at their feet as slaves. We have seen that the good old days for Eastern monarchs brought but cruelty, slavery, starvation, misery, and all the horrors of war upon a people who even now are the most hospitable, kindly, and charitable race of the East. Nowhere will you find greater geniality and a more courteous welcome than 'Amongst the Shans.'"

The Shans are a peaceable people, and ambitious for higher civilization. They are industrious and commercial, and will evidently welcome an iron road to new markets. To the labors of the American missionaries among them the author renders hearty praise. Indeed, the Shans and Laos people are better known in the United States than in England.

Mr. Colquhoun begins his narrative proper by an extended reference to the review in the *Nation* (July 12, 1883) of his former book 'Across Chrysê.' He shows that the term "Golden," applied by ancient and modern writers to the peninsula south of China, and so frequent in the titles of the increasing library concerning it, is "not a hackneyed term." He insists that this is "the veritable gold-field of Asia." The reefs of India, to which English capital of late years has been so largely attracted, are "merely an outcrop of the formation which extends on the surface for thousands of square miles in this Golden Peninsula." The sands of all the rivers, the barter of all the tribes, the ornaments of the temples and pagodas, and the testimony of all the explorers agree in proving the abundance of the precious metal as well as of gems. After California and Australia, Chrysê or the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, once traversed by the railroad, is to disturb the monetary equilibrium of the globe.

Professor Lacouperie overthrows the hitherto-received derivation of Siam, or Shan, from the Sanskrit Çyâma, "brown or dark," believing that the root-term of these cognate appellatives is much older. It is found in the nomenclature of many tribes in Central China. He thinks that the Shangs, or "Traders" (who in 1766 B. C. overthrew the Hia dynasty—2205-1818 B. C.), may have given their name to the Shan race. At any rate, the Shans of to-day retain their ancient characteristics as "traders." They gave a glad welcome to the exploring, or rather travelling, party who came among them to find the best route for railways. This party consisted of four Europeans, twenty police, thirty-two elephants, and a small army of Burmese followers. The Shan country, covering an area about the size of Minnesota, was traversed by them, and its people, crops, mines, forests, religion, manners and customs carefully observed. Debt-slavery and serfdom still exist, but the possible and actual wealth are beyond a peradventure. The middle part of the natural roadbed from Calcutta to Canton, which lies among the Shans, offers no serious engineering difficulties, and the enthusiasm of the writer seems to be justified. He devotes considerable space to the type of Buddhism prevalent, but has not a very high idea of either the cult or its priests. The native ladies receive his close attention, and the following extract descriptive of the courting customs of the Lawas, a tribe of iron workers whom he visited, illustrates this trait, as well as his literary style:

"It was amusing to find the dread in which the Lawas are held by both Burmese and Siamese. This is due to the fear of being bitten by them and dying of the bite. They are called by their Burmese neighbors the 'man-bears.' A singular custom obtains among these people, which may perhaps account partly for this superstition. On a certain night in the year, the youths and maidens meet together for the purpose of pairing. Unacceptable youths are said to be bitten severely if they make advances to the ladies; while, on the contrary, the more favored swains are received with blandishments and kisses, if the caresses of this part of the East can be called by such a name. Burmese travellers, hearing of this custom, are reported on one occasion to have attempted to take unfair advantage of it. The treatment which they received from the Lawa damsels is said to have taught them a lesson which has given good grounds on which to base the tradition."

Mr. Colquhoun's free, unstudied, but varied narrative occupies three hundred and fifty-one pages, and is easy reading. The thirteen pages of appendix, containing opinions on the proposed railway, are perhaps justified by the purpose of the book, though of no literary value. Print, binding, index are of excellent quality, and more than fifty full-page illustrations add to the value of this interesting volume.

The Poets of the Church. A Series of Biographical Sketches of Hymn Writers, with Notes on their Hymns. By Edwin P. Hatfield, D.D. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1884.

THE manuscript of this bulky volume of more than 700 pp. octavo "was left at his [Dr. Hatfield's] death nearly ready for the press." So writes the editor, who has made only "a few unimportant changes." But, for the credit of Dr. Hatfield, let us hope that it was his intention to make a number of important changes in his manuscript before printing it; that he would have added the biographies of several hymnists of greater importance than many here set down; and that he would have furnished us with an index, or at least a table of contents. The index of the principal hymns of the authors named is an editorial addition and a very useless one. If the hymns had been given under the authors' names, it would have been of some service. We must hope that this index is not generally so imperfect as in the instances where we have tested it. The Rev. Samuel Johnson's

"Father, in thy mysterious presence kneeling,"

one of the most beautiful hymns New England liberalism has produced, has been a favorite second to no other in the more radical Unitarian churches. But it is not mentioned in the sketch of Mr. Johnson, nor in the index of hymns. Neither is his

"Life of Ages, richly poured!"

There are many similar omissions.

Turning from the work of the editor to Dr. Hatfield's own, what most impresses us is the absolute dryness of it. The sketches are of the most mechanical description. They are not above the level of the hack-work in a second-rate Encyclopædia. We are astonished at the number of hymn-writers that the Church has had, and at the lack of interest attaching to them personally. We are reminded of the hard things that Mr. Matthew Arnold has said about hymns and the English love of them, proving to him quite satisfactorily that the love of poetry among his countrymen is small. Certainly there is very little poetry in a majority of the hymns that Dr. Hatfield mentions with conspicuous praise, though many of them are not so bad as Richard Baxter's which he wrote so as to be sung in either long or short metre, and made it easy for the singers thus:

"Conscience permits us not to think
That any [*of us*] faultless are;
Who then can rigorous justice bear
At God's most righteous [*dreadful*] bar?"

Still, there are hymns and hymns; and if Dr. Hatfield had quoted the best in every instance where he has quoted at all, the impression would not be so damaging to the hymnists as that which he has given.

His theological bias is amusing. No modern hymn has been a greater favorite than "Nearer, My God, to Thee!" and it is a happy coincidence that Dr. Hatfield's alphabetical arrangement of his sketches gives to its author, Sarah Flower Adams, the leading place. But he is evidently troubled by the fact that she was a follower of William J. Fox, and he assures us that "though classed with Unitarians, he [Fox] was neither a rationalist nor a sympathizer with Channing or Martineau"; the fact being that Fox's radicalism was much more pronounced than Channing's, and not less so than Martineau's. His criticism of Bowring's hymns as "cold" is another bit of *odium theologicum*, and another is his omission of any mention whatsoever of the Unitarianism of Bryant and Holmes. There are other omissions, to account for which it is difficult. That they are the result of carelessness is, perhaps, the more reasonable supposition, because they include such names as Sutton's in England, and Whittier's in the United States, to which the heterodox taint attaches in a much less degree than to some others that are given. Whittier has not written many hymns by first intention, but his poems are a quarry out of which not a few hymns, and these most admirable, have been constructed; and moreover, though the title of Dr. Hatfield's book is 'Poets of the Church,' his quotations are not always from the hymns of his biographical subjects. But it is the liberal sects of Christianity that his omissions affect most seriously. If no theological bias is accountable for this, it was certainly hap-hazard work that included Samuel Johnson and omitted his friend Samuel Longfellow, who has written many hymns of singular and impressive beauty; that also included such Unitarian hymnists as Peabody and Bulfinch, and omitted such as Furness, and Pierpont, and Hedge, and Dr. Frothingham, and Wasson, and Weiss, and Higginson, and Gannett, and Ames. There is less excuse for such omissions because Dr. Hatfield must have had easy access to Dr. A. P. Putnam's 'Songs and Singers of the Liberal Faith,' a piece of excellent work within a narrow range. No fault could have been found with Dr. Hatfield if he had deliberately confined himself to Evangelical writers; but such was not the case.

Egypt and Babylon, from Scripture and Profane Sources. By the Rev. George Rawlinson, M.A. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

THE arrangement of this work, taking up, as it does, the Biblical passages to be explained in the order of their occurrence in the different books

of the Bible, at once reminds us of Schrader's excellent book on 'Die Keilinschriften und das Alte Testament.' But this is all that the two books have in common. Canon Rawlinson has adopted the converse thesis: he does not illustrate Jewish history from the cuneiform and Egyptian monuments, but attempts to show the substantial agreement of Babylonian and Egyptian records with the accounts of these nations given us in the Bible. And there is another and even more striking dissimilarity between the English and the German writer. Professor Schrader gives everything concerning the monuments at first hand, while our author, equally consistent, gives nothing at first hand. The 'Records of the Past,' very good in its day, but now hopelessly antiquated, is in every instance appealed to, and better translations when they exist have been avoided with a persistence worthy of a better cause. This is, however, a very fair sample of English Assyriology at the present time. The name of George Smith, who was a real genius, is held in such veneration that an English student would think it little short of sacrilege to improve upon him.

In taking Babylon rather than Assyria, our author has given himself a much smaller task, yet one which is at the same time more difficult. The first question discussed (Gen. x, 8-10) is the genealogy of Nimrod and the ethnological relations of the Babylonians. This is treated *de novo*, and seemingly without a knowledge of the fact that the discovery of a Kossean syllabary last year has shed considerable light upon, if not materially altered the meaning of, this genealogical table. That Chedorlaomer (Assyrian *Kudur-Lagamara*) may mean "servant of Lagamer," is not impossible, but the evidence to that effect has not yet turned up. In treating of Merodach Baladan our author says doubtingly, "Bel iddina (?)." Such an etymology would make the union of Baladan and Merodach or Marduk impossible. But the cuneiform inscriptions always give the name as *abal-iddina*, 'Merodach has given a son,' a name comparable with Sennacherib, *Sin-ahî-irba*, 'Sin (the moon-god) has increased brothers.' The name of Evil Merodach is passed over without any explanation, though it is not any too well known that *evil* represents the later pronunciation of the Assyrian word *amelu*, 'man.' Our author's close and ingenious reasoning as to the identity of the Belshazzar of Daniel is one of the most acceptable portions of his work. In 1862, Sir Henry Rawlinson, in a letter to the London *Athenæum*, doubted the identification of *Kasdim* with Chaldeans because he knew of no phonetic law which would account for the change of *s* to *l*. Since then it has been proved beyond a doubt that such a change is quite regular, but Canon Rawlinson is not yet reconciled to it. Of Rab-Mag he says: "It has been translated Chief of the Magi." Mistranslated would have been a more appropriate term, *mag* being, in all probability, the Akkadian word "great," and the whole term being a compound like Rabshak.

In treating of Egypt our author has generally followed in the footsteps of Brugsch, a brilliant and at the same time safe guide. To Brugsch's derivation of the name Misraim, Canon Rawlinson properly demurs, and establishes his reputation for caution by informing us that it is "obscure." Interesting is his comparison of the story of Joseph with the Egyptian tale of the Twin Brothers. The Hittite fever seems to be epidemic in England, and this work has not entirely escaped it. To build on the theory that Hyksos means Shepherd Kings is to lay an unstable foundation.

These are only a few of the points on which the author has laid himself open to criticism. Compilations of this kind, if carefully made, from original sources, and with a knowledge of the results of the latest philological and archæological investigations, are of inestimable value to students of the Bible; but if they are designed and executed in the unscientific manner which the author of this work has employed, they only serve to mislead. The absence of an index proves the last straw.

Fine Arts.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

THE general impression of the exhibition of this year is that of a better tone of work, more earnest effort to do things thoroughly, and a most notable diminution of the struggle for *chic* which was so noticeable in late exhibitions. But at the same time it is necessary to say there is at first sight the appearance of less strength and more effort, which is to be expected from the change of aim from the shallow facility which used to be the ideal of the exhibition, to more thorough rendering of facts, since any such change must necessarily lead first to a weakness of transition. But it is a good symptom, and if the movement is sustained, must end in a higher grade of performance.

There is of course the usual work of the older men, whose ways are fixed and who will hardly be expected to adopt new lines. They have long ago taken their places, and the most we can hope for from them is that they shall maintain their excellence in the qualities that we know. Casilear's three landscapes are more interesting if not better examples of his somewhat conventional but not uninteresting way of making nature up, facile in execution, dreamy in sentiment, and individual; Bristol takes the same general direction, but with a keener sense of sunshine and vaporous summer sky and distance; Hubbard, in the view from Nyack, No. 388, has all that sentiment of leafage, its richness and summer vitality, even to the forest in the extreme distance, which twenty and more years ago was his distinguishing characteristic; the seas of De Haas slop and fling in his peculiar modification of the modern Dutch manner—sea-water tempting and decorous, never unruly or wind-driven; Cropsey's garish autumnal tints are a little cruder, and ask with more fervency a toning varnish or subduing time; Swain Gifford gains, as a younger man ought, more facile control of his low-toned harmonies of warm grays and greens, more simplicity and largeness of execution, of which No. 119 is a charming and felicitous example; and one who knew Mr. T. A. Richards's work twenty years ago will find the same qualities he found then.

Mr. Inness is a painter of distinct aim and of great mastery of artistic resource, and while his work is always recognizable, it is not always what we might anticipate. His insight into what by poetic license we call nature's moods is profound, and the way in which he brings out the power and individuality of the artistic moment is always masterly. But we cannot accept as in the admissible combinations of color the arsenical green of the foreground of his No. 415, matched with the glow of his sky. It strikes us as not a genuine motive, but something born in the studio and carried out in fantasy and experiment, in greens and sunset reds. The foreground, where it is open to the blaze of that glowing sky, must have caught the color of its illuminating power, which is the source of the highest light of the picture; but the whole expanse of the green meadow, whether open to the sky or shut off from it by the trees, is equally intense and equally lighted. This is simply impossible as fact and inartistic as treatment. In the larger picture, No. 120, Mr. Inness shows his great mastery of effect and breadth of treatment, as well as his power in color; but even here we feel that a less intense green in the leaves which so startle the eye in the quiet foreground, would have been better in keeping and more powerful as color, if somewhat more in sympathy with the general color of the picture.

Mr. McEntee almost alone of the elder generation of painters comes out with two pictures which take a new departure. They are winter scenes and naturally not to be compassed by mere study of nature in the realistic vein. The "Sunset" might be caught, and its simple sincerity gives it the air of a thing seen and studied. The tone of the snow-laden tree at the left, its snow in shadow coming dark against the sky, is a true note hardly to be guessed at, but to our feeling the flame of the sky is at its climax too positive; it leaves no space and no reserve in the palette. We doubt if the best sentiment can be expressed when there is no reserved power, and in a sky we cannot admit the exhaustion of the palette. The night scene is a far more difficult subject, and one of the truth of which no one but an earnest student of nature can judge, and of which no man who has not a profoundly poetic temperament would find the charm. It seems to us one of the most notable pictures of the exhibition. Charles H. Miller's solitary contribution seems a wreck or a beginning of a picture, not recognizable as by the same hand as pictures by him which we have lately seen. Mr. Wood's picture, "The Difficult Text," No. 402, is a piece of excellent painting, judged by its general effect. We do not believe in the kind of execution in which his background is painted—the accidental quality obtained by dragging in the color over a prepared ground—but the figures are admirably painted, and at the proper distance the solidity and keeping of the ensemble are all that we have a right to ask, so that we are not in a position to grumble as to methods. Whittredge and Sonntag, like the most of their contemporaries, hold their own, but give us no new opening to nature, and the President in neither of his portraits succeeds in recalling his early triumphs. The female portrait, in fact, is garish and flimsy to a degree.

Eastman Johnson's portrait of Mr. Evarts is a noble work and on the whole the largest of its class in the exhibition, dignified in tone, simple and broad in treatment, and such a record as one may be content to have of one of our most eminent men. Porter's "Boy and Dog" is a startling piece of effect, and at first sight impressed us as the work of the year; but a repeated study does not confirm the impression, in part owing to the fact that so much of the picture is flimsy and unsustained in execution, and partly owing to the want of harmony between the head and the rest of the subject. The head seems to have been painted in entirely different surroundings from those in which it is now placed. The shadows must have caught more of the reflected tone of the surroundings, and could not have been, in the midst of all this luminous gray, of so warm a tone. The management of the grays throughout is masterly, and the impression of the picture, with this exception, is of the first quality of power as power goes in our days. Hicks, another of our veterans, has a portrait of a lady, No. 165, which maintains his position and has the vigor of his earlier work; but portraiture is hardly the field in which to show a variant on modern conventional treatment. Perry is represented by several pictures and a portrait in which his Venetian study is evident. Of the Academicians we have only space here to notice Mr. Loop's characteristic "Repose," with its pleasant silvery tones and simple arrangement, if somewhat artificial and incomprehensible in conception. Wm. Hart has branched out into figure study as a novelty, and both in color and drawing is agreeably disappointing.

The chief attractions of the exhibition in the landscape department are the "Cliffs of Normandy," by Jas. D. Smillie, and the marine of Mr. Moran. Mr. Smillie's No. 130 and T. Moran's "Morning at Vera Cruz," No. 561, are subordinate only in size. The entire contribution of Mr. Moran shows his command of artistic resource as well as his knowledge of the facts of nature. His clouds are never vague scramblings of indeterminate quality. If mist, they are genuine mist, but when form is wanted or implied it is given—a rare qualification among our landscape painters, to whom a sky means generally a broken expanse of blue and various grays made anyhow and without perception of a definite form throughout. Yewell's "Cairo Interior" has some charming painting, and the opening into the sunlit court beyond the gates is admirably given, but the color of the nearer court is too positive—it should have been grayer in comparison with the sunlit portion.

Perry Moran's "Coming from Church, old New York," though in all probability no more like New Yorkers leaving church at any past time than like the parishioners of a French provincial town in the same function, has certain pictorial qualities and a studiousnes of make-up which are really remarkable, though marked by a glibness and ready execution which is of bad omen. Leon Moran's "Waylaid," on the other hand, a coach stopped by highwaymen, has all the marks of premature decline: facility run into the extreme of mannerism, without precision or subtlety, with tints flat, laid on without study or suggestiveness, and drawing of reckless, not masterly freedom. This is what Mr. Moran's art points to even when at its best, and this tendency must be guarded against, or this clever young painter will fall into the abyss of inanity where rest all whose execution runs away with their ideas.

Of the younger painters nothing is more faithful and sympathetic than W. B. Baker's "Solitude," which is painted with a breadth and simplicity altogether excellent. The management of the grays and gray-greens is nature's color in a pleasant key, showing a command of the material which promises great future powers. Mr. Platt's "Effect of Morning Sunlight," No. 40, is a capital piece of straightforward painting, of broad effect, true in tone and tint, with great subtlety of local color under morning light. Mr. H. F. Weller has a study of roses, No. 68, excellent in rose color, but painted with an affectation of dash and facility which has no value whatever, and shows a weak aim to display a mastery that does not exist. There may be cases in which a master can do with his palette-knife what cannot be done with a brush; but the latter is the true implement of a painter, and the use of the knife by a young and weak artist shows his ignorance and inability—it means that he hopes from chance what he does not feel confident of getting by direct labor.

Mr. H. P. Smith strikes a variation on his usual subjects in a study of old oaks, No. 95, which catches the quality of green in warm sunlight with great accuracy, though the commentary of the editor of the illustrated catalogue, that it is "painted in the manner of the best work of Rousseau," is so absurd that it justifies the suppression of this form of criticism. Lambdin's "Pink and Yellow Roses" is a fair example of the good vein of flower painting, pretty in arrangement and thoroughly honest in its execution. Miss Dodson's "Invocation of Moses" suggests an invocation on her part of some other muse than that which has heard her petition—it is a sad display of wasted talent. It is a picture which only shows that the painter, with undoubted ability and training, does not comprehend her own vocation. Ambition does not stand for inspiration, at least in art. Charles Warren Eaton's "Afterglow," No. 116, is a pleasant and poetic study, which, however, suggests only what the painter might do if he had strength enough to cut his way out of the groove of small subject and slight treatment. F.S. Church's "Peacocks in the Snow" is a strong study of color, painted in a much more simple and sincere vein than any other of his pictures we have lately seen. The birds are well drawn, and the gray modulated background sets off admirably the rich color of their plumage. J. T. Murphy's landscapes, 268 and 290, though scarcely more than indications of motive, are very noteworthy as motive and for simplicity of means of expression. They make one wonder what proper training and methodical study might have done for the artist. He suffers, perhaps, from the contagion of our prevalent insufficiency of study, and, being better than most of his fellows, is content. C. Y. Turner's portrait, No. 306, is an excellent piece of work as portraiture—one of the best in the exhibition; though why the subject's right hand should be made a subject for an orthopædic surgeon, we do not understand. A hand is as much matter of characteristic as a neck or a nose, and has a story to tell in great portraiture.

F. D. Millet's "Toilette" is not up to his usual level in this class of subject. His "Window Seat," No. 426, is much better, and as an example of management of gray tones is very successful. In this class of subject we are inclined to think that a painter who can paint detail as well as we know Mr. Millet can, might have gone further in that direction than here. Mr. Lippincott's "Head," No. 387, is charming in sentiment, but the paint is by far too obvious. In De Haas's contributions there is never much variation or degree of excellence. No. 410, a seventeenth-century marine, is the best perhaps only because the most picturesque. No. 427, "A Winter Evening," by George F. Shelton, shows decided poetic feeling; whether the painting power lies behind it, this subject is too slightly treated to enable us to judge. Shirlaw's No. 431 is, in spite of the whimsical name, a thoroughly felt and well-painted picture. Bridgman contributes a picture in his best vein, a scene from a Cairo café, and shows that he has really profited by a French education to the point at which a man may be individual and still keep the evidence of his training. Geo. H. Smillie's "Song of Summer," No. 646, is one of the noteworthy landscapes of the collection—suggestive, pleasant in color and effect. Richards's marine, with the huge misty cliffs and gently swinging sea, neither storm nor calm, is like those he has contributed for years, but one cannot complain of monotony when it gives so much excellence as this. Mr. Richards is always true to himself, and, as far as is consistent, to nature as well. Two good portraits are Nos. 516, R. G. Hardie, and 528, Mrs. Loop. In flower painting Mrs. Dillon is excellent in her crysanthemums and water-lilies, and William M. Brown has painted some very excellent peaches in No. 79.

Charles Müller's "Old Curiosity Shop" is a monstrosity of detail. There is nothing in it but detail, and that painted in a hard, lifeless manner; and where there is any chance for drawing in the heads, it is very bad. There is no excuse for an artist painting detail merely to show how small he can paint it; and in this species of still-life painting, which is in effect what the above picture amounts to, breadth and subordination of detail to the general effect are the *sine qua non* of excellence. Mr. Müller's detail stares and shrieks, every item of it, and the whole is a display of curious deficiency of feeling for the thing it attempts. Kirkpatrick's No. 284, a studio scene, is as incoherent a mass of bad study as it was ever our fortune to see. Nothing in it is in keeping with anything else, and the very straining for brilliancy of color throughout deprives the garish intensity of all value, for there is no subordination between the parts. It shrieks from one corner of the canvas to the opposite one, nor is there one object in it that is properly painted. It is the Bedlam of the palette.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 23, 1885.

The Week.

THE decision of the Supreme Court in the Virginia tax-coupon cases marks another revolution in constitutional construction which will be regarded by some as a virtual change of the Constitution itself, and by others as an adaptation of conflicting parts to the broad requirements of justice. It is quite certain, on the one hand, that the Virginia law of 1882, known as the "Coupon-killer," was a violation of a solemn contract entered into in February, 1871, between the State and its creditors, and was therefore prohibited by the Constitution of the United States. It is equally certain that the eleventh amendment to the Constitution denies jurisdiction to the courts of the United States in cases where private citizens seek to enforce claims against a State There is much force in the argument of Justice Bradley, on the part of the minority of the court, that in cases of apparent conflict the latest enactment must govern. The majority of the court avoid this point by adopting the view advanced by the counsel of the bondholders, that the action was not against the State, but against the trespasser, to wit, the tax-collector, who had seized upon private property without lawful warrant. But since the State can act only through its agents, of whom the tax-collector is one, the point seems to be forced, and although in accord with principles of justice, yet practically a change of the Constitution, and one of exceeding gravity.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Clawson case is a hard blow for Mormonism. Clawson is a polygamist, who was convicted of his crime in the District Court of Utah last April, and was sentenced to a fine of $800 and four years' imprisonment. He appealed from this judgment, first to the Supreme Court of the Territory, and then to the United States Supreme Court, on the ground that the grand and petit juries by which he was indicted and tried were illegally constituted, because all believers in polygamy had been challenged and excluded. The highest tribunal has now decided against his plea and sustained the sentence of the District Court, which will send Clawson to the penitentiary for four years. The moral effect of the decision must be great. There is comparatively little difficulty about securing the conviction of a polygamist in Utah when none of his fellow-believers is allowed upon the jury, and Clawson is likely soon to have company in prison. The spectacle of a few prominent Mormons behind the bars, under the judgments of Federal courts, can hardly fail to shake that confidence in the power of the Church which its many triumphs over the law of the land have fostered.

Our esteemed contemporary, the *Sun*, which continues to protect President Cleveland against the clamors of an evil-speaking world, comes to the defence of Mr. Keiley, our new Minister to Rome, who has been condemned by the *Tribune* as a most unfit representative of this country at the Italian court, because, once upon a time, he denounced in a public manner the occupation of the Eternal City by King Victor Emmanuel. It appears that Mr. Keiley is an extreme Catholic, and that in the year 1871 he saw fit to preside at a public meeting in Richmond at which sympathy was expressed for the Pope, in view of his loss of the temporal power, and some very intemperate expressions were used in reference to the acts of the Garibaldians and of the Italian Government. It has been suggested, since the proceedings of this meeting were resurrected, that King Humbert might refuse to receive Mr. Keiley as Minister, and that thus an international episode would result, and that it would therefore be wise for President Cleveland to transfer Mr. Keiley to some other court to which he is not personally obnoxious. It is here that the *Sun* comes up bristling and wanting to know who's afraid: let us show King Humbert that America does not choose her Ministers to please him, but to please herself, and that if he wants a row he can have it.

It is tolerably clear that Mr. Keiley's credentials would be more acceptable at the Vatican than at the Quirinal, and we presume that if the facts connected with the Richmond meeting had been remembered when he was under consideration, he would have been sent to some other country, as for instance Spain, where the views held by him regarding the temporal power of the Pope would meet with more sympathy than they will find in official quarters at Rome. King Humbert may or may not receive Mr. Keiley, but Mr. Keiley ought, in the way of self-respect, to decline to recognize King Humbert as the rightful sovereign of the Roman States. The usual course in cases where the representative of a foreign government is not *persona grata*, but where no other cause of disagreement exists with the government, is to make the Minister's position uncomfortable for him, to freeze him out, and to show his countrymen that somebody else would serve them better. It was in this way that we got rid of a certain Russian Minister in President Grant's term. It was in this way that Prince Bismarck elbowed Minister Sargent from Berlin. The purpose of having a minister at Rome or Berlin, we must remind the *Sun*, is not to show our spunk, but to promote American interests. Mr. Keiley, it is now certain, is not the man to promote our interests at Rome, although he might be just the man for Madrid, or Vienna, or Tokio. A man who holds that the Italian Government has no right to be where it is, is certainly out of place as a diplomatic representative at that court.

We understand that communications have already been received here by private persons from high quarters in Italy, implying that Mr. Keiley will not be received by the Italian Government in a diplomatic capacity, and that he could not be so received without producing a parliamentary commotion which no ministry could survive. The sensitiveness of the Government and people as to reflections upon their political doings by the officials of other countries had an illustration in the career of our late Minister, Mr. Marsh, who, while writing a despatch to Secretary Fish, after the withdrawal of the French troops from Rome, said in a casual way that the Italian Government lacked courage as yet to move forward and occupy that city. This despatch was published in the volume of diplomatic correspondence, but as it did not see the light until after Rome had been actually occupied, it was not noticed in the mass of papers communicated to Congress until two years after it was written. At the end of that time the attention of the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs was drawn to it, and he forthwith addressed Count Corti, the Italian Minister, a note severely animadverting upon Mr. Marsh's supposed imputation on the courage of his Government, and directing the Minister to communicate it to the American Secretary of State. Count Corti was greatly embarrassed at finding himself made the medium of passing a censure upon so distinguished a friend of Italy as Mr. Marsh had always been, and he ventured to take advice on the subject of making the communication. He was advised to delay it until he could first make the suggestion to his superior that Mr. Marsh's error was either a slip of the pen, in which case it should not be noticed, or that it sprang from excess of zeal for Italian unity; that at all events a long time had passed without any resulting consequences, and that it might be as well to overlook the matter altogether. The suggestion was adopted by the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and it is believed that Mr. Marsh himself never knew that any such correspondence had taken place. It is certain that his relations with the Italian Government continued on the same cordial footing as before, up to the time of his death.

The appointment of Mr. James M. Morgan as Consul-General at Melbourne must not be ascribed to the influence of the Mugwumps, although the appointee was an active partisan of Mr. Blaine down to the day of the Presidential election. His admiration for Mr. Blaine's foreign policy was so great that he wrote and published, here in New York, a pamphlet of considerable bulk, advocating Blaine's election on the ground that it would be a guarantee of protection to American citizens abroad. Mr. Bayard ought to ask Mr. Morgan for a copy of that pamphlet before making out his commission, unless perchance the appointment was made upon grounds of special fitness for consular duties, overruling all party considerations.

The *Tribune* is rather straining its energies to make a case against Secretary Bayard because he has seen fit to call for the resignation of Mr. George W. Williams, a colored man, who was appointed Minister to Hayti just before the close of President Arthur's Administration.

The *Tribune* attributes this act on the part of the Secretary to his lofty scorn of the colored people. Other authorities, like the Washington correspondent of the *Evening Post*, intimate that there are charges against the character of Mr. Williams which fully justify Secretary Bayard in calling for his resignation, or for removing him in the event that it is not forthcoming. Probably Mr. Williams and the *Tribune* will be accommodated eventually, if they insist upon knowing what the charges are, but there is a larger question involved in the case than the personal deserts of the would-be Minister to Hayti, and that is the right of the President to remove officials of high grade who have been confirmed by the Senate. There are indications here and there that certain Senators are disposed to erect the Senate into a sort of court, under the law of 1869, to insist on specific charges against a removed officer when the President nominates a successor, and to try formally the charges, although the law of 1869 has repealed the requirement of the law of 1867, that specific accusations be sent to the Senate by the President. According to the law and practice down to 1867, the announcement to the Senate by the President that he had removed an officer closed inquiry about the "cause" of the removal, unless on an impeachment of the President therefor, and permitted the Senate only to consider whether or not it would advise and consent to the appointment of the successor. If "government by party" be wise and useful, that is obviously the best rule which puts on the Executive the full responsibility of administration.

There was considerable significance, in a double sense, in the interview had with President Cleveland on Thursday by a delegation of business men—Democrats—from Charleston, S. C., in regard to the Collectorship of that port. Charleston has for many years felt as severely as any city in the South the evils of carpet-bag rule, and when an opportunity to make a change arrives it would be supposed that the men who represent the interests of the State in Congress—white Democrats, be it remembered—would throw their whole influence in favor of securing as the new Federal officers men who would be certain to make the reform of past abuses and the general improvement of the interests under their care their first object. But here we find that these Congressmen recommend to the President a candidate for the office of Collector of the principal seaport of the State, who is so little removed from the class of working politicians, and so far removed from the class of practical business men, that leading citizens whose business interests are at stake, are impelled to protest in person to the President against his appointment, and to suggest a really capable man whom they ask him to name. We say there is significance in this, both as showing that not even the long abuses of carpet-bag rule suffice to make Congressmen ignore selfish political considerations in their recommendations to office, and as proving that even in South Carolina, where not much has been heard of civil-service reform, the business community has discernment enough and courage enough to demand that officers shall be selected with a view to the duties they are to perform. Does Mr. William Walter Phelps, in a case of this kind, really think that President Cleveland will "strengthen his Administration" more by listening to the South Carolina Congressmen than to the Charleston merchants?

The Republican managers in Pennsylvania, as well as in this State, are busy with schemes to capture the Irish Roman Catholic vote for their party. The only State officer to be chosen in the neighboring commonwealth this year is the Treasurer, but on this very account the action of the Convention may be the more important and significant. "Chris" Magee, who has long been one of the most influential Republican "bosses," strongly favors the nomination of one McDevitt, whose chief recommendation is his supposed influence with voters of his own race and religion. This is only part of a scheme which the Magees of the Republican party throughout the North are now seriously considering, "to make the Blaine Catholics solid with the party," as they put it, by nominating such men as Carr for Governor of New York and McDevitt for Treasurer of Pennsylvania. The managers are by no means agreed as to the wisdom of such a policy, which some of them declare will disgust both Catholics and Protestants, but its advocates are confident and determined. Whether they succeed or not, the development of their scheme for reconstructing the Republican party on a new basis will be watched with interest.

A most exasperating piece of news for the President's critics is sent from Washington by the correspondent of the *Times*. It is that the President does not read what they say about him, hears about it only in a fragmentary or scrappy way, and, when he is spoken to about it, manifests complete indifference. He is not only making a "good Administration for the country," but actually does not care a pin whether anybody thinks the same is "bad for the party" or not. The effect of this information upon the gifted editors and politicians who are so anxious to give the President the benefit of their larger wisdom, cannot fail to be irritating. Take, for example, the case of the late chief Butler organ. Here it has been pouring in upon the President for five weeks the most earnest assurances that unless he took the Butler party—3,499 strong—to his arms, and made them happy with some nice offices, the Democrats would lose this State next November by 50,000 majority; here he has been assuring the President that he was ready to forgive him, and be reconciled and harmonious and use all his power to consolidate the party; and all this time the President has heard little or nothing about it, and has been utterly indifferent to what he has heard. In the language of the *Sun's* impassioned polyonomous correspondent, whose effusions have so often commanded our admiration, "To your tents, O Israel!"

The reprimand which the President has formally administered to General Hazen, in accordance with the finding of the court-martial, would be a humiliation to an officer of sensitive spirit, but is likely to be hailed by General Hazen as a merciful deliverance from a removal from office. He has always been more of a politician than a soldier, and so long as he is allowed to retain his position at the head of the Signal Service he will not be troubled by official rebukes of any kind. The lightness of his sentence is due to the fact that the only charge upon which he was tried, was his extraordinary conduct in publicly criticising the acts of his superior officer, the Secretary of War. Had he been tried upon the much more serious charge, which has already been proved against him, of negligence and disobedience of orders in fitting out the Arctic relief expedition, he would hardly have escaped so easily.

The first important step of the new Commissioner of Internal Revenue is a good one. The business of this bureau has been very materially diminished of late years, through the narrowing of its scope of operations, while the force employed has not been correspondingly reduced. A few days ago the collector of one of the two districts in Massachusetts died, and within a week an order was issued for the consolidation of the districts, with a single head at Boston. Everybody familiar with the internal-revenue business of the State has long known that there was no excuse for maintaining two establishments, except the desire to provide for the two faithful Republican partisans who had for many years been their heads. Nor is Massachusetts any exception to the rule. It is safe to say that a reduction of fully a third in the number of districts and of officials can be made, not only without detriment to the service, but to its advantage, to say nothing of the question of economy. Indeed, so clear has been the propriety of such action that it was seriously considered by the last Administration, but finally nothing was done because of the party troubles involved in dismissing the collectors who could be spared. One great advantage of the change in executive control is the freedom which the new officials enjoy from such difficulties in instituting reforms.

The decision of Judge Brewer, of the United States Circuit Court, upon the application of the receivers of the Wabash Railway for permission to throw up the leases of the non-paying lines of road operated by them, appears to settle some of the vexed questions affecting that property in a manner unfavorable to the first-mortgage bondholders. He decides that all the lines must be kept in operation, whether they earn their expenses or not; that any deficiency of operating expenses may be made good by receivers' certificates; and that these certificates must take precedence even of the first-mortgage bonds of the North Missouri Road, which bonds were issued fifteen years before the consolidation of that road with the Wabash. It is not for the purpose of calling Judge Brewer's decision in question that we remark that such a rule invalidates every railway mortgage in the United States. If it is possible for railway managers to consolidate good properties with bad, to make leases, and to build new lines and hitch them on to old ones in such fashion as to produce bankruptcy, and then strap a prior lien upon the whole, there is no such thing as railway security. It is true that in the

pending case the amount of receivers' certificates is limited to $2,500,000, of which only $500,000 have been issued, and it is presumed that no issue of certificates will be permitted which may have the effect to stop the payment of interest on the first mortgages that antedate the consolidation; but the security of the mortgages is nevertheless impaired, and it is plain that the power to issue certificates might be exercised to the extent of rendering the security worthless.

The law of libel has received a fresh and reasonable interpretation in the suit of J. Appleton Wilson against the Chicago *Tribune*, wherein damages of $100,000 were claimed for the publication by the defendant of a statement that the plaintiff had been indicted for murder. A full retraction and apology were made on the following day. It was shown on the trial that the *Tribune* reporter had been deceived by an exhibition of a paper in the office of the State Attorney purporting to be an indictment of the plaintiff, and that the paper bore the signature of the State Attorney, but was not signed by the foreman of the Grand Jury. Of course, the reporter had no right to see the paper until it was returned into court. Even if the indictment had been found, the publication of it would have been premature and unjustifiable, although not unlawful. Express malice being disproved by the retraction, and there being no evidence to show that the plaintiff had suffered pecuniary injury, the questions for the jury to decide were, how much should be awarded to the plaintiff for injury to his feelings (no other injury having been proved), and whether the interests of society in general should be taken into the account by way of making an example of the defendant. Upon these points the Court instructed the jury that, in a civil suit for libel, exemplary and vindictive damages cannot be allowed unless express malice is proved, or unless the article was published in a reckless or unusual or unreasonable manner. The Court ruled further, that although the clerks in the State Attorney's office may have violated the statute in exhibiting papers to reporters, yet it was no violation of the statute for the newspaper to publish them, and that, therefore, the jury must not take into consideration the prowling of the reporter in places from which theoretically he ought to be excluded and debarred. Virtually the only question left for the jury was how much injury the plaintiff had suffered personally from a false statement voluntarily retracted on the following day. The jury awarded him $250, carrying costs against the defendant. The plaintiff moved for a new trial, which the Judge can hardly grant without running counter to his own instructions.

A striking illustration of the absurdity of leaving to a jury the final determination of litigated questions of fact is furnished by a case recently decided in this city. Suit was brought against an insurance company to recover insurance upon a cargo of merchandise which was said to have been lost at sea. The company claimed that the merchandise in question had never been put upon the vessel, and supported its claim with such conclusive evidence that when the jury retired and the counsel for the defence held an informal conversation with the counsel for the plaintiff, the latter frankly admitted that his client had lost his case. He said that up to the point where a certain unexpected witness had been produced by the defence, he firmly believed that his client had a good case, but after that point he had no doubt whatever that the cargo in question had never been shipped. Whereupon the counsel of the insurance company said in words something like the following: "Well, is not this an extraordinary situation? Here we are, the opposing counsel, fully agreed about the case, and prepared to settle it without further parley, yet we must sit here and wait for twelve men to make a guess upon it." After a delay of two hours the twelve men came into the court-room, and the outcome of their guess was a unanimous verdict against the insurance company. The facts were all against them, and the only apparent reason for their astonishing decision was the well-established maxim that "you can never get a jury to decide in favor of a corporation, especially if it be an insurance company."

The passage of the Niagara Park Reservation Bill is a notable event, and will go far to reconcile the public to the burden which the present Legislature has been upon its patience. As there is no doubt of the bill's receiving the Governor's signature, it may now be set down as an accomplished fact that Niagara is forever secured for the public enjoyment, free from the petty exactions of private greed, and safe from the danger of being given over to manufacturing interests. For a comparatively small outlay the State will become its owner, with the intention of making no other changes than those necessary to restore the surroundings of the falls to their original condition. Unsightly buildings will be removed, and the only attempt at park-making will be to put Nature herself once more in control.

James D. Fish, whose daily life in Ludlow Street Jail is carefully followed by several of the morning papers, has edified the public with a brief and flattering sketch of his career. There are in it many interesting moral reflections, and more or less definite threats of revelations concerning the complicity of other persons in the business transactions which have led to his present seclusion. He continues to hold up Ward as the "artful villain" who led him, an innocent and unsophisticated bank president, into complications which he did not suspect to be wrong until it was too late to escape from them. He alludes to Ward as "one of the greatest schemers the world ever produced," who "had been brought up under the influence of Sunday-school training, which always carries a certain weight until it is found out to be a sham and a fraud, as it was in Ward's case," and implies that it was through this Sunday-school demeanor that Ward won his way into his (Fish's) confidence, Fish himself being a profound believer in Sunday-school principles. "Having got his hand into the vaults of the Marine Bank," says good Mr. Fish, "he very soon worked in his whole body"; but Fish neglects to mention that Ward passed over to him as "dividends" or "profits" from 40 to 50 per cent. of every handful which he took from the vaults. "Ward," he says, "had the peculiar faculty of finding just the materials he could use, and then of using them to his own advantage. There was no generosity in the man; he was incapable of real friendship; he received favors with no intention of returning them." Yet in his testimony Mr. Fish admitted that his "profits" from Ward's "contracts" were in one year over $416,000, though he had never put a cent of cash into the business, and that his total "profits" during the firm's short career were nearly a million dollars. And he now says there was no generosity or friendship in the man. He even goes so far as to say that General Grant's error was in "shutting his eyes and not inquiring into the methods" by which such large profits were earned. Mr. Fish appears to be a very cheap scoundrel.

A recent despatch from Atlanta ought to be reassuring to our friend Mr. William Walter Phelps. In the course of his remarkable views on President Cleveland's Administration he was unhappy about the "millions of dollars in the East ready to be put into business enterprises in the South had Blaine been elected," but which "are now locked up in Wall Street." The State of Georgia has opened bids for a new thirty-year $3,500,000 loan, and found among them three offers from Wall Street for the entire issue, one of which was at a premium of 4 per cent. There were thirty-five bidders in all, and the highest offers were from citizens of Georgia, several of whom offered a premium of 7⅛ per cent. This does not look as if the South were suffering because of President Cleveland's election, either in domestic prosperity or in the estimation of outside capitalists.

Sir Peter Lumsden has put in his answer to General Komaroff's account of the recent fight at Puli-Khisti, which it traverses in ten important particulars. His version is that Komaroff was throughout the aggressor, and that his final attack on the Afghans was treacherous and wanton. It must be said, too, that it bears all the marks of truthfulness and accuracy. One little point almost fixes the character of Komaroff's report. He described "one company" of Russians who were out on a "reconnoissance" as having been menaced by three companies of Afghans—which on its face looks badly; but Sir Peter points out that one Russian company numbers 250 men, while three companies of Afghans only number 225, so that it must have been the one company which was threatening the three. Then, too, a reconnoissance is not a friendly movement. It is a movement to ascertain what an enemy is up to. The main importance of Sir Peter's despatch, however, does not lie in the fact that his account of the affair is probably more correct than the Russian one, but in the fact that it bars the British Ministry from treating Komaroff's escapade as an accident, and seems to make it necessary that they should insist on his being disavowed.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 15, to TUESDAY, April 21, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Supreme Court of the United States rendered a decision on Monday in the Virginia coupon-tax cases, which was in favor of the bondholders and against the State on all material points.

Rudger Clawson, who was convicted of polygamy in Utah, appealed to the United States Supreme Court, on the ground that the grand and petit juries by which he was indicted and tried were illegally constituted through the exclusion of polygamists. The court on Monday decided against the plaintiff upon both the points raised.

President Cleveland on Friday issued a proclamation reversing President Arthur's executive order of February 27, which restored to the public domain the lands of the Old Winnebago and Crow Creek Indian Reservations of Dakota.

President Cleveland on Friday made public the sentence of General W. B. Hazen, Chief Signal Officer of the Army, for indulging in unwarranted and captious criticism of his superior officer, the Secretary of War. The President delivered a reprimand in accordance with the sentence.

President Cleveland made the following appointments on Saturday: To be Ministers Resident and Consuls-General—ex-Governor William D. Bloxham, of Florida, to Bolivia; Bayliss W. Hanna, of Indiana, to Persia; Walker Fearn, of Louisiana, to Rumania, Servia, and Greece. To be Consuls—James Murray, of New York, at St. John, New Brunswick; Boyd Winchester, of Kentucky, at Nice, France; Charles P. Kimball, of Illinois, at Stuttgart, Germany.

In reference to complaints of the President's slowness in filling offices, a member of his household says: "The President's programme has been to dispose of the appointments in the following order: First, the diplomatic service; second, the Territories; third, the District of Columbia; fourth, the post-offices; fifth, the marshalships; and sixth, the collectors of customs and of internal revenue. This programme is being rigidly adhered to, save in special cases where, on account of vacancies or of some public exigency, an immediate appointment is made necessary. This system is so arranged that when the appointments under one head have been fully considered they will be disposed of in a lump, and the President will then proceed to the next class. The result will show that the President will have accomplished more within the same time than any of his predecessors."

It is understood that the policy of the Administration with regard to appointments to places in the Southern States now held by colored Republicans will be not to substitute white men for colored men, but to replace incompetent or dishonest colored Republicans by colored Democrats who are worthy and capable.

Mr. Frederick Douglass, in an address to the colored men in Washington on Thursday night, attacked the Republican party, and stated that in the last campaign it had ceased to be the party of great moral ideas, and had sought victory on grounds far below its ordinary level. It had made national pelf more important than the national party. Mr. Douglass eulogized President Cleveland, and said that the words of his inaugural were as good as those in the inaugurals of Lincoln and Grant. Mr. Douglass holds a Federal office.

A delegation consisting of business men from Charleston, S. C., representing the commercial organizations of that city, called on the President on Thursday, and informed him that the Congressional delegation of South Carolina had endorsed Mr. A. H. Mowry for the position of Collector of the Port of Charleston. This they called to protest against. They said that the time had come when politics should be separated from important Federal positions of this character, and they wanted the work of reform inaugurated in South Carolina. They said the duties of the office required a man thoroughly informed in commercial rather than political matters. For the place they recommended Captain Legaré F. Walker, a business man.

Attorney-General Garland has given an opinion to the President sustaining the eligibility of General Lawton, of Georgia, for appointment as Minister to Russia, but the appointment has been declined.

George W. Williams, who was appointed United States Minister to Hayti on March 3 by President Arthur, will be superseded as soon as his successor can be determined upon.

The Secretary of the Treasury has called for the resignation of George W. Casilear, of New York, who for many years has been Superintendent of Engraving, and has appointed to that place John A. O'Neil, ex-Mayor of Hoboken, N. J. The reason assigned by Treasury officials for this change is that Secretary Manning is not satisfied with the artistic appearance of the United States notes. Mr. Casilear has been employed in the bureau for many years.

Secretary Manning on Friday appointed B. Frank Abbett, of New Jersey, a brother of Governor Abbett, chief of a division in the office of the Auditor of the Treasury for the Post-office Department, vice Mr. Widdicombe, of Maryland, resigned by request.

Secretary Manning, and others connected with the Administration, deny in the most positive manner that he (Manning) contemplates resigning the position of Secretary of the Treasury to become Collector of the Port of New York, or for any other purpose.

Admiral Jouett telegraphed from Colon on Wednesday that good order continued on the Isthmus.

President Zaldivar, of San Salvador, telegraphed to Washington on Wednesday: "Peace with Central America signed. A new triumph, doing great honor to Salvador." It is said that General Barrios was assassinated on the battle-field through an intrigue of Zaldivar's.

Authentic information has reached the city of Mexico that on Wednesday the officers of the Colombian Government selected 100 of the worst rebels imprisoned at Colon, and, placing them on board a steamer, carried them out into the bay, where the entire 100 were thrown overboard and drowned.

The Niagara Park Bill passed the Senate at Albany on Thursday by 26 to 4. It goes to the Governor in ample time to allow him to let it become a law without his signature, if he has any delicacy about signing it. If it does not become a law by April 30, the whole business falls through, and the project of making a State reservation at the Falls cannot be revived except by beginning where the present undertaking began. The Governor will not be likely to veto the bill. Nothing can be done with the lands, nor any regulations made, till a supplementary bill is passed providing for the care and custody of the grounds. In this bill the question so long discussed in the Senate, whether any privileges should be let to venders, will be settled. Such a bill has been prepared.

Among the appointments made by President Cleveland on Friday were the following: To be Consuls-General: James M. Morgan, of South Carolina, for the British Colonies in Australasia, at Melbourne, Jacob Mueller, of Ohio, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany. To be Consuls: Charles W. Wagner, of Missouri, at Toronto; Thomas R. Welch, of Arkansas, at Hamilton, Canada; Francis H. Wigfall, of Maryland, at Leeds, England; Charles Jonas, of Wisconsin, at Prague, Austria-Hungary; Richard Stockton, of New Jersey, at Rotterdam; William Slade, of Ohio, at Brussels, Belgium.

The Rhode Island House, by a vote of 24 to 16, on Thursday indefinitely postponed a bill to render the divorce law of the State more stringent, by requiring petitioners to have lived in the State two years.

The Legislature of Connecticut having repealed the $2,000 annual appropriation to pay Yale College for furnishing the State standard time, Professor Leonard Waldo, of the Observatory, has written to Governor Harrison asking for his veto. The bill was passed three years ago by the unanimous vote of both houses, after a thorough discussion, and the College at once erected a new building and perfected arrangements to carry on a model service. The Professor denies the assertion that "the service will be performed by other parties to the satisfaction of the State."

Advices from all sections of the Kansas wheat belt show that winter wheat has been seriously damaged by the severe weather.

General Grant was very much better on Wednesday, and on Thursday the improvement was so marked that he was able to take luncheon down stairs with his family. The remarkable improvement continues, and his recovery is thought possible.

Mrs. George Vandenhoff, actress and elocutionist, died in this city on Monday at the age of fifty.

FOREIGN.

A despatch from Lahore, India, on Wednesday said: "Earl Dufferin, British Viceroy of India, has arrived here from Rawalpindi. He comes officially to confer with the Maharajah of Cashmere. The Viceroy was met by a great crowd and accorded a splendid reception. Earl Dufferin spoke officially of the Anglo-Russian situation in significant words. Among other things, he said: 'Coming from an important interview with the Amir of Afghanistan, whose dominions, so far as I have been able to ascertain, have been the scene of an unprovoked attack, it is a great satisfaction to find the princes and people of India ready, with one accord, to rally around the standard of Great Britain, even at a great distance from their own frontier. It is impossible to say now how the present crisis will end. If it end in war, that result will be in spite of the earnest and anxious endeavors of the British Government to avoid so dire a result, and in defiance of their most moderate and conciliatory conduct.'"

The London stock market showed an improvement on Wednesday, and there was a general feeling that war might be averted. The Shah of Persia, it was said, had offered England 50,000 troops in the event of war.

In St. Petersburg, on Thursday, a despatch from General Komaroff was published from Dashkepri, April 6, in which he said: "The remnant of the Afghan detachment defeated by the Russian forces at the engagement on the Kushk River fled to Herat after the battle. The losses of the Afghans were largely in excess of the first estimate. In addition to those who fell on the field of battle or died of their wounds, many perished during their forced retreat from cold and hunger. I am engaged in organizing a provisional administration of Panjdeh and the surrounding district, in order to prevent anarchy. The Russian detachment remains at Dashkepri." The despatch concluded that there was no necessity of an immediate forward movement on the part of the Russians.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon, said that the Government had received from Sir Peter Lumsden a reply to their request for an independent report upon the Panjdeh incident. In this it is stated that General Komaroff was aware at as early a date as the 28th of March of the understanding agreed upon on March 17 between Russia and England. According to the terms of this

understanding, England was to deter the Afghans, and the Czar was to deter his troops, from advancing beyond the positions they then respectively occupied, until some subsequent agreement about the demarcation of the Afghan frontier could be reached between the two governments. The battle on the Kushk was fought, therefore, several days after General Komaroff had been made aware of the agreement not to advance. Mr. Gladstone, being asked if the Government had protested against the recent occupation of Panjdeh by General Komaroff and his establishment of a Russian administration there, answered that the Government had not yet made either occurrence a subject of official communication with Russia. The Government was awaiting further information concerning these events.

Mr. Gladstone made the additional statement that a telegram from Sir Peter Lumsden, dated April 13, and containing a full account of the events of March 30 (the day of the Panjdeh attack) had been received in cipher and would be made public as soon as it could be translated. He added: "The fact that the Russian commander was aware of the agreement of March 17 before March 30, and the question as to whether or not he acted upon instructions or contrary to instructions concerning that agreement, will form the subject of future communications between the Government and Russia. In regard to the reported establishment by the Russians of an administration at Panjdeh, the Government knows nothing officially, and must await fuller information."

The London *Standard* on Saturday published despatches from Tirpul that on April 10 the Russians stopped their advance movement and began to retire to their former positions. General Komaroff had also left Panjdeh. The London *Times's* St. Petersburg correspondent on Saturday telegraphed: "I have the best authority for stating that General Komaroff advanced in accordance with express orders from the Governor of the Caucasus, and General Komaroff's telegram to St. Petersburg expressly stated this."

On Monday the Afghan dispute was more warlike, and the London stock market was depressed. Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, made the following statement: "The Government on Friday received a despatch from Sir Peter Lumsden, but this telegram was not an answer to our inquiries and instructions despatched to him on the 10th instant. It will be necessary to await that answer before we can make any statement. The telegram received from Sir Peter Lumsden on Friday tended to confirm his previous statements, which certainly apparently conflicted with General Komaroff's statements."

The reply of M. de Giers to Earl Granville's demand for an explanation of General Komaroff's attack upon the Afghans, which was received at the British Foreign Office on Saturday, says that General Komaroff's despatches, copies of which have been forwarded to the British Government, sufficiently explain the Panjdeh incident, and that it is needless to supplement them. M. de Giers, in his turn, complains strongly of what he calls the excessive numbers of Gen. Sir Peter Lumsden's escort. He says that this display of a British armed force on Afghan territory, together with the military demonstrations at Rawalpindi and Earl Dufferin's defiant language, encouraged the Afghans to provoke the Russian attack by leading them to believe that they could rely upon British support. M. de Giers does not express the slightest regret for General Komaroff's action, and even suggests that General Komaroff would have neglected his duty if he had failed to attack the Afghans.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Tuesday afternoon, announced that the Government had received Sir Peter Lumsden's answer to the Government's inquiries of the 10th inst. "The message," said Mr. Gladstone, "shows how seriously Sir Peter Lumsden is at issue with General Komaroff. We cannot enter into details or state the effect of this difference in a few words. The whole matter will be laid on the table here early to-morrow." The Government asked for a credit of $55,000,000 for the army and navy account. Of the $55,000,000, the sum of $22,500,000 is for war purposes in the Sudan, and $32,500,000 for other naval and military preparations. Mr. Gladstone said: "The Government feel that it is necessary to hold all the resources of the empire, including the forces in the Sudan, available for instant use wherever required." He requested that the credit be debated on April 27. The House of Lords immediately passed the credit without debate. The full text of Sir Peter Lumsden's reply, which was made public on Tuesday night, contradicts General Komaroff's statement at every material point. Mr. Gladstone's statement is considered as indicating little hope of peace.

The Russian fleet at Cronstadt is ready to put to sea.

The Amir of Afghanistan having requested the recall of the English engineer officers conducting the work of strengthening the fortifications of Herat, orders have been issued that they shall at once cease operations.

France has demanded of the Egyptian Government an unconditional reopening of the printing-office of the *Bosphore Égyptien*, the French newspaper which the Khedive's Government forcibly suppressed at Cairo recently. Trouble is apprehended at Cairo and Alexandria. English officers have been sent to the latter place to report on the best way to put it in an immediate state of defence.

Nubar Pasha, Egyptian Minister for Foreign Affairs, sent France on Monday a curiously evasive note concerning her demand for the rehabilitation of the *Bosphore Égyptien*. He says that as the Porte, the suzerain of Egypt, was the authority which agreed to the terms of the capitulations under which France and other Powers have a lodgment in Egypt, he (Nubar Pasha) cannot answer France's demand until he has consulted the Porte regarding the proper interpretation of the terms of the capitulations as applicable to the case of the *Bosphore Égyptien*, and also as to the form to be given to the Egyptian Government's reply to France's demand.

France on Tuesday notified Nubar Pasha that his reply was unsatisfactory, and gave him until 4 o'clock that afternoon to furnish a satisfactory answer. Nubar Pasha at once replied that the Porte approved Egypt's action in suppressing the paper, and that he was communicating with England on the subject, and asked for a short extension of the time to be allowed him in which to furnish his answer.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Gladstone said that Egypt had not acted alone in the matter of seizing and suppressing the French newspaper, the *Bosphore gyptien*, at Cairo. He admitted that England was not in a position to disclaim all responsibility for the act.

The Porte has replied to England that, in the event of war between England and Russia, Turkey will remain neutral and will close the Dardanelles and Bosphorus to men-of-war of either nation. Notice of this decision has been sent by the Porte to the various foreign ambassadors at Constantinople.

On Thursday the British troops occupied Otao, eight miles west of Handub. They met with no opposition from Osman Digna's forces. It is said that the latter have gradually dispersed.

Osman Digna has written a letter to the Amir of Berber, advising him not to fight any more, because the English are building a railway to Berber, and his (Osman Digna's) army is dispersed.

A Blue-Book puts the effective strength of the British regular army at 188,000 men, that of the reserves at 47,000 men, that of the militia at 125,000 men, and that of the volunteers at 215,000 men.

The Prince and Princess of Wales did not repeat their Dublin triumph in Cork on Wednesday. Everything within the power of the Loyalists was done to make the reception of the royal visitors a success. When the Prince and Princess emerged from the railway station they were greeted with cheer after cheer. During their progress in the parade, workmen and boys ran alongside their carriage and kept up the cheering to drown the hisses of the Nationalists, who lined the entire route, and made continual hostile demonstrations. The conduct of the Leaguers aroused these Loyalists to a high pitch of enthusiasm, and they made the streets echo with shouts of welcome. Later in the day the Nationalists scattered throughout the city small bands, breaking windows, tearing down decorations, and doing other lawless acts. The police were attacked and beaten unmercifully. In many cases the police charged with fixed bayonets, but were repulsed by the mob. The officers then used their revolvers and a desperate hand-to-hand fight ensued. At midnight the streets were in possession of the mob, but by 4 o'clock on Thursday morning the rioting had been suppressed. A number of people were seriously injured. The royal party arrived safely at Killarney on Thursday afternoon, and, with the exception of some slight hissing, were cordially greeted.

Queen Victoria has, it is said, arranged to visit Ireland next autumn.

M. Clamageran, French Minister of Finance, has resigned, ostensibly on account of ill-health, but really because he could not agree with his colleagues on the question of a new loan.

M. Sadi-Carnot, the new French Minister of Finance, will, upon the reassembling of the Chamber of Deputies, present a bill for the issue of a new French loan to amount to 600,000,000 or 700,000,000 francs, in the form of perpetual 3 per cent. rentes.

The Governments of France, Holland, Portugal, and Turkey have declared quarantine against all vessels arriving from Spanish ports, on account of reported cholera epidemic on the southern and eastern coasts of Spain. Many inland towns in Spain now refuse to receive goods from Valencia.

The Hague Banking Company has failed under circumstances indicating a criminal misuse of its funds.

Walter von Goethe, the only remaining lineal descendant of the great poet, died at Leipsic on Thursday.

Constantine Rossetti, the Rumanian poet and statesman, is dead in his seventy-first year. He was a member of the Revolutionary Committee in 1846, and for a time edited a Revolutionary newspaper. In 1850 he went to Paris and established several newspapers and published patriotic works. In 1861, having returned to Rumania, he became Minister of Public Instruction and Worship, and in 1876 President of the Chamber. In conjunction with M. Bratiano, he proclaimed the independence of Rumania, and entered into an alliance with Russia in order to make war on Turkey. In 1878 he was appointed Minister of the Interior, which post he held till 1880.

Three of Riel's scouts have been captured who left his camp at Batoche's Crossing about one week ago. White Cap was there with all his lodges of Sioux refugees from Minnesota in 1862. Of half-breeds there were 250, poorly armed. Nine lodges of Teton Sioux are on the east side with Riel, and five lodges are on the west side. There are some Cree lodges and Indian allies, but they do not number more than 100. Riel has divided his men into fighting bands of ten each. General Middleton asked the oldest of the prisoners what he would do if allowed to return to Batoche's. He answered he would go at once to White Cap and tell him not to fight the whites. General Middleton told him to go and tell the Indians they should receive $500 reward for the rescue of any of the seven prisoners now in Riel's hands, and proportionately for the rescue of all.

"THE PRINCIPLES OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY."

THE "principles of the Republican party" are so eagerly inquired for, and there is so much mystery about their exact nature and whereabouts, that the slightest sign of an intention to reveal them excites the liveliest interest all over the country. The appearance of two leaders of the party, Messrs. Evarts and Dawes, at the dinner of the Middlesex Club in Boston on Saturday last, to make speeches, was, therefore, hailed with much delighted expectation.

Mr. Evarts opened with some account of his boyhood in Boston, and then called attention to the fact that he was speaking on the anniversary of the fight at Lexington, and that while the English date American independence from the treaty of 1783, the State of New York dates it from April 19, 1775, and that thirty years ago the people of the Northern States were brought face to face with the question "whether force and right should combine against tyranny and oppression in Kansas." Coming down to the present, he intimated that "a rapacious combination" was now in possession of power, and that a certain "experiment," the nature of which he did not describe, was not likely to be repeated unless this combination "surrendered up every office to us." The exact meaning of this we have not, after much study, been able to get at, but we feel satisfied that it contains a "principle" of some kind.

Mr. Evarts further added that he was "resolute as to the duty and the purpose and the expectations of the Republicans of New York as to what they were going to do." He was also much interested in finding out what the Republicans of Massachusetts "were going to do about it," and felt no doubt that if "we do not mean to do it in New York, you (the Republicans of Massachusetts) mean to do it for us." On reading this we felt sure that the thing here described as "it," which the Republicans both of Massachusetts and New York were going to "do," was the principle or principles of the Republican party, of which we were in search. We accordingly followed Mr. Evarts through the rest of the passage, with every sense on the alert, in the hope of hearing what "it" was, but he refused or neglected to describe "it." The nearest he came to describing it was in affirming that "the country which prospered under the Republican party, would 'prevail,'" and that some "future exhibition, to the admiration of the world," would be "under the same auspices and the same array of banners and trumpets." If this points clearly to anything, it is to the reappearance of the London and Barnum show next year, under the same management, which we presume nobody seriously doubted.

Mr. Evarts next divided the Union into two "segments," one containing the region between the Hudson River on one side, Cape Cod and Long Island Sound on another, and Canada at the north; the other, the rest of the country, and observed that this first segment furnished three members of the Cabinet, while the West only furnished one—Colonel Vilas—and concluded that when Colonel Vilas under these circumstances "sits in the Cabinet, he must wonder where all the people come from." Why he should wonder, unless he is suffering from some cerebral malady, it is hard to see. Apparently, however, this proposition had some connection in Mr. Evarts's mind with another with which he closed this branch of his subject—"that for himself (Mr. Evarts), if he can look at this country, and what is now brooding in the minds and breeding in the hearts of the American people, they do not look with favor on the distribution of power by the Democratic party." But it is hard to tell how anybody feels about offices, and who has "brooding" going on in his mind and "breeding" going on in his heart at one and the same time. The presumption, of course, is that he feels badly, but the newspapers are filled with advertisements of remedies for such cases.

Mr. Evarts next gave an account of the meaning of his own election to the Senate. As well as we can make out, it meant that "instead of disorder in the ranks, perfect unanimity of feeling and harmony was to be the rule in the future." He evidently, however, contemplates the possibility of another defeat at the next State election, but he provides for that by promising "to show and prove that every Republican had done his duty," and that if an honest count showed that the Democrats had won, why, in that case they were to retain the State offices. One thing, he said, he could not understand, and that was that certain persons who "valued and loved the principles of the Republican party," could go and vote for the candidate of the other party because they did not like that of their own party. But here again he failed to mention what "the principles" were. He only knew that if such things could be, "things had come to a bad pass."

Mr. Dawes was no more instructive than Mr. Evarts. He mentioned "the principles of the Republican party," only to say that they were "laid in the foundation and built on the superstructure of the past," and there he left them. In the rest of his speech he devoted himself to asking what the Administration was "going to do about" "the great continental policy," and about the "emancipation of this continent from foreign control," and about a certain "tribute" which "our commerce with the Pacific States pays to the rule and capital of Europe," and what answer it was going to make to "the demand of the great army of the unemployed," and another "greater army of the discontented who are calling for a readjustment of the relations between capital and labor." We trust the Administration will not try to answer these questions. To answer some questions successfully one has to be as silly as the man who propounds them. We trust, therefore, that the President will let Mr. Dawes answer them himself. Nobody else is quite equal to it. But alas for the grand old party when it is thus that it speaks, or is spoken for, on parade days! Twenty years ago, who would have thought that it would live on after its brains were gone?

THE PRESIDENT AND THE JUDICIARY.

THE recent announcement that Justice Wylie, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, desires to retire from the bench as soon as possible, suggests the importance of one duty of the Presidential office which is too seldom considered in the choice of a Chief Executive. The Constitution expressly vests the President with the appointment of judges of the Supreme Court; and the general clause giving him also the appointment of "all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law," places in his hands the naming of all other judges of Federal courts both in the States and the Territories. Through this prerogative a President may make an impression upon one of the three great departments of the Government which will endure through a number of succeeding administrations. Thus Andrew Jackson during his eight years in the White House almost entirely remade the Supreme Court; he gave it a new head, and six of the eight Associate Justices when he retired on the 4th of March, 1837, were of his selection. It was not until 1852 that the highest tribunal ceased to have a majority of its members with commissions signed by "Old Hickory," while of Chief-Justice Taney, who survived until 1864, the story used to be told that old Ben Wade said he had for many weary years earnestly prayed that the author of the Dred Scott decision might live until a Republican President could name his successor—and he began to fear that he had prayed too hard.

The President now has the appointment of judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, nine in number, nine circuit judges, fifty-six district judges, six judges of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, and five judges of the United States Court of Claims, all of whom are appointed for life, besides a chief justice and two or three associate justices of the Supreme Court for each of the Territories under the four years' term. Excluding these latter temporary appointments, here is a body of nearly a hundred men, who have been picked out with reference to mental strength rather than physical vigor, who had usually passed middle life when appointed, and who have since served on the average fully ten years. Young men have occasionally been elevated to the bench ever since George Washington appointed James Iredell a judge of the Supreme Court at the age of thirty-nine, and John Adams made Bushrod Washington when only thirty-six Iredell's colleague; but such cases have always been the exception. Indeed, the tendency has been toward raising the standard of age, as is shown by the interesting fact that the average for Supreme Court judges appointed during the first two decades after Washington's inauguration was below forty-seven years, while the average for the appointees since Chase was made Chief Justice in 1864 has been fifty-six years. Death, disability, and the opportunity for resignation on a pension after long service, make inevitable many changes in the course of four years, in a body thus constituted. To say nothing of the appointments for lower courts, three vacancies on the Supreme bench had to be filled between March 4, 1881, and March 4, 1885. With five out of the nine present judges past sixty-five, one of them in his seventy-third year, and at least one in delicate health, it would not be strange if more than a third of that bench should need to

be replaced before 1889. Moreover, the passage of some measure for the relief of this court—either through an increase of its members or the establishment of other appellate courts—which can hardly be postponed four years longer, will give the President a number of judicial appointments outside the filling of vacancies. Altogether it seems probable that Mr. Cleveland will be called upon to name a larger number of judges during the next four years than any of his predecessors in a similar period.

The Republican party's long lease of power has resulted in making the Federal judiciary almost entirely Republican in political faith. The last appointee of a Democratic President to the Supreme Court disappeared at Nathan Clifford's death in 1881, and had Judge Field continued with the party which he supported when Lincoln nominated him, our highest court would to-day be unanimously Republican. This is the case with the Court of Claims, the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, and the judges of the Circuit Courts; while only half a dozen among the older District judges hold the commissions of Democratic Presidents. Though politics ought not to decide such a question—ought not, indeed, to enter into its consideration—the almost invariable rule has long been for a President to restrict to lawyers of his own party the range of possible choice for a vacant judgeship. Mr. Cleveland will be excusable in observing this rule, since if all the many appointments to the bench which he is likely to make are from the Democracy, a political equilibrium will even then hardly be established. There can be no question that the representation of both parties upon the bench conduces to the more cheerful acceptance of its decisions by the body of citizens, and the appointment of a number of Democratic judges will therefore be in the public interest. The system of an elective judiciary in New York relieved Governor Cleveland of this branch of a President's duties, but the character of his appointments to other offices indicates the standard which he may be expected to maintain in nominations for the bench. The vigorous contempt which he entertains for personal canvassing for office is assurance that the country will be spared a repetition of the disagreeable spectacle presented a few years ago, when a candidate for a vacancy in our highest tribunal won the prize after a struggle conducted with the aid of petitions, endorsements, and personal solicitation.

THE OCEAN CARRYING TRADE.

THE *Tribune* has discovered in the suggestion to convene an extra session of Congress—if there be an ocean war between Great Britain and Russia—a furtive purpose "to precipitate as soon as possible a struggle for the overthrow of protection, not only of American ship-building, but of other American industries." The only object of such a session that any one has yet avowed, is to modify for a longer or shorter period the law of 1792, which forbids the Secretary of the Treasury to issue an American register to a foreign-built vessel. And the end to be obtained by the modification is to enable Americans, if they choose, to buy vessels, built of metal, and over 2,000 tons in size, for immediate use on the ocean, and in carrying American mails, but not for use in our coastwise trade. But the *Tribune* says of those who suggest the modification: "They profess great zeal about American shipping. In reality, their great anxiety is to open wider markets to British manufacturers, though our own industries may thereby be prostrated."

The implication in this paragraph clearly is that our existing customs laws prevent the introduction of British materials for the building of vessels, unless a protective duty is paid thereon. But the fact is otherwise. The law of June 6, 1872, promoted by the energetic builder of the *Dolphin*, declares in effect that "all lumber, timber, hemp, manila, and iron and steel rods, bars, spikes, nuts and bolts, and copper and composition metal, which may be necessary for the construction and equipment of vessels built in the United States" for *foreign* trade, shall be free of duty. All British materials used by Mr. Roach, and entering into vessels built for such trade, are, therefore, already on the free list.

It may or it may not be true that the wages received by workingmen engaged in the building of vessels on the Clyde have a smaller purchasing power of food, raiment, shelter, and education than the wages paid by Mr. Roach. Without pausing now to discuss that vexed question, let it be conceded that the wages paid by Mr. Roach have a trifle larger purchasing power, and that to such extent the vessel built on the Clyde will be introduced here, if the law of 1792 be modified as proposed, without payment of any duty on the value of the labor expended in the construction of the vessel. Mr. Roach is free to introduce as many as he pleases of those Clyde laborers, and so in that form the labor as well as the material can come in duty free.

But, if that were not so, the real question is whether or not, if there be war between England and Russia, the United States would as a country be the gainer by the naturalization of foreign-built vessels of large tonnage to be used only in foreign trade. Under similar circumstances there was a large body of Republican opinion in 1870 that the law of 1792 should be modified. President Grant, and Secretary Fish, and the whole Administration so thought. John Sherman, in the Senate, advocated the measure "as one of those rare opportunities sometimes offered to a nation, as well as an individual, to largely improve its material interests without the sacrifice of any interest whatever." Senator Chandler, of Michigan, took a similar view. The resistance to the measure in the Senate came chiefly from those who deemed it unwise and unfair to allow a completed vessel to come in free of duty while such high rates were inflicted on the foreign materials of which the vessel was built; but since 1870 the laws levying those high rates have been repealed, and in 1872 such material became duty free.

In the House of Representatives General Schenck, of Ohio, Mr. Allison, of Iowa, General Logan, of Illinois, and General Butler, of Massachusetts—all of them then conspicuous Republicans and protectionists—strongly urged an adoption of the recommendation of President Grant, and a majority of the House seemed to be in favor of the measure, which was only defeated by talking it to death in both houses, in the last hour of the last day of the session. Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, denounced the advice given by President Grant for loyal reasons, as being in the interest of the "Lairds and the builders of the *Alabama* and the *Shenandoah*, and other piratical vessels." Mr. James Brooks, a Democratic representative from New York, opposed the recommendation of President Grant upon the ground that such enormous taxes were then levied on American ship-building as to render it impossible for our own builders to compete successfully with foreign builders. But he offered to sustain the President's recommendations if all the materials necessary for ship-building, and all ship stores, to be used in foreign navigation, were admitted free of duty for six months. The materials were made free in 1872, and remain free to-day.

There may possibly be somebody somewhere to contend that it is of little consequence whether or not the vessels that do the carrying trade of the world are, in any part, navigated by Americans, and are under the American flag; that what America seeks is cheap freights, and if Englishmen, or Germans, or Italians, or Spaniards will carry our surplus products on the ocean cheaper than we can, under our existing laws, they should do it. But there are others who will insist that we need and should have a mercantile marine as a measure of preparation for self-defence, by way of training seamen and officers, and by the possession of powerful ocean steamers, which, as in the case of the *Oregon*, the *Alaska*, the *Umbria*, and the *Etruria*, can be quickly used as efficient armed cruisers. And there will be others who feel that the course of trade, and the creation of markets for our surplus products, can be largely influenced by the ownership of vessels to carry the products and search out markets in our own interest. What is needed is a beginning in the American ownership of ocean steamers under circumstances promising exceptional advantages. When ownership begins, the necessity of American ship-yards for repairs will begin, and then will follow a capacity for building new vessels cheaply according to our ascertained needs. It would be to the renown of President Cleveland's Administration to have begun such a patriotic work.

OUR OFFICE-SEEKERS.

THE United States Civil-Service Commission has had to issue a notice warning people that no unusual number of vacancies exists, or is likely to exist, in the offices covered by the Civil-Service Act. This has been rendered necessary by the very large number of candidates who have been presenting themselves for examination all over the country, evidently in the expectation of something in the nature of a "clean sweep." But there is not the slightest probability of anything of the kind in the offices which are filled by competitive examination. There will, doubtless, be many removals in these offices, but they will be removals for cause, and the cause will be ascertained by careful inquiry or observation. The chiefs of departments can have no other motive for making removals from these

places than the good of the service, because they cannot under the law fill the vacancies with persons of their own choice. The list of "eligibles," that is, of persons who have already successfully passed their examinations, and have, therefore, the first claim on any vacancies which may be made, is already very large, far larger than any very probable or even possible demand of the departments during the next six months is likely to call for.

This great rush of applicants is, we see, by some journals ascribed to a peculiarly American passion for Government offices. But there is really nothing peculiarly American about it. The passion for Government offices is strong in all countries, because the number of people who shrink from a life of competition, such as one has to lead in most callings, is in all countries very large. The number of those who for some reason or other dislike the struggle for existence in the ordinary trades and callings, and are willing to resign themselves to a salaried life, without much expectation of bettering their condition as the years roll on, is everywhere very great. They are eager applicants for all kinds of routine work which will give them a fixed income without anxiety. But they are really not nearly as numerous in this country in proportion to population as they are in France and Italy, where the commercial and adventurous spirit is not strong, and where aristocratic traditions make Government employment peculiarly "genteel."

In truth, there is much reason for believing that the office-seekers in this country would always have remained a small body, in view of the generally self-reliant spirit of the population, and the numerous openings offered by the country to enterprise and energy, if the public service had not been converted by the spoils system into a kind of lottery. Ever since Jackson's day, it has been the custom once in four years at least to offer a large number of the places to the winners in a kind of game of chance, in which any one could take a hand, even if he had neither money nor character to stake. All that was needed was "influence," and there was nobody too stupid, or too dishonest, or too ignorant to acquire influence in some way. The result has been to diffuse through the public mind a fixed impression that everybody at all times, if worst comes to worst, could fall back on the public for a support. It is really extraordinary to what an extent the public service has come to be considered a charity, a refuge for misfortune or distress, not unnaturally in consequence of the habit, which also came in with the spoils system, of regarding Government business as somehow not business in the ordinary sense of the term.

It will take a good while to break up this habit—that is, to get people all over the country out of the way of considering Government offices as last resorts for those who have failed in other walks of life, or find difficulty in establishing themselves in regular occupations. If President Cleveland adheres to the policy he is now pursuing, a great deal will be done toward it even in four years. No matter which party succeeds at the next election, it will not venture to undo what he has been doing. No President, for instance, will probably venture, after what has happened in the Pearson case, to say that he wants the New York Post-office for party purposes. In other words, the public mind is getting used to the business view of the Government service, and when once this has been accomplished, it will never go back to the spoils view.

The friends of Mr. Blaine are trying, in the half-comic way in which much of their political work is now done, to hinder the change by stimulating the discontent of the old-fashioned Democrats, who have always looked on elections as simply a mode of deciding who should have the patronage. In aid of this, some Republican office-holders in Washington have been induced to throw up their places without being threatened with removal, with a flourish of trumpets, as if they knew how to play the game fairly, even if the President did not. And then we are hearing a good many jeremiads from Blaine politicians, like Mr. Phelps, over the irreparable wrong which the President is doing to his party—from those, that is to say, who were so sure during the canvass that, no matter how good his intentions were, the party would inevitably get the better of him, and bring his good intentions to nought.

SEPARATE CITY ELECTIONS.

THE failure of the Spring Elections Bill has brought into prominence the Constitutional amendment now pending in the Assembly, providing for separate city elections. The differences between the two are important. The Spring Elections Bill simply provided for a municipal election in the spring, giving us two independent campaigns in the same year. The objections urged against it were, first, the expense of this two-fold machinery, second, the doubt whether the voters could be got to take a sufficient interest in an additional election, separated by only a few months from the regular voting time, and, third, the fear that the scheme was a "Democratic device." The latter argument seems to have been most powerful at Albany, where the bill was defeated by a party vote, one of the leading Republican Senators going so far as to urge that it should be killed because it would make "deals" more difficult; deals with Republicans, he contended, being necessary to good government. The party opposition was, however, much strengthened by the sincere belief of many that the other two objections were valid, and also that separate municipal elections would be better secured by other means. In fact, spring elections were defeated by a union of Republican politicians with constitutional reformers, and this, of course, makes it incumbent upon the latter to do all in their power to press their alternative scheme, and to give the honest Republicans at Albany an opportunity of showing that they are unwilling to commit their party to the position of simply defeating a measure aimed at "deals" and then going home.

This is the view taken of their responsibility by the advocates of the Constitutional amendment, who are now pressing it actively. By doing so they place the Republican majority in an awkward position. This majority has defeated one measure for separate elections; if they defeat another, and that other a better one, the result will simply inure to the advantage of their opponents, who will be able to add next fall a new count to their already tolerably long indictment for misgovernment of the city at Albany, and thus increase their prospects of getting judgment at the polls. Under such circumstances Senator Lansing's speech on "deals" and their necessity will be worth a good many hundred votes to the Democrats in this city.

The only real question as to the pending Constitutional amendment is, therefore, Is it a good measure? Does it meet the valid objections urged against the Spring Elections Bill, and secure something that is really worth securing? The amendment, as originally introduced, provided for biennial sessions of the Legislature. This clause has, however, been struck out, and, as it now stands, it is wholly free from embarrassment arising from that source. It now provides simply for a separation of the city from the State and national elections, in the case of all cities holding their elections in November, by having the former take place in odd years, beginning with 1887, the latter taking place in even years, beginning with 1888. To accomplish this the Senatorial term is made four years instead of two, the term of Assemblymen two years instead of one, and the term of the Governor and other State officers four years. The term of municipal officers is also made two years.

It is obvious that this amendment completely meets the chief objection to the Spring Elections Bill. Under it city elections would be separated not by a few months but by a whole year from State or national elections, and if there is any popular interest in municipal affairs in the chief cities of the State—and we believe there is a great deal—no system could be better adapted to bring it out. The interval between the election of Mayor and that of Governor or President will be so great that it will be almost out of the question for the party managers to persuade the public to vote for or against a candidate for Mayor solely on grounds which have nothing to do with city government. At the last municipal election in this city, leading newspapers, because they were afraid of bringing in the Democrats—or Republicans, as the case happened to be—at Washington, and thus jeopardizing the cause of civil-service reform, or "protection to American industry," or "the negro," declined to take sides as to the fitness of Mr. Grace to select men competent to pave, police, light, and drain this city. Such a state of affairs is only intelligible in the very storm and stress of a national campaign; with elections a year apart it would be nearly impossible.

The only objection urged against this method of securing separate elections is that it lengthens the terms of office, and it is maintained that the people of the State would never vote to do this; that there is something "undemocratic" in it. In reply, the advocates of the amendment say with great force that there is no precise term fixed by the principles of democratic government for office. We have in this country, and have had ever since the Government began, terms of office varying from one year to a lifetime. The President holds office for four years, Senators for six, Representatives for two, United States Judges for life; the Mayor of

New York for two, most of the heads of departments for four, the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor for three, the Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, and Attorney-General for two, the Superintendent of Prisons for five. In some fifteen States the Governor's term is now four years. If it be said there is danger in lengthening the legislative term, the answer is that one great source of trouble at Albany is the obscurity and irresponsibility of members, and that this would be considerably lessened by giving them a substantial term. Again, if there is anything in this objection, it is met to a very considerable degree by the very lengthening of the term of the Governor. Owing to his active exercise of the veto power, the public of this State have come to rely upon the Governor as their most effective defender against any wrongs attempted by the Legislature; and anything that increases the power, responsibility, and dignity of the Governor of New York is a gain to the people of the whole State.

Weighing these arguments fairly, it must be said that the advocates of the amendment make out a substantial case. Undoubtedly if the people of the State are alarmed at it, they will vote it down at the polls; but as it is the only means now offering of getting a separate, distinct, and intelligent vote on municipal affairs in the two largest cities in the country, the Legislature certainly ought to give the people an opportunity of deciding it. To the inhabitants of New York and Brooklyn it is hardly necessary to commend it. What they most need, and know they most need, is the right and practice of self-government, untrammelled and uninterfered with either at Albany or Washington. Officers selected by themselves, a permanent charter of their own, separate and *free* elections—in a word, self-government—is the modest sum of their demands, which sooner or later in all its parts they are determined to obtain.

HISTORY VIEWED THROUGH MME. DE SÉVIGNÉ.

PARIS, April 10, 1885.

THE Correspondence of Mme. de Sévigné may be considered in many senses as an historical document. It brings before us many important historical characters, shows us many heroes *en déshabillé*. It gives us what dry history cannot give, it takes us into the daily life of the men and women of the seventeenth century. We learn to see as they saw, to feel as they felt; we enter into their prejudices, their passions, their ideal of life. It is, however, somewhat singular to find a work entitled 'Madame de Sévigné, historien.' The author of this work, which has just appeared, is M. Combes, Professor of History in the Faculty of Letters at Bordeaux. M. Combes has already published a volume on the 'Princesse des Ursins.' His object in this new volume is to paint the court and the age of Louis XIV. from Mme. de Sévigné, and solely with her help.

The division of the book is rather singular: M. Combes takes one by one the historical personages mentioned in Mme. de Sévigné's correspondence, beginning with the Cardinal de Retz. M. Régnier has given us, in the great edition of Hachette, the first letter of the Cardinal to Mme. de Sévigné, after the Fronde, in 1654. The Cardinal had escaped from the castle of Nantes, where he was a prisoner. He had broken his leg and his shoulder, but he had succeeded in reaching the Pyrenees, and he was free in Spain. He owed much to the Chevalier de Sévigné, who was living near Nantes, and called him his liberator. For ten years Retz wandered in Spain, in Italy. Seeing that all was over with the Frondeurs in France, he got permission to return, and remained quiet, sometimes in Paris, sometimes at Retz in Britanny, sometimes at Commercy in Lorraine. He was unhappy, hopeless. "Fate, fate," he writes to Mme. de Sévigné, "what is fate? It is very ungrateful, and does not justify the faith we place in it." Mme. de Sévigné tried to console and to amuse him. The Cardinal had other friends left: Corneille and Molière read their plays to him, Boileau read him his 'Lutrin' and the 'Art Poétique.' "Nous tâchons de l'amuser," says Mme. de Sévigné to her daughter. "Your letters amuse him also; and, mind, never constrain yourself. If any folly comes to the end of your pen, he is charmed with it as well as with what is serious. Religion does not yet forbid these little *chamarrures*." The Cardinal spent his last years in paying the enormous debt which he had incurred during the Fronde. "At Commercy, at Saint-Mihiel, he composed his 'Memoirs,' as I begged him to do," writes the Marquise to Bussy; "he took care of his beasts, he gave bread to his trout, he gave much time to the Church, and had still too much leisure." "Pity me," she writes to the same Bussy. "I have lost the Cardinal de Retz, who was so amiable, so worthy of esteem. I was his friend of thirty years' standing, and I have always received tender marks of his friendship. He was the most affable person in the world."

The friendship of Mme. de Sévigné for Fouquet has been a surprise to many. She saw in him only the protector of La Fontaine and of Pélisson; she knew nothing of his scandalous extravagance. Was he not a friend of the puritanic Arnauld of Port Royal and of the Marquis de Pomponne? Fouquet had been made Superintendent of Finances at the age of thirty, under Mazarin. When he was arrested, in 1661, he was only forty-five years old. He had paid court to the young widow. He was a great seducer, and an extraordinary correspondence was found in his papers when he was arrested. Many ladies of the court were uneasy. Mme. de Sévigné was virtuous, and her correspondence with Fouquet was filled only with family details. She openly expressed her interest in the prisoner: "I think only of this unfortunate man, and I have no longer any peace. Ask our solitary, our great Arnauld to pray God for our dear friend." Some ladies asked her to go to a house opposite the Arsenal when the trial of Fouquet took place, to see him come out.

"I was masked," she says, "and I saw him coming from a great distance. The Captain of the Guards, M. d'Artagnan, was with him; five Mousquetaires were thirty or forty paces behind. I seemed dreamy. . . . When I saw him, my knees trembled and my heart began to beat so violently that I was beside myself. When he approached us, M. d'Artagnan nudged him, and made him remark that we were there. I bowed and assumed the cheerful face which you know. I don't think he knew me again, but I assure you that I was strangely moved."

Mme. de Sévigné did all she could: she used her influence, or the influence of her friends, with the members of the court. Fouquet's life was spared, but he was sent as a prisoner of state to the fortress of Pignerol, in Italy, which then belonged to France. He there became the companion of the Iron Mask, and afterward of Lauzun. Mme. de Sévigné never forgave Colbert, who had been the instigator of the pursuit of Fouquet; she pursued not only him, but all his family, with a life-long animosity. Colbert had a brother, Colbert de Croissy, and Mme. de Sévigné ridicules him constantly under the name of Figuriborum. This Figuriborum, at whom she laughs so much, whom she thinks incapable of anything, was nevertheless one of the signatories of the treaty of Nimeguen: "We are led to hope for the departure of M. de Croissy for a congress. I don't say that he will make peace, for you would not believe that a treaty of peace could be signed by him." There was an aristocratic vein in Mme. de Sévigné; she instinctively did not like new people, the people who owed everything to the royal favor. She felt a little like the noblemen and the noblewomen who made the Fronde, and who wanted some sort of independence. These ideas were not systematic: you cannot find them expressed formally in her correspondence; but she has always something to say against the Colberts, the Louvois, the *gens du Roi*. She felt a little as did Saint-Simon.

It has often been said that Mme. de Sévigné approved the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; but, with her, you must often read between the lines. Her letters were read by many people, and she had to be careful. It is true that she writes to Bussy: "You have probably read the edict by which the King revokes the Edict of Nantes: nothing can be finer than what it contains, and no King ever did anything which will be more memorable." But she writes also: "At Montpellier and in the cities of the South, many people have become converted without knowing why. Father Bourdaloue will explain it to them and will make them good Catholics." Speaking of the dragoons sent to the Cévennes, she says: "The dragoons so far have been very good missionaries." There is a touch of irony which is not far from criticism.

Louvois and Le Tellier were, like Colbert, *bêtes-noires* of Mme. Sévigné. When Louvois died, how eloquent she becomes: "So he is dead, this great minister, this great man, who filled such a place, whose *moi*, as Nicole says, was so extended, and was the centre of so many things." She depicts him on the point of expiring, and imagines a dialogue between him and God: "'O my God! give me a little time. I should so much like to check the Duke of Savoy, to checkmate the Prince of Orange.' 'No, you shall not have a moment.'" She did not dislike the Louvois, however, as much as she did Colbert; they had not been so hard on Fouquet. It was Le Tellier who had shown to Louis XIV. the letters of Mme. de Sévigné found in Fouquet's silver box, and Le Tellier wrote to Bussy on this subject, as Bussy wished to know all about his cousin: "These letters are those of a friend who has much *esprit*. They have pleased the King more than the stale *douceurs* of the others, and it is a pity that the Superintendent mixed friendship and love." The Coulanges were, besides, related to Mme. de Louvois, and M. de Coulanges was an intimate friend of Mme. de Sévigné. After the death of Louvois, he spent much time with his widow; he spent months in her magnificent domains, as large as the Duchies of Parma and Modena, so that when he drove, he asked: "This forest belongs to Madame? and this village? Also to Madame; always to Madame." This makes Mme. de Sévigné a little impatient; she confesses that "all these estates of M. de Louvois are kingdoms, and it is inconceivable that their proprietors should have sold them. Are we not too happy to have found a minister rich enough to buy this sort of kingdoms, which you place with reason above Parma and Modena!"

The chapters on Condé and Turenne are composed of extracts from Mme. de Sévigné's letters, which have become classical. It is hardly worth while to repeat what she says about the visit of Louis XIV. to Chantilly, and the death of poor Vatel, or about the death of Turenne; these pages are found in the text-books of the common schools. The readers of Mme. de Sévigné will, of course, find nothing new in a work which consists entirely of extracts from her correspondence,

Still, it was possible, with a certain amount of concentration, if the word is allowable, to make amusing portraits of some forgotten or half-forgotten characters. This is what M. Combes attempts to do with what he calls the ridiculous women of the *grand siècle*. Mme. de Sévigné had a keen sense of humor; she was naturally of a very gay disposition, and she painted ridiculous characters with a master hand. Her gallery of odd people is very curious—Mme. de Coetquen, the friend of Turenne and of the Chevalier de Lorraine, the great ladies of Brittany, but above all, Mlle. du Plessis, the perpetual butt of Mme. de Sévigné. Speaking of these provincial ladies to Mme. de Grignan, Mme. de Sévigné suddenly becomes serious: "You laugh, my daughter," says she, "but all the virtues and all the vices, all the qualities and all the follies are mixed together in these provinces. I find here souls of peasants as right as a straight line, loving truth and virtue as naturally as horses trot. The hand which throws all this into its universe knows well what it does, and makes its glory of everything." These little outbursts are frequent in the letters of a person who delighted in reading the Jansenists, who studied Nicole, who liked to "aller en Bourdaloue," as she said. She liked to preach to her daughter who was a Cartesian, a sort of *esprit fort*, too "advanced" for her own taste.

After the ridiculous ladies, M. Combes comes to the criminal Mme. de Brinvilliers, to La Voisin and her accomplices. The trials of these women shed a strange light on the society of the seventeenth century. When the Duchesse de Bouillon appeared before La Reynie, and was examined by him, "Did you," said he to her, "see the devil at La Voisin's—for you went there to see him [this Voisin was a sort of sorceress as well as a vender of poisons]?" "Sir," answered the haughty little Duchess, "I see him now, disguised as a judge, very ugly and very wicked." M. Combes's book is full of such anecdotes. This last one comes from Voltaire; but as almost everything comes from Mme. de Sévigné, I confess that I had rather spend my time with her than with the Bordeaux professor. I cannot help asking myself, after having gone through this volume, why it ever was written.

Correspondence.

SHALL AND WILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to state in a few words a practical guide to the distinction between *shall* and *will* which I have found of great use:

Shall is distinctly prophetic. It may be regarded as the normal form of the future. But to prophesy what another man shall do, or what natural phenomena shall occur, involves discourtesy or at least presumption. Accordingly, *will*, which implies volition on the part of the subject of the verb, is substituted for *shall*, as a matter of implied courtesy.

My rule, then, which, I need not say, I draw from Sir E. Head, is this: Use *shall* except when it might be rude or presumptuous. B. W.

Harvard College, April 11, 1885.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With thanks for your timely "Shall and Will" article of the 9th inst., let me contribute two mnemonics which I have found useful.

1. This Hibernicism—an "awful example" of what to avoid:

Pat, in the water, *loq.*, "I will be drownded and nobody shall save me."

2. These lines of George Wither—a brilliant example to be followed:

"For I will for no man's pleasure
Change a syllable or measure;
Pedants shall not tie my strains
To our antique poet's veins;
Being born as free as these,
I will sing as I shall please."

I call your article timely because such articles are always timely for any English-speaking people not English, and conspicuously so for the Americans of to-day, among whom, I submit, this "verbal sin" is at least as prevalent as among either Irish or Scotch. Hibernicus.

April 4, 1885.

"SADDY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may assist in determining the origin of the word "saddy" for "thanks" or "thank you" to know that in Cumberland and Perry Counties, Pa., where the settlers were chiefly Scotch-Irish, the word had also another meaning, viz.: "courte'sy." Thus it was common to say to a girl on entering a room, or on meeting a superior, "Make a saddy" for "Make a courte'sy."

Warren Holden.

Girard College, Philadelphia, April 18, 1885.

MASPERO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have before me an autograph letter written by M. Maspero, the distinguished Egyptologist, and the signature confirms your observation in the last number of the *Nation* respecting the proper spelling of his name. The "e" is without accent. It is a little singular, however, that on a former occasion I referred to the signature to decide the same question, and after a hasty glance wrote it with the accent. I now see that the pen slipped between the top and bottom of the "p," leaving no mark in the middle, and that the top was so perfect an accent as to deceive my eye. Possibly Professor Sayce and Miss Edwards may have been misled in a similar manner. W. F. W.

Boston, April 18.

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The study of English in the schools and colleges of the South has of late excited a degree of interest that augurs hopefully for the progress of the language in the near future. Previous to the civil war the historical or philological study of English was utterly unknown in Southern institutions, if we except the University of Virginia. The far-reaching wisdom of Mr. Jefferson was never more conspicuously displayed than in his foundation of the chair of Anglo-Saxon, upon the creation of the University in 1825. None of our American statesmen seem to have possessed the strong philological instinct of Jefferson, and his speculations upon the English dialects, the relations of modern English to its earliest forms, as well as his Anglo-Saxon grammar, which was published by the Trustees of the University of Virginia in 1851, will amply repay the diligent study of the antiquary, the historian, or the philologist (see *American Journal of Philology*, vol. iii, No. 10, "Thomas Jefferson as a Philologist"). About the year 1856 or 1857 a chair of English, in connection with the study of history, was instituted, and entitled the Department of History and English Literature. Within the last four years the department has been divided, so that the University has now a special professorship of English, including the historical study of the language and its literature.

I was a member of the class in history and English literature during the session of 1860-'61. In those days text-books were imperfect and limited in number; nothing superior to Spalding, Latham's Handbook, Harrison, and Shaw was then at the disposal of the student of English. The school of English philologists was far in the future, and the same is true of Mätzner, Koch, and Ten Brink, into whose labors our English investigators have so largely entered. The classics still maintained their almost undisputed supremacy, and the chair of English was perhaps tolerated, rather than adequately appreciated or actively encouraged. Yet the mere recognition of the language as a proper subject of critical study was a marked advance in our educational development. The instruction received was fully abreast with the knowledge of the decade just preceding the civil war, 1850-'60, and was stimulating and inspiring in character. With this illustrious exception, the philological study of English in Southern institutions, before the year 1861, was almost as unknown as the study of Sanskrit in the year 1885. The so-called Department of English was a varied, miscellaneous combination, consisting of logic, rhetoric, elocution; in fact, almost every topic that was not provided for in some specific way, was embraced under the vague and unmeaning designation of "English." No faint or shadowy conception of the historic study of any language had dawned upon the intelligence of our scholars, except in the University of Virginia, where the school of Harrison had advanced far beyond nearly all the leading institutions, North and South, in applying to the elucidation of Latin and Greek the results attained by comparative philology.

Since 1870 there has been a perceptible improvement, especially in such colleges as Randolph Macon, and Washington and Lee University. If we study the situation in the States south of Virginia, we shall find few colleges—or universities, falsely so called—which have made adequate provision for instruction in English. It is not a sufficient reply to the allegation of neglect to say that English is taught, when it constitutes merely an annex to some more favored department, as in the University of North Carolina, or when one professor gives instruction in *three* languages—English, French, and German—as in the South Carolina College at Columbia. The Legislature of North Carolina has recently made provision for the establishment of a distinct chair of English in the University at Chapel Hill, but at this time *one* gentleman is professor of logic, rhetoric, mental and moral philosophy, English literature and history. Let us be grateful that so deplorable a condition of affairs in one of the oldest and most influential colleges of the South will forever pass away with the present session. In the College of Charleston there is a specific chair of English, and the instruction is continuous during the four years of the collegiate course. This is a marked exception to the prevailing rule in Carolina colleges.

Much of the existing neglect of English may be attributed, I think, to an impression which obtains largely among Southern scholars and educators. I refer to the superstitious veneration with which the study of Latin and Greek is regarded by an influential and enlightened section of our population in the Carolinas. It is the conviction of most teachers of the classics that a mere acquaintance, often imperfect, with the structure of the ancient tongues is of itself sufficient to invest the pupil with a mastery of his own language; or, as they tersely phrase it, "English is best learned through the study of Latin and Greek." Differences of idiom, or characteristics of idiom, through which the inmost life of a speech is reflected, are all ignored in their pedagogic philosophy. I am far from sym-

pathizing in any measure with the modern crusade against the study of the classic tongues; and the active hallucination against which my protest is entered is unfavorable to the purest interests of either English or the ancient languages.—Very respectfully,

H. E. Shepherd.

College of Charleston, S. C.,
March 21, 1885.

Notes.

We have frequently called attention to the genealogical researches now being systematically carried on by Mr. Henry F. Waters, of Salem, Mass., in England. It appears that he has recently obtained important clues as to the derivation of John Harvard, for whom the college is named, but concerning whom surprisingly little is known. To meet the expenses of a thorough search the New England Historic-Genealogical Society (which has enabled Mr. Waters to prosecute his regular work in London) appeals to Harvard graduates in particular for aid. Contributions may be sent to Mr. John Ward Dean, at the Society's rooms, No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston. If received speedily, the sum can be announced to the alumni at the next Commencement.

Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge desires any one having or knowing of editions of the 'Federalist' other than those mentioned by Mr. Henry B. Dawson in his edition of 1863, to send him copies of the title-pages. Autograph letters of Hamilton, also, he would be glad to be permitted to have copied. His address is care of his publishers, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, have in press for immediate publication a story of New England life by Mrs. Frances B. Greenough, a well-known Cambridge lady. It will bear the name of 'The Story of an Old New England Town,' viz., Brattleboro', Vermont. The same firm will publish in May 'Thackeray's London,' a volume by William H. Rideing, descriptive of the novelist's haunts and the scenes of his books. It will be prefaced by a new portrait of Thackeray etched by Edmund H. Garrett.

Mr. Edward Walford's antiquarianism is of a kind that calls rather for thanks than for literary criticism, and it is well exhibited in the second volume of his 'Greater London' (Cassell & Co.). An indefinite amount of English history, biography, and institutions is introduced in connection with descriptions of Woolwich and the adjoining suburbs south of the Thames round to Richmond. Thus Downe furnishes a pretext for discourse about Darwin and Lubbock, as Merton about Nelson and Lady Hamilton, and Chislehurst about Camden House and its French Imperial refugees. Mortlake and the University boat-race; Wimbledon and the Volunteers: Epsom and the Races; Kew and its Gardens, will also suggest the sort of entertainment which this volume and its predecessor afford. Woodcuts are plentiful, poorly printed without exception, and the engraving is mostly old-fashioned; but, save in the case of contemporary portraits, we are inclined to think this more in keeping with the author's scheme than something better would have been. There is a general index to the now completed work, and a fine map of the metropolis and its environs. Tourists might well take hints from Mr. Walford before committing themselves to the ordinary guide-book.

The fourteenth edition of the 'Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe,' published annually by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., is before us. The work stands approved by long experience. The latest revision is at fault in not mentioning the Germania monument on the Niederwald, which may be called one of the attractions (some would say the only attraction) of Bingen, which it faces. In Lucerne, the curious Glacier Garden adjoining the Lion monument deserves a line of mention. Unless we greatly err, the great highway from Coventry to Kenilworth is lined, not with "venerable elms and sycamores," but with elms and oaks.

Since Mr. Walter Herries Pollock began to be the editor of the *Saturday Review*, some eighteen months ago, there has appeared in its pages at irregular intervals a series of papers describing sports and games. These papers were evidently by different hands, and were of varying value; and yet as a whole they gave a succinct statement of the present condition and past history of the leading popular amusements. They—or at least a selection of the chief of them—have now been gathered into a single volume, 'A New Book of Sports' (London: Bentley; New York: Scribner & Welford). Of the forty or more papers, perhaps the most elaborate and exact are those devoted to baseball, ice-yachting, and American athletics. A new subject—yet truly old—is treated freshly in Deck Pastimes. There is a learned and lively paper on the games of savages. The sketch of the duel with rapier and dagger is of interest to Shaksperians.

The worship of Victor Hugo is pushed to extreme lengths in France just now, where he is the subject of more books and pamphlets than Mr. Henry Irving evokes in both Great Britain and the United States together. The latest of these is a beautifully-printed volume, 'Victor Hugo Intime,' by M. Alfred Asseline, who is the first cousin of Mme. Victor Hugo, and a close friend of Victor Hugo's sons. The sole value of the book lies in the private letters of various members of the Hugo family here given at length. Three bits of the poet's verse are also preserved here. All are metrical expressions of disgust at the vileness of certain inns, and only this characteristic and Coleridgean quatrain deserves to be quoted:

"Au diable, auberge immonde! Hôtel de la Punaise!
Où la peau, le matin, se couvre de rougeurs,
Où la cuisine pue, où l'on dort mal à l'aise,
Où l'on entend chanter les commis-voyageurs!"

The great number of maps of cities is the distinguishing feature of Parts 140-145 of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt), the text being wholly in the letter K. Coblentz, Cologne, Copenhagen, Königsberg, the battle-field of Königgrätz, etc., are thus illustrated, while Constantinople has a full-page beautifully colored map to itself. Similarly fine are a map of Egypt showing Cairo and the Pyramids, and one of the Cape Colony, with a side map of Angra Pequena. Apropos of this budding German colony, the article on Colonies sketches the rise of the recent colonial mania in Germany—or is it more enduring, and should it be called a policy? Under Krakatoa, the most interesting phenomenon in connection with its great eruption of 1883—namely, the dispersion of its ashes throughout the atmosphere of the globe—is not alluded to.

Two parts of the condensed Brockhaus, or 'Kleines Conversations-Lexikon' (4th ed.), are before us. "Small" does not refer to its shape, which agrees with that of the foregoing. The articles are briefer, and the print decidedly smaller. The illustrations and maps are quite up to the level of those in the parent work. Apparently there will be none in the text. Each of the contemplated sixty parts sells for the low price of twenty-five pfennigs, or six cents.

The Brazilian exhibit at the New Orleans Exposition consists exclusively of coffee, in accordance with a policy of pushing the sale of this product by letting it be seen under its own name, and not under another, as commonly. Moreover, three-fourths of the coffee consumed in this country is drunk in the valley of the Mississippi; hence a strong reason for stimulating distribution by way of New Orleans, which has never since the war recovered its standing as a port of entry for this article. All this and much more of interest pertaining to the subject is to be found in the official quarto pamphlet, 'The Empire of Brazil at the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition.' An interesting bird's-eye view of the Mississippi from New Orleans to St. Louis accompanies the tables, essays, etc., which form the contents of this pamphlet.

The *Magazine of Art* for May has for frontispiece a reproduction of a drawing by Sir Thomas Lawrence by one of the photographic processes known as the "Ink-photo"—an effective process, apparently admirably qualified to reproduce chalk work. The woodcuts are no advance on the usual rather flimsy type of the *Magazine of Art* illustration; and the "poetry page," "April Once More," is weaker than usual—from a hopeless drawing, we should judge. Of the literary matter, Professor Colvin's "East Suffolk Memories" will attract most attention. "The Art of Periclean Athens" is by far too hazardous in its interpretations and unappreciative in its criticism to contribute anything to the archæology of the epoch of Phidias.

The Holbein Society has lately issued the most considerable publication to which it has given its attention. The work in question is a reproduction of the "Tewrdannch," an allegorical poem in old German recounting the deeds of Maximilian I. The reproduction is in 591 pages folio, with 118 wood engravings. Goedeke, than whom there is no better authority, gives, in the preface to his edition of the poem which forms the tenth volume of the 'Deutsche Dichter des 16ten Jahrhunderts,' some details regarding the authorship not furnished in the introduction to the Holbein Society's publication. He states that some manuscripts, formerly in the castle of Ambras, now in the Hofbibliothek at Vienna, furnish evidence that the poem was planned, and in a large part written, by Maximilian himself, while Melchior Pfinzing, the reputed author, can only be credited with retouching, modifying, and in some cases expanding it, and with having written some sections. Further, it is shown that Pfinzing was not the sole editor, but Marz Freizsauerwein von Ehrentreiz, who arranged the "Weisskunig," a poem relating to the Emperor Frederick, also edited a considerable portion of "Tewrdannch." The editors of the English edition omit to say anything about this writer in connection with the authorship, and speak conjecturally regarding Maximilian's share, saying that in all probability he wrote portions in conjunction with Pfinzing. The wood engravings illustrating the work were probably by Albert Dürer and his scholars, but only Hans Schäufelin can be fixed upon with certainty as one of the engravers. The emblem of Jost de Negker is found on one cut in the original edition, but this does not appear in the later editions. The Augsburg 1519 edition is the one selected by the Holbein Society for reproduction. The first edition was published in 1517. A copy of this last, richly bound, is in the Grenville collection of the British Museum. This institution also possesses additional copies in their general library.

The Geographical Societies of Vienna and Berlin are each about to send out expeditions to explore the country lying between the head waters of the Nile and the Congo. The former starts from the west coast and is headed by Dr. Oskar Lenz, the expense being chiefly borne by the King of the Belgians and the Archduke Rudolph, of Austria, the heir to the throne. The latter, under the lead of Dr. Fischer, enters the interior from Zanzibar. A principal object of both expeditions is to endeavor to find traces of four

Europeans, who are supposed, if living, to be in that region. The best known of these are Dr. Junker, the Russian traveller, and Mr. Frank Lupton. The latter, better known possibly as Lupton Bey, was one of Gordon's lieutenants in the Sudan in 1879, and since 1881 the Governor of the Sudanese province Bahr-el-Ghazal. The last letter from him, if we are not mistaken, was dated November 5, 1883, when, in sending some geographical notes to the London society, he expressed the hope of being able to defend himself against the tribes who had joined the Mahdi.

The *Illustrirte Zeitung*, of April 4, publishes a series of interesting maps showing the colonial possessions of the various European Powers. There is one large general map of the world, and twelve smaller ones of the places of greatest interest at the present time—as the Cameroons, the Congo, the Cape, and New Guinea. Russia seems to be the only great Power which has no colony. In the Lesser Antilles five nations—Denmark, Spain, Netherlands, France, and Great Britain—have possessions; in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb three—Italy, France, and Great Britain. Germany, in addition to her new territory in New Guinea and the adjacent islands, is represented as owning a large tract of Central Africa, just west of Zanzibar. The maps are admirably executed, and so colored as to show at a glance the various nationalities. While intended especially to illustrate the German interests in the various parts of the world, they will be exceedingly useful for reference in colonial questions. On the large map the German steamship lines are designated, together with the times occupied in making the trips.

The last speech of the late Lord Cairns was in the House of Lords on the resolution to open the South Kensington Museum on Sundays. He took the place of Lord Shaftesbury, who was ill, in leading the opposition.

Dr. Theodore von Oppolzer, of Vienna, announces the early publication of a very extended list of the dates of solar and lunar eclipses which has been prepared under his direction. There will be eight thousand of the former and more than five thousand of the latter class of phenomena, and all included between the years 1207 B. C. and 2161 A. D. In publishing the hours of the day at which the eclipses will occur, Dr. Oppolzer will adopt the new reckoning of astronomical time recommended by the International Prime Meridian Conference at Washington last autumn, thus making this publication the first astronomical work of importance in which this method of counting the hours of the day is adopted.

— Concerning the smothering of Arabs in an Algerian cave, a correspondent writes us:

"I have been told by Englishmen that it was of no uncommon occurrence for General Pélissier to put both his hands to his ears all of a sudden (sometimes even at dinner parties) as if to shut his ears against the howls of the smothering Arabs in that cave. It came to him so unexpectedly that this action of his (putting the hands up to his ears) was quite involuntary to him."

— Mr. Charles Wellington Stone writes to us from Boston:

"As I was looking over some old papers, I came across your appreciative review of General Walcott's 'History of the Twenty-first Massachusetts,' the regiment of the armless Sergeant Plunkett, of national fame, who has just died. You remark that on the march to Petersburg Company A was reduced to three privates. It happened at the end of that march that a single solid shot struck down those very three; so that the gallant company, which had marched from Templeton a hundred strong, was for the time being completely extinguished—a dramatic climax to a wonderful three years' work."

—Dr. D. A. Sargent's 'In Case of Accident' (Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.) is not what we should expect either in matter or arrangement. It is a fair popular essay on physical emergencies that will bear rewriting. American babies closely resemble British babies, and both run the gauntlet of numerous ills with which ignorant mothers and officious nurses beset them. Dr. Sophia Jex-Blake, of Edinburgh, has prepared 'The Care of Infants' (Macmillan & Co.) as a warning manual of infantile hygiene. It may be treated with great respect by the guardians of those unfortunates in whatever longitude. The later issues of school physiologies possibly represent greater care, certainly have greater value. Dr. Albert F. Blaisdell's 'Our Bodies, or How We Live' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) is an excellent, well-illustrated primary book on physiology, although going a little above its presumed readers in the most of chapter thirteen, on the care of the sick, the use of disinfectants, etc. It discusses the poisons of dissipation in a manly way. Professor Martin, of Johns Hopkins University, writing on anatomy and physiology, could hardly write otherwise than well. His 'Human Body' (Henry Holt & Co.) is not only an admirable elementary text-book on those subjects and on personal hygiene, but it is peculiarly suited to comprehension by children. This feature is specially credited by Doctor Martin to the skill of his wife, whose name also appears on the title-page. With one exception (fig. 2) the illustrations are good. This work presents the action of alcohol plainly and vigorously, and the indictment charges the vicious beverage with all its sins, but is so drawn that the judicial mind can take no exception to it, and the total abstainer should ask for nothing more forcible than these clear truths. Passing from the presentation by the physiologies of the theoretical man, whose beautifully adapted organs seem adequate to support indefinitely a balanced existence, to the new edition of Dr. Weir Mitchell's 'Nervous Diseases' (Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co.), we find conditions, as the author expresses it, "as bewildering as charades." To unravel the network of symptoms and states which he exposes, requires the most expert clinician as well as physiologist; and the ordinary reader, wondering how these complications ever occur in such a well-designed economy, wonders more and is still more grateful that it should be possible even partially to disentangle the skeins. Doctor Mitchell's great experience and graphic style make the book interesting to all, and to physicians most useful.

—The views of English and of Russian travellers, diplomatists, and geographers as to the boundary line between northwestern Afghanistan and what is now, by right of late annexation, Russian Turkomanland, are becoming irreconcilably antagonistic, and the future drawing of the line is likely to be decided at the cannon's mouth. Meanwhile, it is interesting to see which way the question concerning the lands of the Saryks and Salors, Badghiz and Panjdeh, was viewed by cartographers as yet uninfluenced by pro-British or pro-Russian leanings at the opening of a great conflict. A few glances convince us that, had the diplomatists of London and St. Petersburg consented to submit the matter in dispute to the arbitrament of unbiassed geographical experts, the decision elicited would be far from unanimous. The frontier line from Khoja Saleh, on the Oxus, to the Heri-Rud, south of Sarakhs, on the Persian border, is differently drawn on every map. As regards Panjdeh, the point now most hotly contested, and already made famous by one of those providential lessons in geography on which Britishers proverbially rely for their knowledge of foreign lands, the majority of maps give support to the Russian claim. An "Übersichtskarte von West-Turkestan," by Stülpnagel and Berghaus, published in *Petermann's Mittheilungen* of 1873, draws the line further south from the confluence of the Murghab and Kushk than where General Komaroff routed the Afghans on March 30. A map of Afghanistan and Beloochistan in the same *Mittheilungen* (1878) places "Panschedeh" more distinctly on the Russian side. Handtke's war map of Turkestan, Afghanistan, and Beloochistan (1879?) places Aktepe, Komaroff's starting-point, on the very border. A map of Afghanistan in the 'Jahres-Supplement 1880-1881,' to Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon,' adopts the Russian view almost completely. Brockhaus's new 'Conversations-Lexikon,' in the proper section of the map of Asia (1882), draws an almost straight line from Khoja Saleh to the vicinity of Sarakhs, giving to Afghanistan even more than is demanded by England. The map of modern Persia (and adjoining parts) in vol. xviii of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (1885) places the confluence of the Murghab and Kushk, without naming Panjdeh or Aktepe, too far north of the frontier to suit the British claims—through inadvertence, we may charitably suppose.

—The German Sick Insurance Act of 1883, which was described in the *Nation* for February 26, has led to interesting investigations of the average rate of wages in Germany. This remarkable piece of legislation, it will be remembered, provided that sick workmen were entitled to be paid, by the local government bodies, one-half the average daily wages of ordinary laborers current in the district. To carry the act into force it has become necessary to determine officially what the average daily wages are. This has now been done, and the results published for Prussia and the free cities of Bremen, Hamburg, and Lübeck. As given in the last number of the *Jahrbücher für National-Oekonomie*, they show that the average daily wage in the whole of Prussia (inclusive of the free cities) is for adult men 1.46 marks, or 45 cents; for adult women .95 marks, or 23 cents. The rate varies, however, very much in different localities. It is higher, as one would expect, in the large cities than in the small ones, and higher in the cities than in the country. The average for adult men is:

In towns of more than	100,000	inhabitants....	2.16	marks.	
" " "	50,000	to 100,000	"	2.06	"
" " "	20,000	to 50,000	"	1.77	"
" " "	less than	20,000	"	1.44	"

The highest single figure for any large district is in the free cities of Bremen and Hamburg, each of which shows an average for adult men of 2½ marks, or 60 cents. Berlin has an average of 2.4 marks, or 58 cents. The lowest rate (1.02 marks, or 25 cents) is in the province of Silesia. Our protectionist friends may think to find some ammunition in the fact that the agricultural provinces of Posen and East Prussia have low rates —1.09 and 1.17 marks respectively—while the manufacturing Rhine province has an average of 1.77. But, on the other hand, Sleswick-Holstein, which is chiefly agricultural, shows up with the handsome figure of 2.00 marks, and the trading cities of Bremen and Hamburg show the highest rate of all. In fact, if protection were the thing that regulated wages, it would be difficult to account for the great divergence between the rates in different parts of the same country, all of which are under the same tariff system. The widely-varying range of wages shown by these tables is still of great economic interest, as an illustration of the extent to which competition works, or perhaps fails to work, in causing wages in different parts of the same country to approach the same level. It is evident that ignorance, poverty, bad means of communication, and other causes of economic "friction," are among the causes of this failure.

—In view of the much-heralded excavations of Mr. Petrie, under the auspices of the Egypt Ex-

ploration Fund, at San el-Hagar (the site of the Tanis of the classical writers, with which the Zoan of the Bible is universally identified), and of M. Naville's much attacked and much defended identifications of Pithom and Succoth—prominent names in the history of the Exodus from "the field of Zoan"—Mr. F. C. Whitehouse's dissertation "On the thesis, Zoan is Tanis magna, a suburb of Memphis, and not San el-Hagar or Tanis parva in the Delta" (in the last Proceedings of the American Oriental Society), has a particular interest. Considering that "all the scholars who have given any attention to the subject are agreed that San el-Hagar is the Zoan of the Old Testament," as well as the Tanis of Herodotus, Diodorus, Strabo, etc., the American critic's thesis is certainly a bold one; but it is sufficiently well supported by critical argument and traditional authority—as preserved by Josephus, Benjamin of Tudela, and Antoninus Martyr—to deserve attentive consideration. But whether found weighty or wanting by independent criticism in the fields of Egyptology and Biblical research, it has the best chances of achieving great popularity among Bible students of the theologico-conservative class. For Petrie's excavations, from which extraordinary results were expected for the vindication of the Scriptural narrative concerning the stay of the Israelites in the land of the Pharaohs, are to all appearances destined to end in a grand disappointment in that regard, however fruitful they may prove in unearthing the remains of later periods; and it will, therefore, be very convenient to have in the neighborhood of Cairo another Zoan-Tanis—one undreamed of even by Jablonski, who ventured to place Goshen south of Cairo—to fall back upon for new corroborative search and study.

—A notable article by M. Charles Diehl appears in the January number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellenique* of this year, in which he describes and comments upon a discovery recently made by M. Paris while conducting some excavations for the French School of Athens on the site of the ancient Elatea, in Phocis. The original object of the work was to unearth a temple of Athena, but excavations were also conducted amid the ruins of a church of the Holy Virgin, where a slab of gray marble veined with white was found, above seven feet long, two feet wide, and one foot thick. The upper face was carefully polished, as also two contiguous lateral faces, the remainder being rough. Upon the longest smoothed lateral face was a Greek inscription, not disposed longitudinally as usual, but in short lines across the face. The letters are deeply cut, and belong to a late period. As is customary with Christian inscriptions, this begins and ends with the sign of the cross, and reads as follows: "This stone is from Cana of Galilee, where our Lord Jesus Christ turned the water into wine." M. Diehl shows from the Itineraries of the Middle Ages that several memorials of the marriage of Cana were preserved and exhibited there in later times, among them two of the hydriæ ("water-pots of stone") in which the miracle was performed, and which the martyr Antoninus of Placentia, in the sixth century, declares renewed the miracle for him when he poured water into them. In the eighth century Saint Willibald found there a large church, in which one of the hydriæ was still preserved. Besides these hydriæ, Antoninus mentions another memorial, saying, "We went to Cana, where our Lord was present at the marriage feast, and we reclined on the very couch; and there, unworthy as I was, I wrote the names of my parents" ('Itinera Latina,' i, 93). These words indicate that he believed the couch on which the Saviour reclined at the feast was still there. Can it have been the stone just discovered? M. Diehl thinks the faces of the stone which are smoothed show that it was affixed to a wall in the corner, and believes that if the inscription of Antoninus appeared upon it, this must be the stone. Strangely enough, upon the upper surface, near what would naturally be the head, he finds letters scratched which he reads, supplying the beginning, "[Remember, O Lord, the father] and the mother of (me) Antoninus."

—Hereupon, M. Diehl seeks to explain how so sacred a relic as he believes this to be found its way to an obscure town in Greece. At the time of Antoninus, already four of the six "water-pots of stone" had disappeared from Cana, and between the sixth and eighth centuries—that is, at the time when the Arabian invasion spread over Palestine—another had gone, and in the thirteenth century only traces remained. Two were preserved in Jerusalem, and two at least in Constantinople. No mention of the couch occurs after that of Antoninus, and M. Diehl thinks that it was probably removed by some Byzantine emperor to Constantinople, pending the Saracen invasion, as the character of the inscription would indicate, both epigraphically and from the fact that it proclaims a change of abode. In Constantinople it probably remained till the capture of that city by the Latin princes in 1204, when it may have fallen into the hands of Otho, Duke of Athens, or Guy Pallavicini, Marquis of Bodonitza, by whom it was conveyed to Greece, and at Elatea a church was built expressly for its reception, as shown by the position which it occupied in the building. The argument is ingenious.

THOMPSON'S PSYCHOLOGY.

A System of Psychology. By Daniel Greenleaf Thompson. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1884. 8vo. Vol. i, pp. xiv, 613; vol. ii, pp. viii, 589.

An author is supposed to appeal to other people to judge of the real value of his work. These other people, called reviewers, usually come to their task a little proudly, feeling that their opinion is desired, and therefore must be worth having. Imagine, then, the chagrin of such a reviewer when, at the end of these two vast and laborious volumes, he finds a strong hint that the author neither needs nor encourages very independent critical efforts on the part of his readers, save, perhaps, such efforts as may express themselves in private communication of "imperfections" (presumably small ones), for the convenience of the author in making a second edition. As for the other natural business of a critic, namely, a public and free discussion of the merits and demerits of the book, the author forestalls and discourages all that by these remarkable words: "If any critic of this work desires a complete and searching review made of its faults, I can assure him that he will do well to apply to me, for I am certain of more shortcomings than any one who has not made the subject an especial study can possibly observe." "Complete and searching"—well do these words illustrate the vanity of modesty. What has the reviewer left to do for himself; and why did not the author publish the complete and searching confession of his sins (if he has committed any sins) along with his book? Nay, what wisdom can a man hope to attain after æons of blessed immortality more than would be implied in a complete and searching knowledge of all the errors that he had committed? And if Mr. Thompson has already got so far, what need of us?

But we must not yield to our sense of disappointment. Mr. Thompson, as it seems, needs no help of importance; but psychology, which is an active, progressive, and much studied science, needs all the help that any student finds time to give to it. And to psychology, if not to Mr. Thompson, is due the very slight service that we can here render in helping any fellow-student who may chance to read these lines to determine how much time he needs to devote to these two volumes.

First, then, as to the author and his equipment. Mr. Thompson is evidently a very conscientious and industrious man, devoted to his work, thoughtful, naturally keen in analysis, undaunted by the magnitude of his task, an excellent collector of facts, a good critic of such theories as are known to him. On the other hand, he knows very few theories, he shows hardly a sign of acquaintance with modern Continental psychology, his scientific horizon is limited to the older English writers—to the two Mills, to Bain, to Spencer, and to Lewes; while of the modern developments of general philosophy, apart from the few names just mentioned, he is almost totally ignorant. Kant he cites once in a while in a puzzled way from Meiklejohn's translation, just as they used to do in days long past. Other Continental thinkers he cites in an amusingly hap-hazard fashion from Hamilton or Blakey, never distinguishing the obscure from the great, and showing an entire ignorance of what those strange fellows were about. One man comes by accident to get the full force of his sternest criticisms, and seems to represent for him all that is revolting in German speculation. It is the long since quietly reposing Jacobi, whose place in the history of German thought was as fixed, we had supposed, as the place of his quaintly printed old volumes on the shelves of our libraries—as fixed and as often remembered. If Jacobi thus needs Mr. Thompson's severe criticism, the post-Kantian idealists are, oddly enough, on the whole forgotten. That there is any very recent German thought at all, our author seems not to have had occasion to hear—presumably, because Sir William Hamilton and his commonplace books furnish no information about the matter. To be sure, there is *Mind*, and the author reads *Mind*. But all the very interesting work which that journal is doing to bring together into close and living intercourse the various schools and undertakings of modern philosophical thought seems as good as lost upon our author. He sees only the philosophical problems that Hamilton and Mill and Spencer see. He seems to suppose that he has exhaustively treated the most important questions at issue in philosophy when he has elaborately refuted Hickock and Whewell and President McCosh. And thus he writes as English thinkers, in their old-fashioned insular ignorance of the world's thought, were accustomed to write a quarter of a century ago. But in these days, after all the earnest and generous study of manifold philosophical opinions that has characterized the last decade, after all the efforts that European thinkers have everywhere been making to lay aside their narrowness and to understand one another, Mr. Thompson's equipment for his task seems to us disastrously and intolerably provincial.

In the next place, as to our author's actual contributions to his chosen science, we must admit a great deal of really valuable work, although he has not helped us to find it, but has embedded it in a mass of useless material. He explains at great length why he does not treat certain topics more fully, fills pages with his reasons for not mentioning further the things therein mentioned, and vexes the reader with atrociously long quotations and condensations from authors whose thoughts are vastly more accessible in their own well-known books than in Mr. Thompson's. But when at last he really gives us his own contributions, these are not only ingenious and thoughtful, but they are often suggestions that promise to become more useful as we digest them more, and

that future students of psychology ought not to neglect. These contributions are for the most part contained, so far as we have been able to learn, in Parts 6 and 8. They concern especially descriptive psychology, in which Mr. Thompson's talent is obviously the most free of movement. If the rest of the book had been reduced to very much smaller proportions, we should have little but thanks to offer. The discussion of intuition and inference, in Part 6, is probably the best piece of work in the book. When one reads it one can only regret that such ability and earnestness as are there shown should have been wasted, in many other instances, for lack of wider reading. In the section on "Necessary Truth," in Part 7, the great fault seems to us, not that the author is far wrong in what he asserts, but that he has failed to see even the shape of the real philosophic problems involved, so that the discussions, excellent very often as psychological descriptions, fail to have any philosophical significance whatever.

Utterly intolerable is, finally, the whole of what the author has to say about "Force" and the "Persistence of Force." It is a fine example of the persistence of error. After centuries of debate, modern physical science has reached certain relatively clear notions about "force" and "energy" and the "conservation of energy." These notions such men as Maxwell, together with most of the writers of the highest order of elementary treatises on physics, have been trying to make clear to the general public. Meanwhile, however, Spencer, in his 'First Principles,' stated an utterly obscure and antiquated doctrine about the nature of what he called "Force," and supposed himself to be in the front ranks of physical science when he said that this "force" "persists." Now the modern doctrine of the "conservation of energy" is in no wise identical with this vague Spencerian "persistence of force." But Spencer and his followers have remained in their hopeless obscurity of ideas, and so form a serious obstacle to the growth of clear notions about these matters. When the disciples are appealed to concerning the master's vagueness they sometimes say that his 'First Principles,' having been written a good while ago, cannot be quite abreast of the latest science, while the many occupations of the master prevent the thorough revision that he would like to give to his work. This may excuse Mr. Spencer if it can; but meanwhile it cannot excuse those who come freshly into the field, as Mr. Thompson does, and who elaborately and systematically develop this confusing notion about the nature of force. When Clerk Maxwell was troubled by people who maintained the doctrine that matter is only a conglomeration of "centres of force," he advised them to turn a grindstone, or to try to stop a fast-turning one, and so to see whether all the properties of matter were to be explained on Boscovitch's theory. Even so one might advise Mr. Thompson, when he talks of "forces in motion," and "forces at rest," and when he tells us that the "same force with reference to other forces may be dynamic, while with reference to its own parts it is static," to study the elementary facts and notions of mechanics, as Clerk Maxwell gives them in the book on 'Matter and Motion,' or as Professor Tait gives them in his lecture on "Force," or, better still, as Professor Mach has recently stated them in his beautiful little book, 'Die Mechanik in ihren Grundprincipien historisch-kritisch dargestellt.' Let Mr. Thompson then see how much remains of sense in this curious half-Spencerian jargon in which he indulges.

We have been plain-spoken, and perhaps we have not sufficiently recorded our appreciation of the really beautiful and self-sacrificing devotion that Mr. Thompson, in the midst of other cares—those, namely, of an exhausting profession—and in the midst of a world that does not exactly shower benefits on the heads of philosophic students, has still given to his chosen philosophic work. We honor that devotion very deeply.

ANCIENT SKULLS.

Ueber alte Schädel von Assos und Cypern. Von Rud. Virchow. Mit 5 Tafeln. Berlin. 1884.

THE wide scope of Doctor Virchow's work, taken in connection with its high scientific character, is a striking instance of breadth of interest, in these days of intellectual centralization. While, in the Reichstag, he has become one of the most popular and influential politicians of Germany, he has still maintained a position in the first rank of living physiologists. And of late years he has been publishing a series of minute researches concerning anthropological and archæological matters, which now oblige us to regard him as a chief authority in these fields as well. In a volume which appeared in 1882 he presented an exhaustive inquiry into all the human remains from Troy and the Trojan plain, brought to light during the digging of Schliemann at Hissarlik and of Calvert at Hanaï-Tepeh. The accuracy of method followed in this investigation, and the suggestiveness of the results thereby obtained, led to the author's receiving, soon afterward, the three most perfect ancient skulls discovered in the Street of Tombs at Assos by the excavations of the Archæological Institute of America, as well as two from Cyprus, which, at the instance of Mr. Georg von Bunsen, were sent to Berlin by the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of New York.

The greater part of the publication now before us is devoted to Assos and to the skulls from its Necropolis. Doctor Virchow himself visited that site in 1879, two years before the American exploration was begun, and, to a scholarly review of the accounts, ancient and modern, of this important citadel, he is thus enabled to add a charming page of personal impression. He describes the wonderful view obtained on crossing one of the spurs of Ida, at the north of Assos—the Gulf of Adramyttion and the mountains of Lesbos as a background, the scarped volcanic crater forming the Acropolis, and the fertile valley of the river, the "fair-flowing Satnioeis" of Homer, which winds through green meadows beneath the forbidding walls of the city. The famous flesh-devouring Assos-stone is discussed at some length, and, having thus approached his special subject, the author classifies the various manners of interment which the remains found in the Street of Tombs prove to have been chiefly employed. It is particularly fortunate that the three skulls from Assos, which alone had not returned unto dust, are representative of the chief modes of inhuming the unburned body practised in the Troad, namely, in enormous jars of baked earth, in monolithic sarcophagi, and in stone chests built of slabs.

It would be impossible to give here any abstract of the technical results obtained by the exceedingly accurate measurements made of these skulls, important as are the tables of dimensions for craniological comparison. The specialist will here find a method employed which, in itself an advance upon the system of Weisbach, has provided us with the first definite and trustworthy anthropological data concerning the races inhabiting the shores of the Ægean two thousand years and more ago. Virchow calls attention to the important bearing of such materials upon the question of tribal derivation, but he does not express any decided opinion in regard to the ethnographical character of the primitive Trojans. This is disappointing, but it is certainly quite reasonable in view of the few skulls as yet available for comparison. About early Thracian craniology, for instance, almost nothing is known. Nevertheless, the gradually accumulating evidence inclines one to believe that the Mysians were immigrants from Europe, rather than representatives of a short-headed and distinctly Asiatic race, like the Armenians. The discoveries of human remains at Troy and at Assos, thus scientifically considered, throw the first true light upon these historical problems. If it be still somewhat dim, it is certainly far less delusive than the will-of-the-wisp of literary tradition.

Concerning the skulls themselves, it must now suffice to refer to the attractive human interest attaching to these venerable relics. The first two given by the author may serve as examples. The man whose cranium is now designated as No. 1 lived toward the close of the sixth century B. C. As his head had received many and severe wounds from a sword, some of which had healed during life, he was in all probability a warrior. The last blow proves that he died as he had fought—facing the enemy. He might have felt a pardonable pride could he have foreseen this striking vindication of Assian honor, some two thousand five hundred years after his demise. His body was buried with some distinction in a huge earthenware pot, six feet and a half long and three feet in diameter; the mouth of this vessel was closed with a flat stone, and the whole covered with earth. So he lay before the principal gate of the city fortifications, undisturbed beneath the tramplings of many conquerors. The Persians, against whom this Æolian Greek must often have taken arms, were driven out. Aristotle sat upon the stone bench erected in later times near the tomb. The Roman Empire itself was outlived. Byzantine ecclesiasticism was overthrown by the Turks. Yet when, in April, 1882, the lid of the jar was removed by excavators from an undreamt-of land, the sense of human presence in these archaic bones was still so great that the Romaïc workmen felt themselves to be disturbers of a recent sepulchre; and as they gazed upon the drawn-up knees, the jaw dropped forward upon the breast, and the folded arms of the ancient warrior, they solemnly muttered a *kyrie eleison*—words of his language still unchanged, but of a meaning which the twentieth generation of his descendants would have lived too early to comprehend.

The second skull is 400 years more recent. By silver coins of Athens, Ephesus, and of the native city, as well as by various fragments of pottery, its age could be very accurately determined. It was taken from a private lot in the ancient cemetery, where had been buried numerous members of an influential family of Assos, among whom the name Larichos (that of the brother of Sappho) was particularly common. The elderly individual to whom these bones last belonged was evidently of high rank, but his broad face and low forehead do not bespeak notable ability. He outlived his attractions; senile degeneration is everywhere apparent. His few remaining teeth are literally worn to the roots, and a fracture of the nasal bones, although healed, must have been keenly felt as an unworthy disfigurement.

The sixth sense of the antiquarian—that powerful second-sight which recognizes magnificent edifices and crowded streets where lie but disjointed blocks and heaps of débris—sees the aristocrat living amid surroundings entirely different from those familiar to the soldier who is now so closely cheek by jowl with him upon the shelf of a scientific museum. Not half a dozen fragments of the city as it was in the sixth century B. C. can be recognized among the overthrown ruins; the fortifications of a still earlier age alone remain of all the monuments which made Assos the chief place of the Troad at the close of

the Lydian occupation. The comfortable life of the member of the Larichos family is, however, more easily pictured. He saw the streets of Assos much as they have now become known. Almost all the chief buildings of the town were standing in his time. The honored citizen may well have been upon the Agora, now more familiar than any other Greek market-place, when King Eumenes, of Pergamon, visited his loyal subjects, and paid the extraordinary price of 4,000 drachmas apiece for the prize pigs of antiquity which contributed to Assian celebrity. He may even have admired with Ptolemy Physcon, of Egypt, that majestic porker of Assos which the royal glutton has described as "two cubits and a half in height, the whole of his body corresponding in length, and of a color white as snow." Virchow's studies among the refuse heaps of primitive kitchens show that the rearing of pigs was common in Troy divine and at Thymbra; but we are informed by the hungry explorers that there is to-day not one domestic swine in all the southern Troad, thanks to the religious prejudices of the Turks.

The third skull from Assos is that of a young girl; both those from Cyprus are of elderly men. We notice with regret that the objects designated by General Cesnola as having been found in the tombs together with these Cyprian skulls, and sent with them to Berlin, are regarded by German archæologists consulted concerning them as being of different age and entirely unrelated. Indeed, Doctor Furtwaengler directly questions the possibility of their having been taken from the same graves.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL BOOKS.

Education in its Relations to Manual Industry. By Arthur MacArthur. Appletons. 1884. Pp. 390.

Second Report of the Royal Commissioners of Technical Instruction. Vols. i. and ii. London. 1884. Pp. 357-386 and appendix.

The Quincy Method. By L. E. Partridge. E. L. Kellogg. 1885. Pp. 660.

The Civil Service of the United States. By John M. Comstock. Henry Holt & Co. 1885. Pp. 602.

JUDGE MACARTHUR'S book is the most comprehensive treatise on its topic that has yet appeared in English. A rough sketch is given of the industrial history of France, Russia, England, and Germany, and such institutions as the École municipale d'Apprentis and Chaix & Co.'s École professionnelle at Paris, the weaving schools at Mulhouse and Épinal, the school at Vilette, and corresponding schools in the other European countries are briefly characterized. By many who read this book the information it contains will be found to be its most important ingredient. The author is a strong but not unreasonable advocate of industrial education. On the other hand, the book is far from satisfactory. It is utterly without method, and seems to be made up of jottings. It would be difficult to give the chapters any headings, and the reader is helped but very little by the index. The study does not appear to be at first hand, and the information is very scrappy. Still, the work has no rival in this country.

The report of the English Commissioners, on the contrary, is, like most of the English blue-books on education, a model of system and method. Those who have occasion to consult it will naturally turn first of all to Mr. William Mather's report on technical education in the United States. Mr. Mather is a Manchester engineer, and during his six months' stay in this country he travelled upward of 10,000 miles, and made special inquiries in twenty-two cities, going as far West as San Francisco. He assumes that the best test of public schools is seen in the fruits of labor, and that schools are the best gauge of the wealth and the public spirit of states. Even scientific education, he believes, is apt to be too abstract and to drift too far from industrialism. The problems of settling this country, he says, have been and are likely to be more mechanical than political, and the great thing we should strive for is to get out of mere intellectual and literary habits of culture into those that are more practical. Thus our agricultural colleges, with literary aspirations, are very far astray. If industrial education is adopted throughout the country, Mr. Mather believes that the true sources of wealth—viz., the resources of nature—will be drawn upon to supply all the comforts of life at reduced rates, so that the purchasing power of wages will be increased, and the capital and labor of the future will find profitable employment without protection in the vast regions now opened up by the railroads in all directions. "When," he concludes, "America abandons the shadow for the substance, her natural wealth and prosperity must be augmented, while her industries will develop upon the solid foundation of freedom in trade as in political institutions. It is to meet her upon such conditions in friendly rivalry and competition that we must prepare ourselves." The first volume of these reports is taken up with a report of technical education on the Continent, and is extremely detailed and valuable in regard to the schools for special industries. Over three hundred pages are taken up by reports on agricultural education by Commissioner Jenkins.

'The Quincy Method' is a much needed book. So heated and confusing have been the discussions in some quarters during the last few years that the primary teacher hardly knows where to turn for guidance. A detailed exposition, therefore, with many illustrations, of the daily work of the four years of a model public school, such as is given in Colonel Parker's book, is admirably calculated to rouse routine teachers out of their mechanical slumbers and to really interest them in their work. The secret of the author's power in matters of primary education (for he is the real author of the system here described) is his love of and his sympathy with children, and his persistent refusal to be entangled in any system, even his own, while devoting himself mainly to the study of method. Many are drawn to him chiefly because of the enemies he makes, who resemble the enemies of his great predecessor, Horace Mann. This book, to our minds, is the best justification of the unexpected sagacity of the directors of the Normal Park Normal School in calling and sustaining Colonel Parker, in the face of the Scribes and Pharisees of the old educational dispensation. The volume is by no means without defects of mannerism and even arrogance; but it has the saving merit of beginning in the right place and in the right way. The list of "points from which your notice might be prepared," which the publisher prints and addresses to editors, may perhaps be a good idea; but the phrases "latest," "best," "successful," "well told," "vast army" of readers, "wonderful change," "really a revolution," "all beautifully told," "beautifully bound in cloth," which are kindly suggested as applicable to the book, are certainly not very discriminating.

The fourth book on our list, which contains many examination papers, fairly raises the question whether they are of the proper kind. This seems to the writer at the outset a vital question, by the settlement of which the whole principle of the utility of competitive tests in our civil service will be ultimately judged. The examiners have vast difficulties to contend with. The curriculum of no class of our schools is adapted to fit men for undergoing the proper tests; but now that the principle seems established for large classes of offices, the educational question of the best method of acquiring the best mental qualification should be early met; for the greatest ultimate danger which is likely to assail the system is lest the tests shall not be effective. So far, they have been extremely elementary; but all that is needed to improve them and to raise the standard is clearer conception of what is needed, and better books and other aids in fitting for them.

The Russians at the Gates of Herat. By Charles Marvin. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885.

WITHIN the last five years Mr. Marvin has written no less than six large books and four pamphlets, in addition to numberless contributions to the daily and periodical press, on the progress of Anglo-Russian affairs in Central Asia. He has travelled on the Caspian, and has visited Russia in order to converse with prominent soldiers and statesmen. During his youth he lived in Russia, and during the war of 1877-78 he followed the Russian armies as a correspondent, and was afterward for a long time in Constantinople. Therefore, although neither his position nor his talents entitle him to be considered such an authority on Eastern affairs as Rawlinson, it cannot be denied that he is thoroughly familiar with his subject, and that he is one of the few men really competent to convey to the public just such information as every one desires to obtain at this moment concerning the controversy over the Afghan frontier. With these qualifications he has written and published in the short space of eight days a little book of 185 pages, which summarizes briefly the facts and opinions of his previous books, and adds so much as is necessary to bring the subject up to the date of March 23, 1885. While it bears the marks of hasty composition, yet, on the whole, it is an admirable summary, and as an introduction and key to the telegraphic news in the daily papers it is invaluable.

It is certain that no one else has so clearly explained in English the motive and purpose of the Russian advance in Central Asia. This dates from the Crimean war, and was a natural outcome of the extreme hostility which England had then manifested toward Russia. Realizing that this hostility was likely to be permanent, Russia cast about for England's most vulnerable point of attack, and found it to be in India. Hence began the advance from Orenburg through Turkestan, which was continued until the Russian outposts were practically at the foot of the Hindu-Kush. The difficulty of crossing these lofty mountains led to the search for an easier route, and the advance eastward from the Caspian through the Turkoman country was begun. A footing had been gained on the eastern shore of the Caspian in 1869, but no advance was made until after the war of 1877. But once undertaken, the forward movement on this line has been even more rapid than that through Turkestan. In less than six years Russia has advanced to within three or four days' march of Herat, has built a railroad close behind her, and is now firmly established in the most fertile corner of Afghanistan, with no mountains or other physical barriers to impede her march against India, whenever political considerations render it expedient or necessary. After a generation of patient toil, an enormous expenditure of money, and no small loss of life, Russia has now gained her object; she is in a position to strike a severe if not a deadly blow at England, and Englishmen have suddenly discovered that what was denounced by the Duke of Argyll only four years ago as "one of the wildest dreams ever enter-

tained"—viz., the danger of "a military basis to be formed by Russia on the Caspian"—is an accomplished fact. The advantages of this position to Russia are incalculable. How she will use them and what will be the outcome of it, are matters of conjecture upon which discussion can take the widest range. The present boundary dispute is in itself a trivial matter, but underlying it is the whole question of the relations of England and Russia. If this dispute is settled without war, another may shortly arise, and so long as the two nations hold antagonistic views about Constantinople, a permanent peace is impossible.

The principal value of Mr. Marvin's book is the information it gives concerning the advantages with which Russia would begin the struggle. Few people have realized that Russia has steam communication to within a few hundred miles of Herat, that she has steamers and barges with a united capacity of nearly 3,000,000 tons on the Volga, a fleet of nearly 100 steamers on the Caspian, and a line of railway running parallel to the Volga all the way from St. Petersburg to the shores of the Caspian. As the author clearly points out, the difficulties which Russia had to surmount in 1877, in concentrating her army at Kishineff by a single line of railroad, are infinitely greater than would be the difficulties of concentrating an equal force at Kizil Arvat, the present terminus of the Trans-Caspian Railway. The distance in the latter case is but little greater, the facilities of communication are much more ample, and the whole route lies within Russian territory, screened by the Caucasus from any powerful foe. Once arrived at Kizil Arvat, the distance to Herat is less than was the distance from Kishineff to Constantinople. Nor is Kizil Arvat really the terminus of the railway; it stopped there at the last authentic accounts several months ago, but since then work has continued upon it, although it is not certainly known how far it has gone forward. In all probability it will reach Askabad during the present summer, and this point is only 388 miles from Herat, while the terminus of the English railroad south of Quetta is 600 miles from the same point. Mr. Marvin argues that the analogy of recent events leads inevitably to the conclusion that it will be but a few years hence when this gap between Askabad and Quetta will be filled up, giving a direct rail communication via Herat from London to Calcutta with only two water breaks—viz., across the English Channel and across the Caspian—and that the journey will be accomplished in nine days. This "will revolutionize the Russo-Indian region and efface the southern portion of the Afghan barrier."

Concerning this Afghan barrier Mr. Marvin entertains no illusions: "Do what we can, we can never prevent the inevitable junction of the Russian and English frontiers in Asia. It would be difficult to do so even with Russia's help. It is impossible without it." And on the other hand, he summarizes the Russian policy in these words: "The conviction has been deepening in Russia for years that . . . the solution of the Eastern question is only attainable by taking up such a position on the Indian confines as shall compel England to acquiesce in the Russian occupation of Armenia and Constantinople." This conviction was Skobeleff's legacy to his countrymen. More than any one else he had pondered over it, and his writings on the subject, which have only been published since his death, have now "permeated the army and exercised an extraordinary effect in preparing Russia for fresh sacrifices." As Mr. Marvin justly says, these writings "possess fuller significance . . . than anything ever published in the Russian language, including the stale but often-quoted will of Peter the Great."

History of Art in Phœnicia and its Dependencies. By Georges Perrot and Charles Chipiez. Translated by Walter Armstrong, B.A., Oxon. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 2 vols. 1885.

RECENT researches have thrown but little new light on the origin of the Phœnicians: the story of Herodotus still stands as the highest authority. The study on the tribal affinities of the Phœnicians in the first chapter of this History errs, we believe, in common with much of the French speculation, in overestimating the weight of the testimony of language as against that of religious belief (p. 12 *et seq.*). But the résumé of the history of Phœnicia comprises all the chief data needed to connect that enterprising race with the early European civilization, and substantially all that can be definitely stated. If it is in some respects incomplete, it is because modern research has not found all that we should like to know; and, brief as it is, the history of the rise and struggles of Carthage, that greater daughter of the Syrian mother city, is of romantic interest. In the chapter on religion, the illogical theory of the identity of Hercules and Melkart is referred to as no longer tenable; while in the second volume Melkart is spoken of as "the deity who became finally confounded with the Greek Heracles." But in view of the real importance of this typical question, the conclusion of our author might well have been more distinctly stated, as the confusion is one of those which continually arose when the ancient religions came in contact. The argument held by those who maintain that Heracles was a Phœnician god imported into Greece, is to a great extent based on the curious correspondence between the names of Heracles and Melkart, which, when written in early Greek characters, are found to correspond by reversal, *i. e.*, Melkart, read backward, is made by slight modification to be Heracles. But this, it seems to us, accidental coincidence cannot have taken place before the date at which the letters of that form were used, viz., 600 to 700 B. C., while Heracles, as a Peloponnesian demi-god born at Tiryns, with a distinctly Pelasgic pedigree, is known to Greek tradition of centuries before, and his name is inextricably mixed with the Pelasgic colonization of that country, probably long anterior to any intercourse between the Greek and the Phœnician.

But the peculiar interest of the work of MM. Perrot and Chipiez lies in the study of the arts of Phœnicia, by which it is shown conclusively that while in the technical processes of art Greece, from early times, unquestionably borrowed much from the Phœnician, the higher type of art had no existence with the latter race, and of its technical achievements so little that remains can by any hypothesis be attributed to an early date, that we still know almost nothing of an art certainly Phœnician prior to the earlier phases of the great Greek art. In fact, what remains are found in Phœnicia give us information very trivial in comparison with what we draw from the colonies. Some day Carthage will be completely excavated, and then we shall know more of the Phœnicians than we are ever likely to learn from all other sources together, for Carthage was the greater Phœnicia. At present we are most largely indebted to Cyprus, the nearest of the colonies; but the remains thus far in hand are probably only a portion of what we may hope for from systematic and intelligent excavation. Col. di Cesnola, to whom we owe more of the material of Cypriote excavations than to any one else, had no knowledge of archæology or appreciation of the importance of exact memoranda of discovery, and Perrot, although an extreme apologist for him, is obliged to say: "We may, however, be allowed to express our regret that to his other services Cesnola has not added that of giving us plans, sections, and elevations of the tombs and other civil or religious edifices he was the first to explore. The few figures of this class which are sprinkled at rare intervals over his pages look too much as if they had been compiled from memory"—a remark which, considering that in another place he notices that two plans published by Cesnola, in separate communications concerning the same monument, do not agree in any particular, is a genial way of stating the delinquency.

M. Perrot recognizes the entire disaccord between the plan of the alleged temple at Golgos furnished by Col. di Cesnola to the Academy of Turin, and that in 'Cyprus,' admitting that they agree in no point, and settles the matter in this way: "To which of all these documents is our confidence due? We prefer that given in our Fig. 204 [that of 'Cyprus'], because it best corresponds to the double description given by Cesnola and Ceccaldi." But Ceccaldi distinctly stated that he had not been able to see a trace of this temple, and only knew of it what Cesnola saw fit to tell him, so that his description adds nothing to that of Cesnola. In another case, where Cesnola has not contradicted himself—that of the Panaghia Phaneromene—he gives an illustration differing widely from that of Di Cesnola, and yet makes no explanation of the inconsistency; that which he gives being credited to Max Ohnefalsch Richter. Again, in reference to the stone step alleged to have been found close to a throne said to have been discovered in the temple of Golgos (no part of which has been made known), the account given in the journal of the Turin Academy shows that the step could not have been found where 'Cyprus' states it to have been found, as its discovery was prior to that of the temple of Golgos. In regard to the great discovery of Cesnola—that of the treasure of Curium—M. Perrot adopts the whole story without noticing the singular anachronism in the discoverer's own account, and in spite of all the doubts thrown on the existence of the treasury, and the fact that no trace of it has ever been found since Cesnola's excavation. He accepts approximately the date assigned to this treasure—the middle of the fifth century—when the slightest acquaintance with antique jewelry would have shown him that many of these objects are not earlier than the second century, and some even later.

In reference to a statue now in the Metropolitan Museum M. Perrot has a note in his original edition as follows:

"Cette figure est une de celles dont la restauration a été le plus vivement contestée. Il a été démontré d'une manière générale, par un long et public débat où toutes les allégations ont pu se reproduire librement, combien étaient injustes les violentes attaques qui ont été dirigées pendant plusieurs années contre M. di Cesnola et contre sa collection; nous ferons d'ailleurs remarquer pour ce qui concerne particulièrement cette figure, qu'elle a été vue à Cypre même peu de temps après sa découverte chez son propriétaire par G. Colonna Ceccaldi. Trouvée en Mars, 1870, elle était décrite et représentée par Ceccaldi telle que le Musée de New York la possède aujourd'hui, dans un mémoire qui est daté du 22 Novembre, 1871, et Ceccaldi l'avait admirée et étudiée dès le mois de Mai, 1870 ('Monuments Antiques de Cypre,' pp. 35, 39)."

In the English edition this note runs:

"This statue bears two Cypriote letters on its left shoulder. It is one of those as to the restoration of which there have been very bitter disputes. It has been proved in a general way, by a long and public discussion in which everything that could be said on both sides was brought forward, that the violent attacks directed through a series of years at General di Cesnola and his collection were quite unjust. We may here remark, however, that this particular figure was seen only two months after its discovery by G. Colonna Ceccaldi, who described and figured it in November, 1871, twenty months after it was found ('Mon. Ant. de Cypre,' pp. 35, 39, 40). It was then in the state in which it now is."

Now the facts are these. This statue was seen by Ceccaldi in *May*, 1870, and the height was then noted by him as 3 metres. It was seen and photographed by Doell three months later, in *August*, 1870, and is given in his report as he saw it, with *the feet*, *the base*, and *the bird* missing; and Doell was too experienced an archæologist to be deluded. It then measured 1.98 metres. In 'Cyprus' it is given as 8 ft. 2 in. (in the French edition, 2.48 m.), and in Perrot and Chipiez as 9 ft. 3 in. Perrot quotes Doell on other points: we may presume that he read the reports of the libel suit, since he quotes it; and in face of all the testimony there offered him, he declares the statue free from restoration—"found as it now stands in the Museum."

Again, in the reference to the limestone statue of the Egyptian warrior, No. 213, in our Museum, Perrot says:

"Here the head-dress is of a peculiar form, showing more clearly perhaps than anywhere else the desire to imitate the *pschent;* but the ornament on the front of the *schenti* is still more interesting. This consists of an eye—the eye of Osiris; . . . but the central motive of the whole, the Medusa's head, is Greek. It is quite necessary that one should dwell to some extent on the motives employed by the Cypriote sculptor for the decoration of this vertical band or apron (*schenti*); it shows better than anything else how much and in what spirit he borrowed from Egypt."

Now, it is perfectly well known, and was admitted at the trial Perrot alludes to, that this statue was in three pieces: that the *pschent* of the head-dress was on one fragment, and the *schenti*, below the hips, was another; and the woodcut in this volume conceals the evident mismatch of the pieces, clear enough in the original. So that the simplest solution of this archæological wonder was to suppose that somebody made a mistake in matching the *schenti* with the *pschent*, when in all probability, as shown by the incongruity Perrot attempts to reconcile, they originally belonged to different statues. In his fig. 107, a terracotta statuette, which is represented as a bearded Venus, and accepted by him as such, there is not the slightest indication of the femineity of the statuette, which is bearded and draped.

The material for a comprehensive idea of Phœnician architecture is not given us in the present work; and in the direction in which the prior researches of M. Chipiez gave most ground for hope—viz., as to the technical methods employed—no particulars are furnished us. We may infer, from general descriptions, that the costliest monuments now remaining were executed with cutting tools, and this will bring them down to a time subsequent to the neolithic period, whenever that was reached in Phœnicia. As this is one of the most important indications in the investigation of prehistoric civilization, it is to be regretted that the authors have not collected definite data concerning it.

Monnaies et Médailles. Par Fr. Lenormant, de l'Institut. [Bibliothèque de l'Enseignement des Beaux-Arts.] Paris: A. Quantin.

THE brilliant and versatile archæologist whose loss science has been so lately called on to deplore, has left his mark on too many branches of archæology to be considered as a special authority, perhaps, in any—if, indeed, his mental constitution was not one of those which decline alike the limitations and the concentration of a specialty. His authority as an epigraphist was gravely weakened by the exposure, by one of his more exact and thorough German colleagues, of some fictitious inscriptions to which he gave publicity; and so exacting in respect to veracity is science that, on account of this lapsus, which his friends have wished to explain as a hoax without any intention of really imposing on the scientific world, his observations will probably always remain under impeachment, and a question will always be placed after his discoveries. But in the book on coins and medals which Lenormant furnished for the above-named series, he only went into the general statement of known facts in regard to numismatics, and these he gave in so concise and orderly a manner that there can be no hesitation in recommending the volume to all beginners in numismatics, as a first book in that science. It is, indeed, so terse and so complete in its scope that nothing more than a cursory view of any part of the field was possible, and if Lenormant had any views of especial profundity, there was not room to display them.

Numismatics is the branch of archæology which, more than any other, may be considered the portico of archæology, both artistic and historical, and at the same time in itself the most complete and satisfactory as a specialty. It is the lamp of classical history and the guide-book of ancient art, and in itself holds so many of the profoundest problems of archæology that its importance can hardly be exaggerated in relation to classical study. How many sovereigns, states, and events are there that we know chiefly or solely by the coins which commemorate them; how much of the most exquisite ancient art should we have lost but for the coins of the many Greek cities whose mints were art-schools; and how many curious problems of ancient political economy and commercial relations are told by the coinage of the greater states!

The principal of those problems thus far solved are mentioned by Lenormant; but in a volume which comprises a more or less complete account of the coinage of Europe from Pheidon, of Argos, to the third French Republic, only an introduction could be given. In this kind of résumé the author is at his best, yet adds nothing to the elucidation of obscure points. He accepts the common interpretation of the well-known denarius of T. Carisius which is so open to question, without any suspicion of its unsoundness. This denarius contains on the reverse an anvil, a crowned helmet, the tongs and hammer of Vulcan. How the most perverse ingenuity could ever have made of this anvil and helmet the dies with which the coins were struck, it is difficult to conceive. The only thing that gave any color to it was the fact that Carisius was mint master. The use of the tongs is a purely gratuitous hypothesis, as, we are persuaded, is that of the striking of coins hot, which is supposed in explanation of the use of the tongs. There is no reason to believe that coins were struck hot, though they were probably annealed between the blows, if more than one was needed, as must have been the case with the larger coins in high relief; but bronze, which is the hardest metal employed in ancient coinage, is not so malleable when heated, but becomes brittle; and in fact the striking of a hot *flan* (as the blanks were called) of bronze is quite out of the question, while the pure silver which was employed for the coins of that metal is much softer and more malleable than the bronze, and requires even less the action of heat, being, as well as bronze, more amenable cold than hot to the operations of the mint. Mr. C. W. King, of Cambridge, England, has, in a communication to the Cambridge Antiquarian Society, shown the erroneous interpretation put on the Carisius denarius, but the whole subject does not seem to have been approached with practical knowledge of the working of metals by the writers who have accepted the hot theory of coinage. Another proof that the hot coinage was not practical may be found in the incused denarii, with identical obverse and reverse, which occur occasionally in the Roman coinages. These were caused by the coiner not noticing, in the hurry of his work, that the coin last struck was held by the upper die, and when a new flan was laid on the lower one to be struck, its reverse was struck, not by the die but by the coin in the die. Now, as these dies were generally of bronze, the rapid striking of hot flans would soon have heated the dies to brittleness if used in such haste as the common occurrence of incused denarii indicates. The ancient method of coining was to cast the flans of the proper weight, or nearly so, and then, the lower die being fixed in a block of wood or other solid substance, the flan was laid on it, and the upper die, held in the hand, was struck by a hammer; the piece being necessarily annealed in the fire between the stages of the operation.

Counterfeiting is an old trade, and took on forms we do not know in its modern practice. Little cities struck counterfeits of the coins of wealthier cities, to give their coins greater currency. The private counterfeiter made cast coins, and poor and dishonest potentates made bronze coins plated with silver; and in the Renaissance and subsequently the counterfeiting of antique coins was carried to such a perfection that the products have long circulated, or been preserved in museums, unsuspected. The late quickening in the study of numismatics has so raised the price of ancient coins that already counterfeits of our own epoch are in circulation, so admirably done that none but the most expert numismatists can distinguish them from the genuine; and possibly, if the truth were known, some have escaped even the experts of the great museums. When a counterfeit is detected, of course its career is over; but if it is not detected, who is the wiser? And, in fact, there are counterfeits of gold coins which have only been discovered to be such by finding that a number of precisely the same type were in the market, which never occurs among the coinages earlier than that of imperial Rome. It is very rare to find two ancient Greek coins from the same dies, and this is the only practical check to counterfeiting of them, as the skill requisite to make the dies is to-day too rare and well-paid to be employed in this way, the number of coins of any type which can be put on the market being so restricted as to make it an unprofitable business except for the very costliest coins. The reproduction and multiplication of the British Museum and other collections by electrotype has put the best types in the hands of the counterfeiters, but at the same time makes the detector as accessible to all, and the student of numismatics can scarcely do better than to have recourse to this facility for making the acquaintance of the rarer and more beautiful ancient coinages.

The chapters in 'Coins and Medals' on the mediæval and Renaissance coinage and medallions are more complete, and perhaps more satisfactory, than those on the antique. The chapter on modern French coinage and the processes of the day are interesting, and explain the reasons for the inevitable inferiority of modern money to the antique, but show how the former may be made less offensively deficient in beauty. Being a Frenchman, the author is born to good taste and speaks *ex cathedra*.

Fly-Rods and Fly-Tackle: Suggestions as to their Manufacture and Use. By Henry P. Wells. Harper & Bros. 1885.

THERE is no more fitting season of the year for a book on angling to make its appearance than now, when the first faint forebodings of the dilatory spring rouse the angler to thoughts of crystal streams, the break of the feeding trout, and the gallant leap of the fresh-run salmon. The sweet reflections on these subjects which the season brings, turn the mind to the practical preparations for their realization later, in the way of looking over and patching up, where it

can be done, the rods, reels, lines, flies, etc., which bear all the scars received in the campaign of last season. As a delightful and instructive aid in this preparation, as well as in other graver matters pertaining to the art, we can unreservedly recommend Mr. Wells's book, in spite of its modest introduction, which disclaims the idea of its being written for any save beginners.

Mr. Wells commences with fishhooks, and the chapter about them is excellent and scientific, and not a mere rehash of Mr. Pennell's admirable treatise on the subject, which has furnished so many original articles. In respect to the gut leaders (which are not, as vulgarly supposed, made from the entrails of a domestic animal, but from the silk fluid secreted by the Chinese variety of the silkworm) the book tells us of a valuable discovery made recently of one of the native American silkworms furnishing a gut equal in quality to the best foreign product, large enough in volume to be drawn out to a length of eight or nine feet, and strong enough to hold a salmon. This remarkable length—the foreign gut not averaging much, if any, over a foot—would be of the greatest advantage to the angler, and we trust Mr. Wells may be philanthropic enough to put his fellows in the way of utilizing the find. His views on reels are very sound, and his preferences for all-metal ones well grounded. Why is it that a strong, substantial, and durable reel cannot be had at a reasonable price? And even at the unreasonable prices such articles cost, we have known more than one instance of their giving way at a most critical moment.

The body and meat of the book is the section on rods and rod-making; and in regard to the latter we can give but guarded praise, as a good rod is so intricate and delicate a machine that telling how it is made conveys to the layman but a very faint idea of what the finished implement will do. It has always seemed to us that a man might as well try to make his own watches and clothes from treatises on horology or sartorial subjects. Still, the information may, if correctly followed, produce excellent results; and certainly that about the different woods used, and the method of repairing tackle, is useful and practical. The illustrated chapter on fly-casting, part of which appeared in *Harper's* for April, is very good. We judge from the plates that Mr. Wells fishes with the reel so placed on the rod that it must be under it when playing a fish, thus bringing the strain of the line directly on the rings instead of the rod; but this practice is nearly obsolete. The concluding chapters on "Fly Fishing" and "Miscellaneous Suggestions" contain many ingenious and pleasing theories and experiments of the author, as well as sound and tested views on the practice and paraphernalia of angling. There are interspersed irregularly through the book short narratives of angling exploits, none the less entertaining for being in one or two cases somewhat legendary in their character. The volume, as a whole, is so much above the average of the American work on angling, that we make bold to suggest to its maker that in the subsequent editions through which it deserves to pass he should leave out such superfluities as this on page 11: "Angler! the term is to me a title of nobility, an order of knighthood open to personal merit alone," etc., etc.

A Sketch of the Life and Times of the Rev. Sydney Smith. Based on Family Documents and the Recollections of Personal Friends. By Stuart J. Reid. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers. 1885.

This book is intended, its author explains, "to supplement, not to rival, the biography which is already before the world." It is well worth reading, if only for the hitherto unpublished correspondence and anecdotes it contains. It also gives a connected account of the beginning of the *Edinburgh Review*—a subject always full of literary interest—and of the men who took part in establishing it. Its aim is chiefly to show that Sydney Smith was one of the enlightened reformers of his day, his wit springing from a hatred of oppression, love of justice and right, and sound common sense. But his wit is, after all, in itself his chief claim to immortality, and it is a very individual kind of wit. Few other masters of ridicule, as Macaulay called him, ever made so many jokes and so many friends at the same time. There was beneath his humor a flow of animal spirits and good nature, and a desire to please, which saved him altogether from indulgence in malice. He attacked people and made fun of them all his life, but his motives were so transparent that it was impossible to mistake them. His philosophy of life was that of an honorable man of the world, and his interests were mainly of the world. He has been a good deal criticised by his less witty clerical brethren for lack of "spirituality," but we might almost as well complain of Aristophanes or Voltaire for the same fault. He was born a wit, and was not a born clergyman. Accident put him in the church; but he remained a wit in spite of the fact. A spiritual wit seems to us like a contradiction in terms. Sydney Smith was an eminently religious man, but his religion had chiefly the effect of making him generous, charitable, benevolent, an aggressive combatant in the great struggle for modern freedom.

In the present volume we find one or two entertaining scraps of his conversation, not hitherto published, and very characteristic: "Ah! you talk very lightly of common sense, but you forget, as I said in my lectures, that 2,000 years ago common sense was not invented, and that philosophers would be considered as inspired by the gods, and would have altars raised to them for the advice which a grandmother now gives to a child six years old." "Every political eminence is a Tarpeian rock." "I will do human nature the justice to say that we are all prone to make other people do their duty." Finally: "I wish I could write poetry like you, Rogers. I would write an 'Inferno,' and I would put Macaulay amongst a number of disputants, and gag him!"

From the Tone-World. Essays by Louis Ehlert. Translated from the German by Helen D. Tretbar. C. F. Tretbar. Pp. 288.

In making fifteen of the late Louis Ehlert's essays on music and musicians accessible to English readers Mrs. Tretbar has done a useful work; for collections of musical essays in the English language are not abundant, and Ehlert is one of the few German critics whose criticisms are worth translating. Mrs. Tretbar's version is always correct, although occasionally somewhat obscure and inelegant. Ehlert was much addicted to figurative language, which sounds odd in a literal translation. His style is often picturesque and again sentimental, as the two following quotations will show:

"He who has not heard it can form no idea of the intoxication which permeates the orchestra after *Wotan's* departure (in 'Siegfried,' act iii). In the same degree in which *Siegfried* approaches the rocky wilderness, and *Brünnhilde* sinks into her sleep (?), the blazing flames rise up higher and higher in the orchestra. Warmer and warmer becomes the glow, until each instrument burns with a crackling blaze" (p. 198).

"Perhaps the most touching of all that Chopin has written is the tale in the F major Ballade. I have witnessed children lay aside their games to listen thereto. It appears like some fairy tale that has become music. The four-voiced part has such a clearness withal, it seems as if warm spring breezes were waving the lithe leaves of the palm tree. How soft and sweet a breath steals over the senses and the heart" (p. 280).

The essays on Chopin and Schumann are the best in the collection. The works of these composers are gaining in popularity every year, while those of Mendelssohn, which in their lifetime appeared much more brilliant, have for the most part proved to be deceptive meteors, as Ehlert shows in a special article on Mendelssohn. Our author consoles himself with the reflection that "there are things, like the dew and flowers, that we regard as all the more beautiful on account of their perishableness." The pathological sides of music and of criticism are treated in essays on Offenbach and Gervinus.

No fewer than six of the essays are devoted to Wagner—including a readable account of the Bayreuth festival, in which praise and censure are mingled in those proportions which always insure an author the reputation of impartiality, although he *may* be quite at sea in every statement he makes. "Tristan and Isolde," of which Ehlert was an ardent admirer (with certain reservations), is discussed in two articles, and there is a fanciful and weak "parallel" between Wagner, Makart, and Hamerling. In "Gounod contra Wagner," Ehlert exposes the amusing impudence of Gounod's protests against Wagner's alterations in the scoring of Beethoven's ninth symphony. These alterations were of such a nature that there can be no doubt whatever that Beethoven himself would have made them had not the instruments then in use been too limited in their power of execution. Gounod's remonstrances, as Ehlert suggests, had their foundation rather in a general disaffection toward Wagner than in critical grounds of disapproval. The essay on Carl Tausig also deserves mention as a characteristic sketch of one of the most gifted and eccentric musicians of the century.

"*Gombo Zhèbes*": Little Dictionary of Creole Proverbs Selected from Six Creole Dialects. By Lafcadio Hearn. New York: W. H. Coleman.

In No. 453 of the *Nation* we called attention to the interesting 'Kreolische Studien' of Dr. H. Schuchardt, and noted the increasing interest shown in this peculiar class of studies—that of the hybridization of languages. Doctor Schuchardt had devoted his attention more especially to the linguistic side of the phenomena of "creolization," studying in this way the "lingoes" of remote island-groups in the South Sea and the Indian Ocean, and bringing to bear on them the skill of the practised philologist. Closely following on these researches comes Mr. Lafcadio Hearn with his quaint little volume, 'Gombo Zhèbes,' which may be called a comparative study of proverbs in six Creole dialects—the dialects of Mauritius, French Guiana, Martinique, Trinidad, Hayti, and Louisiana, all but one products of our western hemisphere. It would appear, therefore, that Mr. Hearn's collection has rather a psychological than a linguistic or philological interest. A glance, indeed, at the 352 proverbs which he has selected, translated into French and English, and annotated, will give a folk-lorist a surprising insight into the habits of thought, the "spiritual temperature," the naïve mental attitude, of our western aboriginal or imported populations in their contact and commerce with an alien tongue. It will also show the universality of certain proverbs which, as citizens of the globe, acquire their letters of naturalization everywhere.

Not the least interesting portion of the collection is that part of it which immediately concerns us—the brief and often witty product of the genius of the Louisiana colored Creole. Mr. Hearn declares that the genuine patois is rapidly

dying out, and that soon both lingo and locutions will be irrecoverably lost. We are accordingly thankful to him and to his friend Prof. Henry for rescuing from destruction so much that is striking and characteristic in the New Orleans dialect. These proverbs, like the sayings of children, have occasionally an unconscious indecency which is even a part of their charm, while their piquancy is often delightful. The title of the book is a very apposite one, being a corruption of *gombo aux herbes*, a soup salmagundi composed of all sorts of vegetable scraps, peculiar, with the numerous other gomboes, to the Creole cuisine of New Orleans. Mr. Hearn has done good service in adding his suggestive notes and illustrations, and in throwing in the odds and ends of patois songs which he has gathered from the lips and memories of the ancient *mamans* of the French Market and the New Orleans street corners. It seems that there is not only a Creole patois, there is also another which Younger Ethiopia, forgetting its manners, contemptuously calls *nèg* (negro). So, while the older generation of Creole kitchen-folk speak their dialect in its primitive purity without a single *r*, and say *zhèbes*, the regenerated scamp who has been attending school restores the missing link and insists upon saying *zhairbes*. Thus the dialect is changing, and another picturesque landmark of ancient Louisiana bids fair to disappear.

Elements of the Differential and Integral Calculus. By Prof. James M. Taylor, of Madison University, Hamilton, N. Y. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.

FROM the number of text-books treating of the calculus which have appeared within the last four or five years, several of which have been noticed in the *Nation*, we infer that the number of students of that branch of mathematics is rapidly increasing. In most, if not all, our colleges the calculus is an elective study. Few students would choose it because they considered it an accomplishment, or because they supposed it would be easier than some alternative. The large majority of those who study the calculus do so because they wish to prepare themselves to become teachers of mathematics, or because they expect to make practical application of it in some other science or in some scientific calling like engineering. Hence the increase in the number of students of the calculus, shown by the demand for text-books, seems to indicate an increasing attention to scientific pursuits in general.

Professor Taylor's work has two marked characteristics. In the first place it is evidently a most carefully written book. There is nothing vague or slipshod in it. The last chapter has been "filed" as much as the first. Nearly every sentence, certainly every theorem, seems to have been constructed with a strenuous effort to give it clearness and precision. This constant attention to the form of expression has enabled the author to be concise without becoming obscure. We are acquainted with no text-book of the calculus which compresses so much matter into so few pages, and at the same time leaves the impression that all that is necessary has been said. In the second place, the number of carefully selected examples, both of those worked out in full in illustration of the text, and of those left for the student to work out for himself, is extraordinary. From this point of view those teachers and pupils who are accustomed to or prefer a different text-book, would still do well to provide themselves with this, regarding it merely as a collection of examples and without any reference to the text.

We do not wish it to be inferred that we regard everything in this book as treated in the best way possible. There are many points which we should prefer to see handled in a different manner; but it is a work constructed on a well-considered, self-consistent plan, with ample material to enable the student to become thoroughly acquainted with the machinery of a branch of mathematics which most students regard with profound respect, for the results which it accomplishes with a seemingly magical facility, while at the same time they recoil from its supposed enormous difficulties.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Across the Chasm. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Adams, W. R. Look Within for Five Thousand Facts that Everybody Wants to Know. Chicago: A. H. Andrews & Co.
Beers, H. A. Nathaniel Parker Willis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Bierbower, A. The Morals of Christ. Chicago: Colegrove Book Co. 50 cents.
Bourget, P. Cruelle Énigme. 5th ed. F. W. Christern.
Brown, Prof. F. Assyriology: Its Use and Abuse in Old Testament Study. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Caine, H. The Shadow of a Crime: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Cauvain, H. Le Grand Vaincu: Dernière Campagne du Marquis de Montcalm au Canada. F. W. Christern.
Cheney, Ednah D. Selected Poems from Michelangelo Buonarroti. With Translations from Various Sources. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.75.
Crooks, Dr. G. R. Sermons by Bishop Matthew Simpson. Edited from Short-hand Reports. Harper & Brothers.
Deckert, E. Die Colonialreiche und Kolonisationsobjekte der Gegenwart. Leipzig: Paul Frohberg.
Dillard, J. H. Exercises in Arithmetic. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co.
Farmer, S. The History of Detroit and Michigan; or, The Metropolis Illustrated. Detroit: S. Farmer & Co.
Gedanken einer Jüdin über das Judentum. B. Westermann & Co.
Glasgow, D. Watch and Clock Making. With 69 Diagrams. Cassell & Co. $2.
Grove, Sir G. A Dictionary of Music and Musicians. A. D. 1450-1885. In 4 vols. Vol. IV., Part 20. T.—V. Macmillan & Co.
Guiney, Louise Imogen. Goose-Quill Papers. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Hale, E. E. A Man without a Country, and Other Tales. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.
Hale, Susan. Life and Letters of Thomas Gold Appleton. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Harte, Bret. The Luck of Roaring Camp, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hill, A. S. From Home to Home: Autumn Wanderings in the Northwest. 1881-'84. Illustrated. Orange Judd Co. $5.
Hopkins, Ellice, and Others. White Cross Series. Nos. VI. to X. inclusive. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Keilhack, K. Reisebilder aus Island. B. Westermann & Co.
Kuphal, Dr. O. A Method for the Idiomatic Study of German. Part I. William S. Gottsberger.
Lamb, Charles and Mary. Tales from Shakespeare. Edited for the Use of Schools. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 43 cents.
Langille, Rev. J. H. Our Birds in Their Haunts. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. $3.
Lindau, P. Aus der Neuen Welt. B. Westermann & Co.
Lowell, J. R. Fireside Travels. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Lytton, Earl of. Glenaveril; or, the Metamorphoses. A Poem in Six Books. Book I. D. Appleton & Co. 25 cents.
Mackenzie, A. C. The Rose of Sharon. (Vocal Score and Pianoforte Accompaniment.) Novello & Co.
Marvin, C. The Russians at the Gates of Herat. With Maps and Portraits. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Mistral, F. Mirèio. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.
Molloy, J. L. Our Autumn Holiday on French Rivers. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.
Newton, Wm. W. Summer Sermons from a Berkshire Pulpit. Pittsfield, Mass.: J. B. Harrison, 50 cents.
Pellico, Silvio. My Prisons. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.
Petöfi, A. Selections from his Poems. Translated by Henry Phillips, jr. Philadelphia: Privately printed.
Robinson, Dr. B. A Practical Treatise on Nasal Catarrh and Allied Diseases. Second edition. W. Wood & Co. $2.50.
Seymour, B. C. The Inaugural Address of the Kingdom of Heaven. A Translation of the Sermon on the Mount, with Comment and Notes. Louisville: John R. Morton & Co. 25 cents.
Spofford, A. R. A Practical Manual of Parliamentary Rules. Chicago: A. H. Andrews & Co.
Stephens, Mrs. Ann S. The Reigning Belle. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 75 cents.
Sterne, S. Defective and Corrupt Legislation. The Cause and the Remedy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. II.—Annesley—Baird. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Stevenson, R. L. A Child's Garden of Verses. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Stevenson, R. L. Treasure Island. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 50 cents.
Strong, W. C. Fruit Culture, and the Laying Out and Management of a Country Home. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Stork, Dr. C. A. Light on the Pilgrim's Way. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Taine, H. A. The French Revolution. In 3 vols. Vol. III. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50.

Fine Arts.

"THE ROSE OF SHARON."

ON Thursday evening the New York Chorus Society brought its fourth season to a successful close by giving the first performance in America of "The Rose of Sharon," a dramatic oratorio by Mr. A. C. Mackenzie. Mr. Thomas had evidently devoted much care to the preparations for this concert, and the result was an excellent performance in almost every detail. The solo parts were in the hands of Misses Emma Juch and Emily Winant, Messrs. W. J. Winch, I. Morawski, and Max Heinrich, and were satisfactorily rendered. The New York Chorus Society has the best female chorus in the country, a fact which was again demonstrated during the evening; and the orchestra, being that of the Philharmonic Society, with some reinforcements in the brass, was of course perfection. Many of the numbers were applauded, but it cannot be said that as a whole the English oratorio made as favorable an impression as had been anticipated. When the "Rose of Sharon" was produced for the first time in England last October, it was heralded by the critics as a work of genius and as one of the most important choral compositions of the epoch. The composer, who conducted personally, was, after the performance, pelted with roses by the ladies of the chorus and the audience; and one critic declared he had not witnessed such an ovation in an experience of twenty-five years.

These facts are suggestive in two respects. The English have been dubbed an unmusical nation so often that they have become sensitive on this point, and endeavor to hide their nervousness by whistling—*i. e.*, by making a tremendous noise on the slightest provocation. This accounts for much of the success in England of the "Rose of Sharon," a success which will not be witnessed in this country. Then, again, the popularity of this work shows that the oratorio is still the most popular form of music in England. First-class operas or orchestral concerts are seldom given there without a loss, whereas the most commonplace oratorio draws an audience of thousands. In Germany and France a hundred operatic performances are given to one of oratorio; and in this respect American taste fortunately goes with the Continent rather than with England. Religion is the mainspring of the English love of oratorio; for if the music itself were admired, there is no reason why good operas and concerts should not be better patronized. Now Americans may be quite as religious as the English, but they do not care to confound art with devotion. Hence in America the oratorio is the most unpopular form of music—so unpopular, indeed, that sometimes it is deemed advisable to suppress the word oratorio in advertising the performance of a choral work. And in this aversion to oratorio the American people are guided by a correct instinct, for it is at best an illogical, unæsthetic, hybrid form of art. There is some sort of a plot, a scenic background is imagined, the singers impersonate distinct characters; but there is no scenery, no action, no costumes — nothing but evening dress and gloves. The oratorio might be defined as a major and minor premise, of which the logical conclusion is the music drama. An undeveloped sense of æsthetic structure in former times, and a desire to avoid bringing sacred subjects into the theatre, are largely responsible for the growth of oratorio. Some of the greatest works of this class by old masters will always retain their interest for musicians; but success at the present day cannot be achieved on these lines, because the oratorio is an antiquated form of musical architecture. What adds to the unattractiveness of oratorios is the inordinate length to which they are always spun out. A four-hour opera is not so long as a two-hour oratorio, because the opera affords such a great variety of entertainment for the ears and eyes of the spectators. The "Rose of Sharon," as produced in England under the composer's bâton, took more than three hours. Mr. Thomas curtailed it somewhat, but if he had omitted fully one-third of the music, the result would have been more gratifying.

The libretto, whose unskilful construction

is the cause of the musical redundancy, is based on the Song of Solomon, but the compiler has introduced all sorts of extraneous matter. The four parts of the oratorio are entitled Separation, Temptation, Victory, and Reunion; and the story can be told in a dozen lines. Solomon passing through Sulam beholds the "dark but comely" Sulamite, becomes enamored, and, despite her attempt to flee with her Beloved, has her taken to his palace. There she is tempted with all the royal splendor to accept Solomon's devotion, but in vain. Finally the King allows her to depart, and she returns to Sulam and her Beloved.

This outline contains material for some fine dramatic effects, which, however, neither librettist nor composer has succeeded in attaining. If Mr. Mackenzie is in sympathy with modern musical tendencies, as his friends claim, there is little in this oratorio to indicate it. Although there are a few modern touches, the general character of the work bears the stamp of Handel and Mendelssohn—the old English idols, who have done so much to retard progress in that country. Mr. Mackenzie introduces a few leading motives to indicate references to Solomon, the Beloved, Love, the Village, and the Vineyard. But they are not sufficiently plastic to impress themselves on the memory, and therefore miss their effect. The power to characterize—that is, the dramatic gift—is, indeed, weak in Mr. Mackenzie's work. His melody, although seldom original, is always flowing and pleasing; but in the two elements of music which give the most definite expression to dramatic feeling—namely, modulation and rhythm—he is weak; and this harmonic and rhythmic monotony becomes oppressive as the work proceeds. Again, the lines are often repeated, and there is seldom a connection in detail between the words and the music, such as we find in the works of Liszt, Franz, Wagner, and Schumann. That there are many interesting pages in the "Rose of Sharon" we readily concede; but they are neutralized by their commonplace surroundings. Thus the effect of the slumber music accompanying the Sulamite's dream is marred by the fact that so much of the preceding music is soporific. Mr. Mackenzie, in a word, lacks individuality and inventive power. There are in Germany a hundred Kapellmeisters who could write as good an oratorio.

Vol. III. Taine's

French Revolution.

Completion of the work.

By H. A. Taine, D.C.L. Oxon. Translated by John Durand. Large 12mo, $2.50. The complete work, 3 vols., $7.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 30, 1885.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has an opportunity to do a great work for the army and navy, and we are glad to see signs that he means to do it. What is needed is that, whenever he has a vacancy to fill, he shall give the place to the man who has best earned promotion, and that, when a vacancy is ordered by a court-martial, or when a milder punishment is imposed by the same authority, he shall sustain the cause of justice by withstanding the inevitable appeals that he will set aside the verdict. He maintained the former principle in the first test case the other day, when he filled a vacancy in the Quartermaster's Department of the army by promoting a deserving officer who had been for twenty years in the service, solely on account of his worth and military services, instead of giving the desirable place to one of the rich and influential civilian applicants who zealously sought it. He has now enforced the other rule by approving the findings of the court-martial in the case of Lieutenant Jouett, of the army, who had been convicted of illegally using Government funds. What lends importance to this action is the fact that all sorts of army and political influence were invoked to secure a reversal of the sentence, after the too common custom. The offender's father is a rear-admiral in the navy and an old Kentucky Democrat, who was able to interest many people of importance in his behalf; but Mr. Cleveland paid no attention to such arguments and entreaties, and, after thoroughly examining into the matter, approved the sentence of dismissal. These actions, which there is every reason to believe are significant of Mr. Cleveland's settled policy, not only illustrate his capacity for resisting "influence," but they also show the great advantage which a President possesses who goes to Washington, as he did, free from the complications which beset every public man who has long been prominent in national politics.

The scandalous abuses which have for so many years characterized the management of our navy-yards are ended if Secretary Whitney follows the line of policy which he has laid down in his letter to the commandant of the Mare Island Navy-yard. Mr. Whitney has been looking into the conduct of the foremen of this yard in elections, particularly as developed in a contested election case from the San Francisco district growing out of the Congressional fight of 1882, and he finds the evidence clear that the vote of the employees was practically coerced and controlled by the foremen, who openly forced their subordinates to deposit folded ballots which they were not even allowed to read. The Secretary learns that the same foremen are still employed, and he notifies the commandant that they "should be cleared out of the yard in the interest of decent government." Nor does Mr. Whitney stop with any such half-way measure of reform. He gives notice that "if any similar proceeding, or anything like it, or any attempt to coerce the vote of the employees of the yard by foremen or superior officers should take place hereafter, whether in the interest of the dominant party or otherwise, I will apply a similar remedy." There is evidently one member of the Cabinet who agrees with Mr. Cleveland, not only that "offensive partisans" should be dismissed, but that "their successors" as well should be taught that efficiency, fitness, and devotion to public duty are the conditions of continuance in a well-organized public service.

Nobody ever expected that the new Administration would make no mistakes. Some mistakes were inevitable. The Higgins appointment was the first, but it was in some degree excused by the fact that the entire Maryland delegation, Representatives and Senators, approved of it after it was done. At all events, there has been until now a strong disposition among the friends of the Administration to assume that it was an isolated case, and had no real significance as regards the general policy of the Administration. Some of the more recent appointments by the Treasury Department have been such, however, as to do a great deal toward weakening this friendly assumption. The selection of three such Internal Revenue Collectors, all in one week, as Pillsbury, Chase, and Troup, and the appointment of Secretary Manning's brother-in-law to be Superintendent of Repairs, are likely to be very unfortunate in their effects on the public mind. Worse selections than Pillsbury and Chase could hardly be made without going among the technically criminal class. They are hardened and worthless politicians of the very type over which, in the Republican party, Mr. Cleveland's election was supposed to be a great victory. Troup is one of the most prominent of those precious humbugs of our day, "the labor reformers," and is unfit for a place of trust with regular duties.

It ought to be said, in explanation or extenuation of the mistake made in Mr. Keiley's case, that any person possessing enough intellectual or social standing to be a candidate for a first-class mission, ought himself to know whether there is anything in his antecedents to disqualify him for the position offered to him, and, if there is, ought to tell the Secretary of State of it. A candidate for a place of this kind ought not to allow things to his prejudice as a candidate to be found out about him. Mr. Keiley ought to have been the first to tell the State Department that his views about the temporal power of the Pope were, or had been, such as to make him unfit to represent the American Government at the Italian court. If he is fit to represent the American Government at any court, he ought to have seen this himself at a glance. But we go further than this: we hold that any mature man who was of opinion, so late as 1870, that a priests' government, upheld by French bayonets, was good enough government for any civilized people, is not fit to represent the American people at any capital. Such a man is what Wendell Phillips called "a recreant American." His political ideas are not American. He has, however, a perfect right to them as a private individual. He is at perfect liberty to believe, for his own private satisfaction, that the Pope's temporal power, upheld by a French brigade, was a good thing for the Romans; but he is not fit to go abroad as the exponent of American opinion about civil government. Every minister is or ought to be in some sort an apostle touching the things which his nation believes to be of prime importance in human society. No man, therefore, ought to go anywhere as an American representative who thinks well of a form of government which nearly every one of his countrymen, not a priest, would die sooner than live under.

The selection of Mr. Conrad N. Jordan as Treasurer of the United States in place of Mr. Wyman, resigned, will be generally approved by the business community of New York. Mr. Jordan's services in recent examinations, and his changes of the Treasury book-keeping, have demonstrated his capacity and fitness for the special duties to which he is now permanently assigned. There appears to be a disposition in some quarters to look upon Mr. Jordan's appointment as having a significant bearing upon the policy of the Administration on the silver question. Any such assumption would be groundless, for the reason that the Treasurer of the United States has nothing to do with the silver question except in the way of providing storage room for the silver dollars as they come into his hands. He is not expected to make recommendations respecting the general policy of the Government, although some liberty of complaint is allowed to him if the silver burden becomes inconveniently large. The policy of the Administration on the silver question was stated with such amplitude and force by President Cleveland in his letter to Congressman Warner that side inferences, drawn from the selection of subordinate officers, are unnecessary and superfluous.

It is a queer comment on the state of public opinion regarding the civil-service law, that immediately upon the announcement of Mr. Jordan's appointment, alarm and perspiration broke out among the whole force of employees in the Treasurer's office, which was only assuaged by the personal assurances of the new Treasurer that he intended to observe the requirements of the act in letter and spirit. The terrors of the spoils system have penetrated the public service to such a degree that nearly everybody expects that the law will be overridden or circumvented in some way, no matter how carefully it may be worded, or how severe may be the penalties for its violation. As the Postmaster at Cleveland said in his report to the Civil-Service Commission, it was at first impossible "to make applicants understand that there was no underground railway to the offices." Everybody wanting office believed that the act was a bit of humbug like a party platform, and everybody in office apprehended that this was the correct view. A true test of the *bona fides* of the

law, and of its efficacy to accomplish its declared purpose, was possible only under an Administration opposed in politics to the party whose appointees held the bulk of the clerkships and other subordinate places. There has not been, and we venture to say that there will not be, a single departure from the spirit of the law during the whole of President Cleveland's Administration. If it shall be shown in a term of four years that there is absolutely no underground railway to the offices embraced in the civil-service act, the beneficial results to the morale of the service and to society itself will be immense and incalculable.

Postmaster-General Vilas has just had an amusing illustration of the deep-seated aversion to publicity which always animates the worser sort of place-hunters. Applying the principles of civil-service reform to the filling of vacancies in the ranks of post-office inspectors, which are not covered by the letter of the law, Mr. Vilas has prepared a list of questions for every applicant to answer. One of these inquiries is whether the applicant has ever been indicted or tried for a criminal offence, and, in case he has been, he is required to explain all the circumstances under oath. This feature of the examination, we are told and can readily believe, has provoked great indignation and a vast amount of hard swearing, and one spokesman for a large class has given amusing expression to their indignation at such treatment, in the awe-inspiring declaration that "he'll see Vilas in —— before he'll answer such impertinent questions," and that he doesn't want an office on such terms.

Secretary Bayard has, in his correspondence with Señor Becerra, the Colombian Minister at Washington, reaffirmed in the most explicit manner the doctrine that not only can there be no paper blockade of an enemy's port, but that no Government can close its own ports in the hands of an enemy, or of insurgents, except by effective blockade. This is the position taken by the British Government in 1861, touching the Southern ports, which our Government acquiesced in as regards ports held by insurgents, having always previously vigorously maintained it as regards enemy's ports. Mr. Bayard also refuses to treat as pirates the war vessels of the Colombian insurgents. They are, as long as they have ports to issue from, de-facto belligerent cruisers, and entitled to neutral recognition as such.

An explanatory statement, semi-official in character, has been put forth in reply to a paragraph of ours on the political action of Mr. James M. Morgan in the Presidential campaign. It is affirmed that Mr. Morgan "has always been a Democrat, and was a supporter of Cleveland." Our reply is, that Mr. Morgan spent most of the campaign period in New York city, and that he was while here openly and notoriously a Blaine partisan, and an earnest believer in the success of the Republican ticket. It is stated further that Mr. Morgan's pamphlet was published "with a view to promoting friendly relations" with Mexico, that it was "for private distribution," was "in no sense partisan," and that it was published "in ignorance of the fact that Blaine was to be a candidate for the Presidency." It is further asserted that "the pamphlet was designed for circulation in Mexico." Our reply to this is, that the pamphlet itself is the best evidence on all these points, and as it is peculiarly the duty of Mr. Morgan to produce it, he cannot object to secondary evidence of its contents until he furnishes the document itself. Our own impression is, that so far from being intended to promote friendly relations with Mexico, it was a bitter attack upon that country, her people, and her institutions. It may have been intended for "private circulation," but if it was, Mr. Morgan kept that fact to himself. It certainly would need to be circulated very privately indeed, in Mexico, if Mr. Morgan's account of the ordinary treatment of American citizens in that country is correct. If the pamphlet was not intended to be an argument in favor of Blaine's election, it affords a striking instance of "unconscious cerebration," for it was precisely the same argument which was used all through the campaign by the admirers of Mr. Blaine's "vigorous foreign policy." Our conclusion upon the whole matter is, that Mr. James M. Morgan is a soldier of fortune, of Democratic prepossessions, but without fixed principles; that he became convinced that Mr. Blaine would be elected, and hastened to put himself on that side of the fence; that after Mr. Cleveland's election was ascertained, he had recourse to a large family connection in the South, who were glad to coöperate in any plan for billeting him on the Government, and who naturally chose the uttermost parts of the earth for his official domicile.

Our esteemed contemporary, the *Sun*, has an article headed, "What Was He Thinking About?" making the following remarks on Mr. E. J. Phelps's recent speech at the dinner of the Reform Club in Boston:

> "What was Minister Phelps thinking about when he chose for the occasion of his last public appearance before sailing for Europe a dinner designed as an ovation to the Schurz of the Fraud of 1876?
>
> "What was Mr. Phelps thinking about when he told the Schurz of the Fraud of 1876 across the table that his faith in the perpetuity of American institutions rested chiefly on the interest which certain young gentlemen around that same table professed in a system of written examinations for department and Custom-house clerkships?
>
> "Bah! If the Minister to England thought about it at all, he ought to have gone back to his hotel from the Schurz dinner profoundly ashamed of himself."

What Mr. Phelps was thinking about, esteemed contemporary, nobody but him can tell. But what *you* were thinking about when you passed the summer recommending the young men of the country to vote for Ben Butler for the Presidency you can easily tell, and a great many people want to know. Why do you not do it? You had often described Butler as a cheat, liar, coward, and jobber. What were you thinking about when you produced him as a man fit for the Presidency of the United States? What were you thinking about, too, when you told your readers he would get 153,158 votes in this city? What do you call this whole transaction of yours? How does it differ from "the Fraud of 1876," except in having failed miserably? Bah, and faugh!

Poor Lord Tennyson is furnishing another sad example of that dreadful consequence of failing powers, inability to perceive that one's powers have failed. It is of very common occurrence among old men, but it is only among men of intellectual pursuits, properly so called, that it is conspicuous or painful. In the world of business, when a man's mind begins to decay, he has associates or a family who take prompt measures, if he does not see it himself, to secure his retirement from active work, and the rest of the world knows and cares nothing about the matter. Scholars and scientific men, too, generally become silent or restful as age creeps on. It is generally poets and orators who lag superfluous on the stage, and let the world into the solemn secret of their infirmity. There is no sadder spectacle, and the old man who has no trusted friend or relative to tell him that he has reached "the wayside inn," or who is too headstrong to mind what he says, is indeed unfortunate. There is truly nothing which a man who has ever been great, should watch against more carefully than letting people see him stripped of the powers which once delighted or fired them. It is undignified almost to the point of indecency. The verses on "The Fleet," from Lord Tennyson's pen, which were published on Thursday, are indeed sad reading, coming from the author of "The Charge of the Light Brigade" and the ode on the Duke of Wellington. It would almost seem as if somebody ought to be punished for letting them see the light.

The confusion into which the foreign complications are plunging the political casuists of the Liberal party in England, would be amusing if the crisis were less grave. First of all there is the question whether it was "right" to go to Egypt at all; then whether it was right to prevent Egypt from trying to conquer the Sudan; then whether it was right to let the garrisons perish; and if not, whether it was right to send Gordon to rescue them, and whether, when he could not rescue them, the moral law required *him* to be rescued against his will, or furnished with the means of smashing the Mahdi. After these—all knotty points—comes the question whether a man of peace, like Gladstone, can properly go to war with Russia; and then there is the interesting sub-inquiry, how a man of peace, like Gladstone, must feel with such a lot of miscellaneous wars on his hands. The case of the *Bosphore Égyptien*, too, is furnishing materials for a volume of casuistry. The *Bosphore* is a scurrilous French paper, published at Cairo, which makes a living by attacking the British and predicting their ruin. This excites, say the British, sedition among the natives. Whereupon, on the application of the British, the Egyptian Government, which has no force of its own, suppresses it. Then the French call the Egyptians to account, well knowing it is the British who are really to blame, and the Egyptians, well knowing the same thing, take time to consult the Porte, whose say in the matter is absolutely worthless, and the Porte says it is all right, whereupon the French say the Porte must mind its own business, and that the *Bosphore* must be righted. They are then furnished with "fifty precedents" for its suppression.

If war eventually breaks out on the Afghan frontier, it will be, more largely than wars usually are, an affair of money. The distance to be traversed by the contending armies and their supply trains will tax the financial resources of both countries to a degree wholly unknown in European conflicts, and here England will find her principal advantage. The measure of a nation's prowess in war is the amount of force which it can withdraw from the ordinary vocations of life and employ in the arts of destruction. One nation may have the advantage of another at the outset in better preparedness for war, more numerous and better trained armies and navies, better guns, better means of transportation, better positions, superior valor, superior generalship; but where these are equal, or nearly so, the measure of strength is staying power, and this is nothing else than producing power. How many able-bodied men can be spared from the tasks which procure the nation's subsistence, to be employed in fighting, in making arms, ammunition, and accoutrements, and transporting the same, and in caring for the sick and wounded, without impairing the national resources and lowering the standard of comfort to an unendurable degree? Whatever may be the convenience of Government loans in time of war, it is an economic axiom that a nation must earn the whole of the war expense during the war period, plus its own living. Government loans in time of war, or in anticipation of it, are rarely obtained from foreigners. They are procurable only from the subjects of the belligerent Power. The nation has a certain amount of circulating capital in money and goods which the Government can lay its hands on by loan, either voluntary or forced. It makes no difference, except on principles of justice, whether the loan be voluntary or forced. In either case the things borrowed or taken must be immediately reproduced by the national labor combined with its fixed capital. Otherwise, its means of subsistence are impaired, and may be impaired to the point of famine, as was the case in Germany in the Thirty Years' War. Earning power is therefore the test of a nation's strength in war; the conditions of valor, preparedness, and leadership being equal or nearly so.

If it be true, as is announced, and is likely, that General Graham's forces are to evacuate the Sudan and go to India, it will be a somewhat bitter lesson to the British Jingoes. It was they who forced the Government into going into the Sudan at all, and, in doing so, there is hardly a doubt that they brought on the complication in Central Asia. Russia, it is pretty plain, was only waiting to get England well involved in the absurd expedition to Khartum in order to kick over the Boundary Commission and get up a quarrel at the gates of Herat. What must add to the bitterness of Jingo reflections is the fact that although Graham's force may be withdrawn, there are from 7,000 to 8,000 fine troops shut up at Dongola, with nothing to do and sweltering in the sun, who cannot be extricated till the Nile rises in July, long before which time their presence might turn the tide of victory in an action on the Heri-Rud or the Murghab. They are really as useless for the moment as if the Mahdi held them as prisoners of war. What a light is thrown on the value of the popular notion about the way of getting or keeping "prestige," by the fact that the "gates of India" may be burst open at Herat for want of the men who are trying to capture a loathsome ruined town in Central Africa! In the Indian conflict every soldier from the British isles will count for twice his value in other warfare, because he has not only to stand his own ground, but give steadiness to the native troops. It has long been a saying in India that he is the steel point to the lance of which the sepoy is the shaft, and it is strictly true. In hard-fought fields in India, such as occurred in the Sikh campaigns in 1846-7, the presence of a considerable white force has always been necessary to raise the native morale, and make the Hindoos stand up under heavy pounding. For there soon comes, in all hard fights, the terrible "psychological moment" when the slightest mishap may send Asiatic troops flying in wild confusion, if they have not under their eye the spectacle of European *sang froid*, of the dauntless courage which crowned the heights at Albuera, and rooted Wellington's squares in the soil at Waterloo. Seven or eight thousand men might therefore give invaluable stubbornness, on some desperate day within the next two months, to twenty or thirty thousand Bombay or Madras infantry.

The question what constitutes an effective blockade is likely again to become important during the coming summer by the outbreak of hostilities between England and Russia, but not greatly important after all. Russia has very few ports, and these are all in narrow seas, and would be of little use to her after the outlets were in the enemy's hands. Sweden and Denmark will not be disposed to impede the entrance to the Baltic now any more than in 1854, nor is it likely that the British fleet, once inside, will do any more damage to Russia than it did in that year. It will find the approaches to St. Petersburg and Riga hermetically sealed with torpedoes and shore batteries, and these are all the ports of consequence there are in that quarter. Nor is it likely that the Sultan will make any attempt to close the Dardanelles, first because he probably could not do so if he wished, and secondly, because he probably will not be sorry to have the Russians stirred up in the Black Sea. Odessa will be tightly shut up, Sebastopol again shelled into ruins, and Batum will probably be more or less mauled. But there will be no questions of neutral rights raised by any operations in that quarter. There will be better employment for neutral ships than trying to run the blockade of Russian ports, as they will have a grand chance to compete with Great Britain for the carrying trade of neutral countries. It seems like the irony of fate that the outbreak of the war should catch us with a law on our statute book which will make it impossible for Americans to get any share of the carrying business which Great Britain will perforce have to lose.

The French have brought the Chinese war to a lamentable close as far as prestige is concerned. After all their fighting they keep Tonquin, which they had before, and get nothing. They give up all they asked for before beginning, including the huge indemnity and the island of Formosa. The only thing which helps in the least to save their pride is the fact that the offer to negotiate came from China; but the Chinese could well afford to make it after their victory of Langson. The French, however, have probably got much moral profit from the affair. It has doubtless greatly abated the colonial fever. When the Tonquin army gets home it will finish it.

A reform of some magnitude, though perhaps more striking than important, is being accomplished in the constitutional organism of Hungary. The Hungarian Upper House consists of a very large number of born legislators, and a much smaller number of members owing their legislative right to a position in the higher ranks of the Church or the civil administration. Every son of a magnate or lord—that is, of a nobleman of the rank of baron and upwards—becomes a magnate with full rights on attaining his majority. The present number embraces many hundreds. Habitually, however, the House of Magnates is frequented only by nobles whose wealth and standing allow them to appear with dignity. The poorer and less cultivated stay away, from the necessities of their various occupations or from a feeling of inferiority. The abler among these seek a field of political activity in the House of Representatives. The House of Magnates, in fact, but very seldom rises to the height of a coördinate branch of the National Legislature. The barrenness of its deliberations and the weakness of its opposition to the will of the popular branch, when clearly expressed by a large majority, have been specially remarkable since the restoration and reform of the Constitution in 1867. Its composition has long been considered an anomaly in theory, though one little felt in practice. Its reform, though generally desired, has been delayed, partly from apathy and partly from the apparent difficulty of achieving it against the majority of the magnates themselves.

Last year, however, when the more conservative and aristocratic portion of the magnates succeeded in defeating M. Tisza's, the Premier's, favorite bill, legalizing mixed marriages between Jews and Christians, with the aid of a large contingent of magnates who rarely appear in their places, the Government firmly resolved on carrying out a vital reform. A bill for the purpose was introduced in the House of Representatives, considerably modified in the House of Magnates, subjected to a compromise committee, and finally carried through in the latter house, and is now, as altered, to go back to the Representatives, where it is sure of a large majority. The main feature of the reform is the exclusion from the ranks of born legislators of all magnates paying less than 3,000 florins in yearly taxes. A number, however, will be elected members for life by their happier fellow-nobles, and a further number may get readmittance by Government appointment. That the bill triumphed is owing, in part, to the self-interest of the wealthier magnates and the skilful manœuvres of M. Tisza, but chiefly to the indifference of the majority, and the liberalism of many of the victims of the change. The renovated legislative branch is now expected to become, in the true sense of the word, a House of Lords, more conservative and independent, and conscious of its rights and standing.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 22, to TUESDAY, April 28, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has refused to interfere with the sentence of General Swaim, Judge-Advocate-General of the army.

The President on Saturday appointed James Q. Chenoweth, of Texas, to be First Auditor of the Treasury vice R. M. Reynolds, of Alabama, resigned by request. The new appointee has been a resident of Bonham, Texas, for many years. He was an officer in the Confederate army, and has served several terms in the State Legislature of Texas. He is a lawyer by profession and a stanch Democrat.

General Henry J. Hunt, retired, was on Saturday appointed Governor of the Soldiers' Home at Washington vice Colonel Samuel D. Sturgis, Seventh Cavalry; and Captain Robert Catlin, retired, was appointed Deputy-Governor, vice Captain W. Lyman, Fifth Infantry. The changes go into effect May 15, when the officers relieved will join their respective regiments. Army officers express themselves as pleased with the action of the President in placing retired officers in charge of the Home. General Hunt was graduated from West Point in 1839, and saw his first service during the Canada border disturbance in that year. He participated in some of the most important battles of the Mexican war, and won two promotions for his gallantry. In the War of the Rebellion he took an active part, and was made a Brevet Major-General of Volunteers in 1864 for gallantry at Gettysburg and services from Rapidan to Petersburg, and a Brevet Brigadier-General United States Army in 1865 for gallant services on the Peninsula.

The President has signed the commissions of all the Collectors of Internal Revenue appointed since the adjournment of the Senate, including that of Eben F. Pillsbury as Collector for the Third District of Massachusetts.

The appointments of Messrs. Pillsbury, Troup, and Chase have caused a great deal of dissatisfaction in New England. The men represent the spoils faction of their party.

The President has signified his intention to select a Minister to China from California. Both factions of the Democratic party in that State have approved Frank McCoppin, ex-State Senator and ex-Mayor of San Francisco, for the position. Mr. McCoppin has, it is said, steadily opposed the ultra views of the extremists in California on the Chinese question.

The President and the Postmaster-General have decided in the case of General William Ward, Postmaster at Newark, N. J., that there is not enough in the charges made against him of having used his office for political purposes to warrant his removal, and he will therefore be permitted to remain until his term expires.

A. U. Wyman, Treasurer of the United States, has tendered his resignation, to take effect May 1. Mr. Wyman tendered his resignation through the Secretary of the Treasury on the 3d of April, but announcement of the fact was withheld at the request of Secretary Manning, who accepted it the same day on behalf of the President. The Secretary expresses his confidence in Treasurer Wyman and regrets his retirement, which is entirely voluntary. Mr. Wyman was in March last elected Vice-President of the Omaha National Bank at Omaha, Nebraska, and also is to have charge of an important trust company recently established in that city. Mr. C. N. Jordan, formerly cashier of the Third National Bank, New York, and treasurer of the New York, Ontario and Western Railroad Company, was on Wednesday appointed Treasurer in the place of Mr. Wyman. Mr. Jordan has informed the chiefs of divisions that he will not remove any of them for political reasons.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has recommended to the Secretary that the divisions in his office be reduced from nine to five, and that the force be reduced correspondingly.

Secretary Whitney has written a letter to Commodore John H. Russell, Commandant of the Mare Island (Cal.) Navy-yard, relative to the coercion of the vote of that yard by the foremen at past elections, in which he says: "I find that the same foremen who conducted these proceedings are still in the yard at the various departments. Great complaint is made to me of similar proceedings in other years; but I have already read sufficient of this sworn testimony to satisfy me that the men who were engaged in that proceeding as foremen, directing and controlling it, should be cleared out of the yard in the interest of decent government; and if any similar proceeding, or anything like it, or any attempt to coerce the vote of the employees of the yard by foremen or superior officers should take place hereafter, whether in the interest of the dominant party or otherwise, I will apply a similar remedy. Appointments in place of the persons discharged will be made temporarily and upon trial until efficient men shall have been obtained."

Five hundred United States troops entered Panama on Friday, took charge of all American property, arrested Aizpuru, the rebel leader, and three of his staff, and cleared the Plaza with a Gatling gun. One rebel was killed and three wounded. This summary action was taken because 700 Colombian troops were on the way from Buenaventura to attack the rebels at Panama, and a conflict would probably have resulted in the burning of the place. Rebel barricades were already erected in the streets. The French Consul issued a violent protest against the action of the Americans. On Saturday night, under an agreement with Aizpuru and the French Consul, the United States troops withdrew from Panama to the railway station. Aizpuru has guaranteed to preserve order, but the insurgents immediately began the work of erecting barricades. On Sunday an extraordinary assembly met in Panama, and Aizpuru was confirmed in his position as President, which he will hold until the arrival of General Vila and the troops from Buenaventura, when a peace commission will be despatched on board the gunboat *Boyaca* for the purpose of negotiating for an amicable arrangement of the troubles. The withdrawal of the United States troops is severely criticised by the native population, who consider it an act of cowardice. Serious trouble is apprehended.

Secretary Whitney on Saturday sent a telegram to Admiral Jouett at Panama, saying: "While deprecating any unnecessary interference, you will exercise your best judgment from time to time after consultation with American consuls and others. The general scope of your duty has been heretofore sufficiently defined, and to what extent military interference is necessary from time to time to carry out former instructions you must necessarily be the judge, always keeping in mind that the necessity is regretted here."

The Colombian National troops arrived at Panama on Tuesday, and demanded that Aizpuru should evacuate the city within forty-eight hours. He expresses his intention of fighting. It is feared that the Colon disaster will be repeated if the two forces come in collision. Hopes are entertained that the United States troops may avert the disaster. The French Consul at Panama denies that he has protested to his home Government against the action of the United States forces at Panama.

A correspondence between Secretary Bayard and Señor Becerra, the Colombian Minister at Washington, with reference to a decree of the Colombian Government closing certain of its ports to foreign commerce, and virtually declaring the vessels of the insurgents now engaged in hostile operations against Cartagena to be beyond the pale of international law, is published. Secretary Bayard refuses to recognize a "paper blockade," and on the other point says: "The Government of the United States cannot regard as piratical vessels manned by parties in arms against the Government of the United States of Colombia, when such vessels are passing to and from ports held by such insurgents, or even when attacking ports in the possession of the national Government. In the late civil war the United States, at an early period of the struggle, surrendered their position that those manning the Confederate cruisers were pirates under international law. The United States of Colombia cannot, sooner or later, do otherwise than accept the same view."

Many prominent Democrats on Thursday evening attended the reception given by the Manhattan Club of this city in honor of those members of the organization who have been called to high places by President Cleveland. None of the Cabinet members were able to attend, but Ministers Phelps, Pendleton, and Cox were present.

The Massachusetts Reform Club tendered a complimentary dinner to Carl Schurz on Friday evening at the Parker House, Boston. John S. Farlow presided, and among the guests present were Minister Phelps, Leopold Morse, William G. Russell, the Rev. James Freeman Clarke, Charles Theodore Russell, Professor Charles E. Norton, and John M. Forbes.

Judge Charles Daniels has granted a mandamus against the Common Council of Buffalo to compel them to appropriate $1,250 for the city's Civil-Service Commission.

In the Assembly at Albany, on Wednesday, the bill to exempt soldiers and sailors from the provisions of the Civil-Service Law was ordered to a third reading by a vote of 82 to 16, the affirmative votes being equally divided between Republicans and Democrats. The Comptroller's bill legalizing the State's title to its forestry lands was also passed. The Senate passed a resolution for final adjournment on May 15. On Thursday evening it ordered the Field Civil Code to a third reading by a vote of 13 to 9.

The Assembly passed the Skating-Rink Bill on Monday, and the bill giving the District Attorney of this city a fifth assistant with a salary of $7,500. On Tuesday the Gas Bill was ordered to a third reading in the Assembly. The Palmer Prison-Labor Bill was defeated. The Theatrical License Bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday.

General Grant continues to improve. His sixty-third birthday anniversary was celebrated at many places on Monday.

Isaac W. England, publisher of the *Sun*, died on Saturday evening at his home in Ridgewood, N. J. Mr. England was born in Twerton, a suburb of Bath, England, on February 16, 1832. After working as a bookbinder's apprentice, he came to this country in his seventeenth year. Becoming a reporter for the *Tribune*, he was promoted to the city editorship. Then he became an associate editor of the Chicago *Republican*, and next the editor of the Jersey City *Times*. About seventeen years ago he joined with Charles A. Dana and others in the purchase of the *Sun*, with which he afterward remained connected. As receiver of the business of the late Frank Leslie, he managed an important trust with excellent results.

The Rev. Leonard Withington, D.D., the oldest Congregational minister in the United States, died on Wednesday, at his residence in Newbury, Mass., at the age of ninety-six years. He was graduated from Yale College in 1814.

FOREIGN.

The Russian reply to the communication sent to M. de Giers, after the receipt of Sir Peter Lumsden's supplementary report on the battle of March 30, was reported on Wednesday to have been received in London. M. de Giers replied curtly that Russia declined to enter upon any further discussion of the Panjdeh incident.

In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Gladstone, in replying to an inquiry made by Sir Stafford Northcote, said that there was no intention of laying further papers touching the Afghan situation upon the table before asking for a vote upon the war credits already submitted to the House. The Government, Mr. Gladstone continued, were engaged in a correspondence of extreme gravity with Russia. It was impossible to make now a complete statement of the nature of that correspondence, while no partial statement could be given without the greatest risk of creating misapprehension. The Government estimate requires that 35,000 men shall be added to the present force of the army. Mr. Gladstone on Friday afternoon refused to answer questions in regard to the Afghan affair, because every such answer would be an announcement to the Russian Government.

Notwithstanding the protest of Mr. Gladstone, the House of Commons on Friday night adopted by 72 to 56 an amendment to the bill for the registration of voters in Ireland, by which the charges for the registration are to be provided for by the General Government, and not by local rates. This will cost £130,000 yearly. It is believed that the Government will endeavor to reverse the vote in a fuller House.

It was reported in London on Monday that Russia had consented to the appointment of a special mixed commission to examine into the facts relating to the reports of General Komaroff and Sir Peter Lumsden, and to decide which is correct. If England refuses to accept these proposals, the Russian Ambassador will be withdrawn and negotiations will cease.

A sensation was caused in London political circles on Monday by the publication of a St. Petersburg despatch to Reuter's Telegram Company as follows: "War between Russia and England is now regarded as inevitable. The Czar leaves to-day for Moscow, and from that historic city he will issue his manifesto or declaration of war if such an extreme measure should become necessary." The report of the Czar's departure for Moscow has not been confirmed.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, read a telegram dated April 25, from Sir Peter Lumsden, stating that Mr. Stephen, a member of the Commission, had started for London, bearing with him maps of the disputed zone, also a detailed statement of all the circumstances leading up to and attending the Panjdeh affair. The telegram also stated that Sir Peter Lumsden would himself forward to Earl Granville, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, a statement showing the actual position of affairs as they now stand. The Government members in the House of Commons received this news of the departure of Mr. Stephen for London with evident satisfaction. Mr. Ritchie, Conservative, asked if the Government proposed to suspend the negotiations now in progress with Russia until after the arrival of Mr. Stephen. Mr. Gladstone answered with a firm and dignified "No."

In the House of Commons on Monday night Mr. Gladstone spoke for one hour on moving the vote of credit. He was listened to with deep attention, and his words created a profound sensation. The speech is acknowledged to be one of his greatest efforts, and it has created the general opinion that war is inevitable. So complete was the effect of Mr. Gladstone's words that the House voted the entire credit of $55,000,000 without a single reply by the Opposition. Among the significant points of his speech were the following: He urged that the House vote the Government the entire $55,000,000 *en bloc*. A time had come when it was necessary to have the resources of the empire well in hand. In regard to the Sudan, El Mahdi was only a shadow of his former self in power or influence, and operations in that region had lost much of their significance. England's possession of Khartum would not put a stop to the slave trade, and, therefore, it would be useless to shed blood and treasure in the Sudan. In regard to the Afghan dispute, he said the Government submitted its case upon facts with which the whole world is acquainted. There exists abundant cause for the war preparations which are being carried on. The starting point was the obligation to the Amir, which should be fulfilled in no stinted manner. The cause of the collision was perhaps doubtful, but it was certain that the Russians were the attacking party, and that the Afghans suffered in life, spirit, and repute. "Knowing that a blow has been struck at the credit and authority of our ally," he said, "we are unable to close the book and to say we will not look into it any more. We must do our best to have right done in the matter. Therefore there is a cause for war preparations."

From two trustworthy sources reports were received in London on Tuesday morning of another battle on the Afghan frontier between Afghans and Russians. One thousand seven hundred of the latter were engaged, and nearly all are reported to have been killed. Mr. Gladstone said in Parliament, on Tuesday afternoon, that no official confirmation of the rumor had been received. He was asked whether Russia had withdrawn from her agreement not to occupy Herat, and replied "No."

The London *Standard* received advices late on Tuesday, from its correspondent with Sir Peter Lumsden, that the Russians have occupied Merutchak, twenty miles south of Panjdeh, on the Murghab River. The Amir, while careless about Panjdeh, attached great importance to Merutchak.

It is understood that the immediate withdrawal of the British troops from Suakim has been decided upon.

British transports at Woolwich have been ordered to load in the future until otherwise instructed all their war stores for India instead of Suakim. The Government has ordered the immediate construction of forty gunboats. These new gunboats are to be, according to the Admiralty specifications, of a new type of naval architecture. They will carry light shell guns for the purpose of destroying torpedo boats, and will have a coal-storage capacity which will render them capable of steaming 1,000 miles without recoaling.

Great excitement was caused in the Admiralty Office, Whitehall, London, about 11 o'clock on Thursday morning, by an explosion in a room in the basement of the building. The firemen and police were summoned. A special guard was at once posted, and no person was allowed to enter or depart from the premises until a thorough examination could be made. It was at first supposed that the explosion was caused by the premature discharge of a projectile which had been sent to the Admiralty for examination, but investigation led to the belief that it was caused by an infernal machine. Mr. Edwin N. Swainson, assistant secretary and principal clerk, suffered a severe scalp wound and a slight concussion of the brain. The room and adjacent corridors were badly damaged. The face of a small American clock, blackened by the explosion, together with some pieces of clockwork attached, was found among the débris soon after the explosion. Two suspicious-looking men had been seen in the neighborhood. The later theory of the explosion is that it was the result of private malice against Mr. Swainson.

The French Cabinet at its session on Thursday took up the *Bosphore Égyptien* case, and after a full discussion adopted a line of action to be pursued. France considered Egypt's reply to the French demand for the rehabilitation of the *Bosphore Égyptien* evasive and unsatisfactory, and resolved to despatch another note to Egypt about the matter. The note threatened that unless Egypt gave satisfaction France would adopt active measures to secure it. Excitement was created in Egypt and France on Friday when it became known that M. Barrère, the Consul-General of France to Egypt, had been instructed by his Government to suspend all official relations with Egypt, and to make the declaration to the Egyptian Government that France declined to sanction the Egyptian financial convention, and reserved to herself complete liberty of action. He delayed his departure later in the day on offers of a compromise by Egypt. The news created a sensation in France. It was considered to be unmistakable evidence that there is an understanding between France and Russia.

Earl Granville on Friday telegraphed instructions to the British Minister to Egypt to support Nubar Pasha to the utmost extremity in his refusal to make reparation for the suppression of the *Bosphore Égyptien*.

In the House of Commons on Monday afternoon Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice, Under Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, said that he was happy to state that the Government was on the point of arriving at a satisfactory arrangement of the misunderstanding with France growing out of the suppression of the *Bosphore Égyptien*. This arrangement has since been confirmed.

It was reported in Alexandria on Friday that El Mahdi's men had attacked and defeated the Italian forces near Massowah. Later reports do not confirm this. It is asserted that El Mahdi's troops at Umderman are wavering in their loyalty to the prophet.

Cholera has reappeared at Cairo. Seven deaths have occurred.

The Prince and Princess of Wales were enthusiastically welcomed at Belfast on Thursday and Friday. They were received with equal enthusiasm at Omagh on Monday. It is said that the Government will buy a permanent residence in Ireland for Prince Victor, eldest son of the Prince of Wales.

The Prince and Princess of Wales arrived in London from Ireland on Tuesday.

François Joseph Régnier, the distinguished French actor, is dead at the age of seventy-eight. He was a member of the Comédie-Française company from 1831 to 1872, when he retired from the stage. In 1854 he was appointed Professor at the Conservatory, and some of the most noted French actors have been his pupils. He was equally celebrated in comedy and pathos.

The Lower House of the Prussian Landtag on Wednesday rejected, by a vote of 182 to 128, the proposal of Dr. Windthorst, the Ultramontane leader, to repeal the law stopping the temporalities of the Catholic clergy.

A terrible volcanic eruption has occurred in a province at the east end of the Island of Java. A number of plantations have been devastated, and it is feared that fully a hundred persons have been killed.

Five mounted policemen arrived at Battleford on Wednesday from Fort Pitt. They reported that in the attack by Indians one policeman was killed and one wounded. All the other occupants of the post took refuge in the camp of friendly Indians near the post. A slight skirmish occurred on Wednesday between General Middleton's scouts and a few half-breeds. Nobody was injured.

General Middleton's forces on Friday had an engagement with Riel's rebels fifteen miles south of Batoche. The insurgents had taken ground on the edge of a deep ravine, from which they poured a deadly fire into the advancing column. Three houses of the enemy were shelled and many rebels were driven from them to refuge in the ravine. The Indian allies of Riel fought vigorously. The whole number in the ravine was estimated at 300. General Middleton's hat was shot through, but he escaped uninjured

General Middleton's skirmish with the half-breeds on Friday near Batoche's Crossing turns out to be little less than a serious defeat for him. He lost nineteen killed and fifty wounded. He was reported on Tuesday to be pursuing the enemy with only 120 mounted men, leaving the rest of his force behind. It is feared he will meet the fate of Custer.

THE LAWYERS AND THE FIELD CODE.

WHATEVER be the fate of the attempt to force a civil code upon the people of this State, it has had at least one effect that is highly gratifying. It has disclosed among lawyers an amount of public spirit much greater than they have been generally supposed to possess; greater, perhaps, than they would have been disposed to credit to themselves. There is an analogy between the profession of the law and that of arms: both exist from the necessity of fighting, and yet their value is the highest when their existence averts fighting. As most soldiers look to war as the principal means of their advancement, so, it is thought, most lawyers view litigation with complacency; and whenever members of either profession have exerted themselves to lessen the occasions of controversy, their course has been recognized as patriotic and self-sacrificing. Since it is unquestionably the general opinion among lawyers that the adoption of the Field Code will, for a time at least, greatly increase litigation, the spirited resistance offered by the leaders of the profession to this measure cannot be explained by a reference to selfish motives.

There is, however, a further and very peculiar significance in this attitude of so large and influential a portion of the bar. A familiarity with that wonderful growth called the common law creates a certain unconscious tendency or habit of mind that has had much to do with the maintenance of our political institutions. No doubt many lawyers have a kind of legal conscience. To them an irregularity is a sin, and extensive innovations are sacrilegious. But beyond this blind conservatism there is a wholesome and, if we may so speak, a rational instinct — not improbably strengthened by heredity — the instinct for legal continuity. According to the common law there is nothing new under the sun, in the way of principles. It is of its very essence that every case as it arises shall be decided according to precedent. No matter how novel the circumstances, English courts will always discover a sufficient likeness to those of decided cases to enable them to apply established maxims. At first, when precedents were few and reports were not printed, decisions were necessarily somewhat arbitrary, and hence the common law is said to be judge-made law. But as reports have multiplied it has become quite rare for a case to arise (except under a statute) for which there is no parallel, and the office of a court is now to examine the cases brought to its attention by counsel, and to adopt in general the results of their researches. Hence in modern times our law has been made not by the judges alone, but by the bar. Nothing in our legal history is more significant than the sensitiveness of courts to the opinion of the profession. Hardly any court would venture to declare that to be law which the leaders of the bar held not to be law, and decisions are not unfrequently reconsidered when found to be generally unsatisfactory.

Although this might seem to support the theory of certain logicians, that all reasoning is from particulars to particulars, yet in process of time a very considerable body of general principles has been developed, and these principles are constantly applied to the settlement of cases. Here, then, say the believers in codification, is the field for reform. These scattered rules should be collected, classified, and clearly expressed, so that laymen as well as lawyers may be able to get at them easily. But, it is to be remembered, at present these rules are really condensed cases. Looked at independently of their origin, they seem absurd, unintelligible, and repulsive, but viewed historically they are on the whole necessary and consistent. It is the dread of interrupting this historical continuity that renders lawyers so conservative. They know now that a judge cannot knock them over with some sweeping general principle, because they are well acquainted with the qualifications, limitations, and exceptions attached by the common law to such principles. They are familiar, too, with the established meaning of a great many words and forms of words, and have learned to anticipate most of the ordinary contingencies in the affairs of men under the present system of rights; so that when a lawyer draws a legal instrument he feels that he has made himself intelligible to the profession, and that his work will be supported by those who may have occasion to examine it. He feels this because he knows that he has built upon the solid foundation of well-defined and careful usage; he has done nothing that has not been done and approved before.

Now, if the common law were codified with the understanding that the law was in no case changed but only stated, and that the code was to be interpreted by the common law, and if only established phraseology were used, the apprehensions of lawyers might be allayed. But as it is, they see clearly that a period of most trying uncertainty threatens them. Every lawyer hates a statute until it has been interpreted by the courts and thus made a part of the common law, and no part of the work of courts is more laborious or repulsive than that of determining the true intent of legislatures. There is no system or continuity about statutes. The decision of one court is a guide to the decision of other courts, but the act of one legislature may have no relation whatever to the acts of its predecessors or successors. Hence there results a mass of legislation that is inconsistent with itself and often irreconcilable with existing law, and lawyers have no means of settling their perplexities. It is an old saying that he must be a poor lawyer who cannot answer a question about the common law, or who will answer a question about statute law without going to his books. The reason is that the statute is not a development of the law derived from cases, not the result of induction, but the work of some few men, perhaps of a single man, and there is nothing but its own language to indicate its meaning.

It is obvious that the proposed code is obnoxious to these well-founded objections to the ordinary legislative method. It is really an addition of several thousand statutes to the law, and the criticism it has received from the profession shows clearly that the greater part of it will have to receive judicial interpretation. It is the product neither of the judges nor of the profession, and the profession will therefore refuse to take the responsibility of giving it a meaning until it has passed through the process of assimilation which they require. No code, we may safely predict, will be successfully applied unless it first secures the general approbation of the bar.

It does not seem possible to attain this result if the whole law is codified at once. The work should be done piecemeal, in order that each section may receive thorough examination. If this course is followed, much of the evil of uncertainty will be avoided, for difficulties of interpretation will be pointed out in advance and can be removed. Otherwise these difficulties will nullify all the expected advantages. As Chancellor Kent remarked: "The intelligence of the great body of the legislature, in any country, cannot well be brought to bear upon a dense mass of general propositions, in all their ties, relations, and dependencies, or be made to comprehend them; and the legislation by codes becomes essentially the legislation of a single individual."

It would undoubtedly be a matter of gratification to such a "single individual" to have his name go down to posterity as that of the framer of the laws of a great state, rather than to have it associated with a certain deplorable period of professional and judicial dishonor; but considerations of such a nature are hardly germane to the subject. It is of more importance to consider that no one but the author of the code now before the Legislature can know precisely the meaning that he attached to his propositions, and that our rules of interpretation do not allow him to be questioned. The inevitable result of the adoption of such a code would be that the courts must construe it by a comparison of all the preëxisting law. Instead of the desired certainty and simplicity, therefore, we may reasonably anticipate greater confusion and complexity than that under which we now labor. The people of this State, having had their legal house swept and garnished, will find that with new tenants their last state is worse than their first.

MAHONE'S WORK AS A REPUDIATOR.

IT is said by Mahone's friends in Virginia that the Supreme Court decision in favor of receiving bond coupons in payment of taxes undoes all his work, and puts the debt question back where it was when he took hold of it in 1873. This being so, a review of the successive steps by which Mahone demoralized public sentiment in Virginia, and finally made the State believe that it was neither dishonorable nor unwise to repudiate its obligations, becomes a matter of interest.

When Mahone appeared as a leader in 1873, there was no formidable repudiation sentiment in the State. A few people were in favor of getting rid of some of the burdens of taxation by the easy remedy of refusing to pay the State's debts, but the great majority of the voters were against such a course. The repudiation mania, which had made such havoc in many other Southern States, had not spread in Virginia. At that time the debt of the State, under the Funding Act of 1871, was in round numbers about $30,000,000. It is constantly asserted by Mahone's defenders that one-third of this amount belonged to West Virginia, but this is not true. The debt of the old State, as it existed at the time of the separation of West Virginia, was in round numbers $45,000,-

000, of which $5,000,000 was accrued and unpaid interest. In March, 1871, the Legislature of Virginia, after making several unsuccessful efforts to have West Virginia agree upon a division of the debt by arbitration, passed an act providing for the funding and payment of the debt by the surrender of the old bonds and the issue of new bonds of Virginia for two-thirds of the principal and interest, certificates being issued for the remaining one-third, reciting that the one-third would be paid whenever West Virginia provided for her share of the debt. It was about the payment or recognition of this refunded debt of $30,000,000 that Mahone began his agitation in 1873. He at once demanded a repudiation of $13,000,000 more, on the ground that the State was not able to bear the burden. The falsity of the claim is easily shown. Under the Federal census of 1870 the true value of the taxable property of Virginia is put down as $409,000,000, and the actual assessed valuation as $365,000,000. The annual interest on the debt as refunded was $1,800,000, or a tax of less than five mills on a dollar on the assessed valuation of the property of the State. The ordinary State expenses of Virginia have averaged about $700,000 for the past ten years. In order, therefore, to pay the interest on its debt and raise the money necessary for administering its government, Virginia property need be assessed only seven mills on the dollar of actually assessed valuation, or only six mills on the dollar of true valuation. It is absurd to say that the State was unable to pay this.

Mahone's first bill, repudiating outright $13,000,000 of the debt, was vetoed by Governor Holliday in 1880, but so thoroughly had Mahone aroused the cupidity of the people that the control of the State passed into the hands of his party, who called themselves "Readjusters" In 1879, the creditors, having become thoroughly alarmed, accepted what is known as the McCullough Act, by which the bonds of 1871 were surrendered and new ones accepted in their stead. The effect of this readjustment was really a repudiation of one-half the interest promised in 1871.

The success of this scheme had the natural effect of encouraging further measures of the same sort, and in February, 1882, what is known as the Riddleberger bill was passed, and is now the law of Virginia. This put aside all former settlements, repudiated the entire interest for nine years from 1861, and directed a new issue of bonds. What it really accomplished was a reduction in interest from 6 to 3 per cent., and a reduction of the debt at one stroke from $30,000,000 to $19,000,000. This act provided that coupons of the bonds issued under the act of 1871 should not be receivable for taxes, and the decision of the Supreme Court that they are so receivable reverses the whole of Mahone's work. Briefly summed up, his work was to take the State debt, after one-third of it had been assigned to West Virginia and never accepted by her, induce the people first to repudiate one half the interest on the remaining two-thirds, and then repudiate one-third of this remaining two-thirds, and half the interest on it.

It should not be forgotten that in this infamous work Mahone had the sympathy and support of a Republican national Administration without which it is fairly doubtful if he could have succeeded. That his success has greatly weakened the sense of public honor in Virginia there is no doubt. All parties there are in favor of repudiation now, because no party can take the opposite course and stand a ghost of a chance of success. There is no State in the South which presents a more pitiable spectacle. and none in which the future of politics is more dark. Whether Mahone runs for Governor this year, or some one of the men who have been his disciples, will make little difference. His "principles" are sure to triumph at the polls, no matter which party wins. A large part of the burden for this disgrace lies at the door of Republican leaders like Mr. Blaine, who made an elaborate defence of Mahone in his remarkable 'History,' and like Mr. William Walter Phelps, who introduced Mahone at the first Blaine ratification meeting in Washington, in July last, as the "Little Napoleon of Readjustment." With the exception of the dubbing of Ferdinand Ward as the "Napoleon of Finance," there has not been in recent times a tribute of admiration so astounding as that.

THE GREAT RUSSIAN BANK SWINDLE.

It is a rather curious coincidence that at about the same time that the swindling operations of President Fish, of the Marine National Bank of this city, in connection with his fellow-conspirator Ward, were exposed in this country, even more extraordinary frauds by the manager of a bank were disclosed in Russia, and the trials of the two defaulting officials occurred within a few weeks of each other in Moscow and in New York. The developments in the Russian case were so startling, both in themselves and as throwing light upon the condition of things in that country, that they challenge world-wide attention.

The Bank of Skopin was established in the town of that name, in the Government of Riazan, in the year 1863, at a time when there was considerable industrial activity and a prospect of success for a well-managed enterprise of that sort. It was a communal, and not a strictly Government, institution, but still was under the control of the Ministries of the Interior and Finance, to the latter of which it was required by law to render periodical reports in detail of its operations and condition. The managership of the bank was given to one Rykov, despite the fact that he had notoriously been guilty, while previously holding a position of trust, of gross corruption, the few protests of the Skopin people being overruled by the authorities. There is every reason to believe that for a while Rykov administered his place honestly, but as early as 1868, it was ultimately discovered, he had entered upon the remarkable career of fraud which has made him unique even among Russian swindlers.

In that year there was a deficit of 54,000 rubles (about $42,000) in the bank's funds, and when the periodical report to the Minister of Finance had to be made, Rykov simply drew up a false balance sheet, which not only concealed the deficiency, but represented the condition of the bank as so exceptionally satisfactory that it immediately began to draw deposits from all parts of the country. From this time on, Rykov's methods were an ingenious combination of the sharpest tricks played by James D. Fish, Ferdinand Ward, and Mrs. Howe, of the Woman's Bank in Boston, which made such a sensation when it went to pieces a few years ago. Although he was really doing no legitimate business whatever, he began to offer 7½ per cent. interest on deposits at a time when the best institutions in Russia were paying only 5 per cent., and he was straightway overwhelmed with the money of a host of dupes. To make a pretence of showing how his exceptional profits were earned, he regularly made entries in the bank's books of mythical financial operations, and any curious inquirer might see the record of discounts, loans, purchases, and sales, which were all of the most gratifying nature, but were also all of them purely fictitious. An illustration of Rykov's ways is the fact that every December an old man in the pay of the bank, who was so illiterate that he could hardly write his own name, used to sign a contract for the purchase of several millions' worth of imaginary securities, and this transaction, with the imaginary profit upon it, always appeared on the bogus balance-sheet sent to the authorities and published in the official journal. Paper was made on an extensive scale, and with little attempt at disguise. One man of straw would draw on another man of straw for fifty or a hundred thousand rubles, discount the bill and get the money, and then the operation would be reversed. Porters and messengers of the bank figured in the books as debtors for tens of thousands of rubles taken by their masters.

For fifteen long years, incredible as it may seem, this gigantic swindle went on unchecked, Rykov meanwhile living on a lavish scale, winning the favor of the clergy by subsidizing churches, and acquiring the reputation of a philanthropist by his large gifts to charitable and educational institutions. All these benefactions were stolen from the bank, and were entered on the books as payments to dummy customers. Skopin is a small provincial town where everybody knows about everybody else's affairs, and of course such wholesale and open frauds could not go on year after year without people finding them out. The local public did know the state of affairs—knew it so well that, when the crash finally came, there was not one customer of the bank in Skopin, and only nineteen of the six thousand victims were found in the entire Government of Riazan. With the corruption so notorious that everybody in the region knew the bank to be a fraud, how was it possible for the swindle to go on year after year without attracting the attention of the authorities?

The answer to this question throws a flood of light upon the state of Russian society and the character of the government. Rykov escaped so long simply because he had made himself an autocrat, and had corrupted everybody through whom his misdeeds might be exposed. The mayor, the town clerk, the chief of police, in short, every local officer, was constantly in his pay. The monthly audit required by law from officers of the municipality was a farce; the books were never looked at, the cash was never counted, and the balance-sheet was signed without being examined. A veritable reign of terror prevailed. So absolute was Rykov's power

that he did not hesitate, through the complaisant police, to exile people who chanced to offend him, on no better pretext than that they were "evil-intentioned" men, and even in one case because the objectionable young man had whistled while passing the manager in the public garden! So all-pervading was his power that honest citizens were absolutely cut off for a long while from communication with the outside world, when at last, in despair of securing redress from the authorities, they sought to reach the press. The Postmaster received a monthly allowance from Rykov, in consideration of which he intercepted and handed to his employer every letter addressed to a newspaper or to any other objectionable quarter, while the telegraph operator rendered similar service whenever recourse was had to the wires. In this way Rykov thwarted the efforts of a few public-spirited citizens to expose his misdeeds for the space of two years. It was at last only through the enterprise and courage of one of the very few liberal journals which still survive that the facts were brought out, the official press refusing to publish anything about the matter.

When the crash came, it was complete and terrible. The balance-sheet showed twelve million rubles on hand, but the strong-room was empty and the bill-cases were filled with bogus paper. Rykov earnestly protested on his trial against being called "a monster," and pronounced the charge that he had stolen millions "a gross calumny," protesting, with an indignant gesture, that "I stole but one million—one million only." It appears to be true that he did take only one million for his own personal use, but this was simply because he had to spend the other millions as hush money. There was no limit to the scope of his operations in this direction. All the facts were not brought out on the trial, but enough was shown to indicate plainly that the highest officials of the empire must long have been privy to the fraud. It was proved that the Governor, the Vice-Governor, and all the members of the Provincial Government were bribed to silence; and the utter indifference of the Ministers of State who were appealed to at various times, is, doubtless, attributable to the same potent motive. Indeed, the whole episode is but an epitome of the Russian Government.

A UNIVERSAL DAY.

THE International Meridian Conference of last summer was called for two purposes. The first was to settle on some first meridian from which terrestrial longitudes should be counted; the second to adopt or to recommend for adoption a Universal Day. There was no important opposition to the adoption of the meridian of Greenwich as the prime meridian from which longitudes are in future to be counted, to the east, 180°, and to the west, 180°. The final vote on this proposition was 22 in the affirmative, 1 (San Domingo) in the negative, 2 (Brazil, France) not voting. The resolution in regard to the Universal Day provided that such day should be the *civil* day of Greenwich. This was adopted by the following vote: ayes 15; nays 2; not voting, 7.

The Conference was merely a consultative body, and no real effect could be given to its recommendations until the scientific men of each country had practically accepted its conclusions, and until the proper authority within each state had at least legalized the new prime meridian and the Universal Day. It was tolerably obvious from the first that France was not likely to fall in with the new arrangement. The friends of this said, however, that no country could afford to remain outside of a truly international agreement, and expected that in a little time the whole world would be reaping the advantages of their action, and that even the small amount of confusion now existing on account of differences of local time would soon disappear.

It is interesting to trace what the real effect of the Conference has been, and to compare it with these hopes. With regard to the adoption of Greenwich as the prime meridian for longitudes, the effect of the Conference has been to give some impetus to a movement which was already strong. A vast majority of the nautical charts in use by the ships of all nations are made by the British Admiralty; and the charts of several other nations have the Greenwich longitudes given, as well as the longitudes from the national meridian. The oceans may already be said to be divided by Greenwich meridians. Very many of the standard maps already have Greenwich longitudes given in at least one margin. The effect of the Conference will doubtless be to increase the number of maps with a double enumeration.

It is with regard to the Universal Day that the Conference has undoubtedly done far more harm than good; and it is worth while to sketch briefly the action of each country. It must be remembered that no official or international action has yet been taken by *any* country. We have only the declarations of recognized scientific authorities by which to judge. England was the first to move. The Astronomer Royal (Mr. Christie) announced that he intended to use the universal time in the *internal* affairs of the Greenwich Observatory from January 1, 1885. Under ordinary circumstances, January 1 (astronomical date) would have commenced with the transit of the sun over the Greenwich meridian. January 1 (civil date, which is the universal date) commenced at the preceding midnight. The clocks were then twelve hours too slow. This change was made not only in the observatory clocks, but in the public clock in Greenwich Park. *Nature* publishes weekly an almanac in the new time; the *Nautical Almanac* is already printed in the old reckoning up to 1887, and the director (Doctor Hind) has made no statement of his intentions.

The official action of the United States is recited in Executive Document No. 78 of the last Congress. On December 4, 1884, the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory (Admiral Franklin) issued an order prescribing the use of the Universal Day in the Observatory, and he officially informed the superintendent of the *American Ephemeris* (Professor Newcomb) of the fact. Professor Newcomb replied in a letter (December 6), giving his reasons why the Universal Day should *not* be adopted. Admiral Franklin then addressed a circular to American astronomers, asking for their opinions on the question of whether the new time should be introduced at all, and, if introduced, as to what date would be the most suitable. Replies were received from eleven astronomers, only two of whom decidedly opposed the change. They both set 1890 as the earliest date for the introduction of the new time. The order prescribing the use of the universal time in the Naval Observatory was thereupon rescinded by the superintendent, who had apparently been convinced that he was making a mistake. It is more than probable that several of the replies favorable to the change were written hastily, under the impression that it was a foregone conclusion; and that the mature conviction of the writers is at present opposed to any change. The reckoning of time will not be changed in our *Ephemeris*, and it is safe to say that the United States will not adopt the Universal Day in any form at present.

Germany was the next to speak. Professor Foerster, the Director of the Berlin Observatory, Professor Auwers, the President of the German Astronomical Society (which prints the *Astronomische Nachrichten*), and Professor Tietjen, the Director of the *Berliner Jahrbuch*, have officially declared that they will have nothing to do with the new day, in any form.

Affairs were now sufficiently confused, but if they had stopped here all would have been well. The Astronomer Royal would have retreated from his position, and the example of England, France, Germany, and the United States would have been followed by all the other nations. The Universal Day would have died a natural death, and the net result of the Conference would have been the authoritative endorsement of Greenwich as a first meridian for longitude. But the confusion which was to have been obviated now begins. Professor Oppolzer, of Vienna, who is the first astronomer of Austria and the Director of its Geodetic Survey, announces his adherence to the new day, and its adoption in a very important publication of his own, a list of all the solar and lunar eclipses between 1200 B. C. and 2100 A. D. His example will undoubtedly carry many South German astronomers with him. Furthermore, the news comes from Russia that Director von Struve, of the Pulkowa Observatory, intends also to adopt the new day in the internal affairs of his observatory. If this is done, it is more than probable that all other Russian observatories will follow. It should be plainly said that the confusion is now a matter for the astronomers alone. The Universal Day had no chance of introduction into the world's business affairs from the moment when two or three of the leading nations pronounced against it. Our Australian telegrams, as heretofore, will be dated in Melbourne time, and we shall apply the difference of longitude as always. The astronomers—to whom it makes the least possible difference what kind of time is used, provided only that they know exactly what it is—have so far done their very best to make this vital point doubtful to their successors. If the plain man in A. D. 2100 finds Professor Oppolzer's predicted eclipse to be exactly right, as he will when the proper allowances have been made, he may say that the second proposal of the Washington Conference has not done so much harm after all. Meanwhile, the earth will rotate on its axis, and local times will vary in the future as they have in the past.

THE RUSSIAN MENACE AND THE DEFENCE OF INDIA.

LONDON, April 14.

THE battle on the Murghab between the Russians and the Afghans has diminished almost to nothing the hope of preserving peace between Great Britain and Russia. The war, if war there be, will in one respect be a most singular one, for we shall be fighting against Russia for the possession of a city—Herat—distant 900 miles from the Indus, the natural frontier of India, but which, nevertheless, we have chosen to regard as "the key of India." There are, it seems to me, two questions suggested by this fact which must greatly perplex a distant spectator. The first is, how an empire such as British India should need to be defended at such a vast distance from its proper boundary. The second, why, if Herat was a position of such unapproachable importance, it was not long ago occupied by a British force, and its connection with India thoroughly secured and protected. To indicate the answer to these questions is the object of the present letter.

"The Russian menace" is a danger which has occupied the minds of Indian administrators for more than half a century—from a time, that is, anterior to the Russians' earliest and disastrous attempt to penetrate to Khiva. It was seen by them that, sooner or later, Russian power must extend over Central Asia until it reached the confines of Afghanistan, just as English power had extended over India until it reached the barriers of the Himalaya. And of necessity this anticipation led on to the question of how we were to meet an invasion of India, supposing that the Russians in Central Asia should attempt it. Upon this question officials in India have been sharply divided into two parties—those who would await a Russian attack upon the Indus, the natural frontier of Hindustan, and those who were of opinion that Russia must be met and defeated at Herat if we wished to hold India in peace and security. The best-known upholders of the former view were, among civilians, Lord Dalhousie and Sir John Lawrence; and among military men, Sir Charles Napier and Sir James Outram.

Their reasoning, briefly stated, was as follows: For an invasion of British India from Central Asia, there is only one practicable line of attack. This line, starting from Herat as its base, passes through Kandahar, Quetta, the Bolan Pass, and the Sinde Desert, until it strikes the Indus at Sukkur. India has other gates, it is true, but this one represents the line of least resistance, and would therefore be the one chosen by an invading army. It is about nine hundred miles in length, across a country most scantily supplied with water, and producing food altogether insufficient to supply the wants of an army strong enough to attempt the invasion of India. Such an army would be obliged to make its long and laborious march encumbered by an immense baggage train, and, upon arriving at the Indus, would be obliged to fight, with the waterless Sinde Desert at its back, an English army in a carefully selected and entrenched position. Success under such circumstances would be impossible, while defeat would mean annihilation. This, however, does not exhaust the difficulties of the attempt. During the long march from Herat to Quetta, the flank of the invading army would be exposed to the attacks of the Afghans, insomuch that if these mountaineers could be induced to act vigorously upon its communications, an advance would become impossible. Now the surest, indeed the only, way to preserve the confidence of the Afghans and secure their coöperation when the need for it arose, was studiously to abstain from even seeming to menace the savage independence which they prized above all things. From all these facts, the "masterly inactivity" school (as it was nicknamed) argued that the soundest and most economical policy was not to anticipate a Russian invasion by an advance across Afghanistan, but to await its advent within our proper frontier.

Looking back at the incidents of the past fifty years in India, no one can deny that it would have been far better for England had this policy been steadily adhered to. We should have been spared the infamy of two unprovoked and unsuccessful invasions of Afghanistan. The sixty or seventy millions of money that were flung away in these abortive enterprises might have been applied to the reduction of taxation in India, or to the completion of our railway lines of communication. And if Russia had at last threatened the independence of Afghanistan, the Afghans would have accepted our assistance, and hailed the entry of our troops among their hills as that of friends whose kindly feelings toward them had been tried and tested during half a century. Unhappily the constitution of the British Government in India is such that a steady adherence to a quiet and unambitious policy is practically impossible. The military element in it is too conspicuous and powerful a factor to admit of such a thing. A soldier like Sir Charles Napier, who has won his spurs elsewhere, can weigh such a question as the defence of India in the scales of unbiassed reason, but not so younger men, who have gone into long exile in India for the sake of the chances of adventure and distinction which an Indian career has to offer. It is mainly of such men that the "forward" school—in opposition to the "masterly inactivity" men—has been composed. This party urged that Herat was "the key of India" because it was as a "gate" which gave an invader a passage through the mountain barrier of the Hindu Kush, and that therefore it was imperative to meet and beat back an invader at that point.

It was plain, however, that Herat could not be safely held by a British garrison unless the intervening country between that city and the Indus was also in our hands, and this was impossible until Afghanistan had been subjugated and pacified. The "forward" school, to do them justice, would not have shrunk from such an enterprise if the financial difficulty had not stood in their way. Where was the money to come from? It was impossible to get it from the Indian taxpayer, and it was quite certain that John Bull would utterly refuse to advance it from his pocket. A middle course had, therefore, to be adopted—that, namely, of contracting alliances with the Amirs of Kabul—a policy against which Lord Lawrence never ceased to protest and warn the nation, and to which this war with Russia, if war there should be, is directly due. The policy has, in point of fact, always endeavored to work out an impossibilty. Its object was to establish at Kabul an Amir that should combine the contradictory attributes of being a puppet in the hands of the English rulers of India, and of being strong in the support and confidence of his own subjects. For unless he was the first he would not admit British garrisons into Herat and Kandahar, and unless he possessed the second, English soldiers would not be able to enter his country without causing a general insurrection against him and us.

In 1838 Lord Auckland was the Governor-General of India, and the official clique which surrounded him was composed exclusively of men of the "forward" school. At this time Dost Mohammed Khan was the Amir of Kabul. He was a man of great capacity, feared and respected by the Afghans, and sincerely desirous to be upon terms of friendship with the English in India. But clearly he was no puppet of our creating. He had won the position he occupied by dint of his own talents, and, therefore, Lord Auckland and his advisers rejected his proposals and actually invaded his country in order to set up a creature of their own. The result of this wise and honorable attempt is well known. Our puppet was murdered by his own (so-called) subjects; British troops and camp followers, to the number of 12,000, were cut to pieces in the Khoord Kabul Pass by the infuriated Afghans; and in the end we restored Dost Mohammed to the position of Amir, and abandoned the country. This was the first attempt of the "forward" school to translate their theories into practice, and it led to their effacement in Indian politics for the space of forty years. But during that period the men who had passed through the experience of the first war in Afghanistan—the Lawrence brothers, Sir James Outram, and others—were either dead or had long left India; and when Lord Lytton arrived in India to give effect to Lord Beaconsfield's "spirited foreign policy," he had no difficulty in surrounding himself with just such a clique as that which led Lord Auckland to his fate—young, enterprising, and ambitious military men, eager for distinction and the honors and more material rewards which accompany it.

Afghanistan had greatly profited by the long repose from British intervention which had resulted from the last disastrous war. Shir Ali, the son of Dost Mohammed Khan, had exhibited a capacity for government not inferior to that of his father; and Afghanistan was precisely as, in our official language, we always professed that we wished to see it—it was "strong, friendly, and independent." But, like his father Dost Mohammed, it could not be said of Shir Ali that he was a puppet of English manufacture; and by Lord Lytton and the officials who surrounded him, the strength and independence of Shir Ali were considered as valid reasons for his overthrow. What if he should use his strength and independence to ally himself with the Russians and against us? Accordingly, Afghanistan was a second time invaded. The civilizing labors of forty years were destroyed in as many days. The hatred kindled by the first invasion of Afghanistan was revived among its people in increased intensity by this second attack upon their lives, their homes, and their independence. But, as in 1838, we found in 1878 that though we could ravage and lay waste the country, we could neither subdue nor hold it except at a cost in men and money that was utterly ruinous. We finally withdrew, leaving behind us, as a memorial of our presence, an Amir of the puppet description. That Abd-al-Rahman Khan is a man of some strength of character, cannot be denied; and had he won his present position in any fair and honorable way, he might have done well enough. As it is, he has succeeded in getting along thus far by means of an English subsidy, and a series of atrocious murders, the victims of which have been the chief ministers of Shir Ali and the men who organized the persistent resistance to the last English invasion. In this way he has incurred the bitter hatred of the great body of his subjects; and while he is not in a position to resist a demand for the entrance of British troops to Herat, Kandahar, or anywhere else, it is all but certain that his authority would not survive their admission. And thus an English army confronting a Russian advance at Herat would have its communications menaced by an insurgent Afghanistan populace behind it.

This is not all. An alliance with the Amir of Kabul would have been of no service to us, unless the Amir had also been the ruler of Herat. In order to effect this, English politicians of the "forward" school have been obliged to give an arbitrary extension to the (so-called) kingdom of Afghanistan, so as to include within it the valley of the Heri-Rud, in which Herat stands, and all the country known as Balkh and Badakshan, which lies between the Oxus and the Hindu Kush. Now, no Afghans live in this tract of country. The Herat valley is peopled by Persians, and the remaining parts by Turcomans and Usbeks. All alike hate the Afghan domination, as rapacious and oppressive; and the population of the Herat valley, being in the main Sheeyas, are divided from their rulers in religion as well as race and language. The consequence is that all along the frontier at present in dispute the advance of the Russians is awaited by the population with eagerness, as insuring their emancipation from a tyranny which they detest. So much is admitted by even such partial witnesses as the newspaper correspondents with Sir Peter Lumsden's mission; and the probability is that if a Russian army appeared at the gates of Herat before our troops could arrive, the population would rise in their favor, and the Afghan garrison be obliged to fly or to surrender.

Thus it will be seen that the policy of the

"forward" school has failed at every point. It has availed nothing toward arresting the progress of Russia in Central Asia. It has kindled in the minds of the Afghans a bitter, just, and enduring hatred of ourselves. And, instead of an alliance with the people, it has substituted an alliance with a puppet Amir whom we have forced at the sword's point upon them. The officials in India and the newspapers in London who are responsible for these suicidal performances are also the great generators of those irrational paroxysms of Russophobia which periodically assail the people of these islands. The terror is quite genuine, and springs from a true though unavowed conviction that we have been playing into the hands of Russia by the treacherous and violent policy that we have been carrying out in Afghanistan. With the acts of Russia in Central Asia we had no more right to interfere than had the Russians with our acts in India. But so keenly sensitive have we been to the dangers of the situation that we had created for ourselves in Afghanistan, that it was impossible for the Russian Government to do anything in Central Asia without being assailed by our Foreign Office with a volley of impertinent queries, remonstrances, and demands for explanation. All such inquiries on the part of the Foreign Office were accompanied by a vociferous chorus from the London press, consisting of nothing but denunciations of Russian greed, perfidy, and aggressiveness. And thus an enduring sense of exasperation has been established between two great nations. It was not to be expected that Russians, when thus perpetually assailed, should not look about for an opportunity of retaliation. The shrieks of the Jingo press and the copious writings of Indian Russophobists showed them the weak point in our harness. Had we been content to await an invasion upon the banks of the Indus, our success would have been indubitable, if Russia had been insane enough to make the attempt. But at Herat we are weak and Russia is (comparatively speaking) strong.

War is, at present, not declared, but he must be a more sanguine man than the present writer who thinks that a declaration can be long postponed. But though peace is to be earnestly desired, it would be no more than a temporary postponement of the war. It has now been finally decided that India is to be defended, not on the Indus, but upon the further frontier of Afghanistan. There is no retreat from that decision, and it entails the holding of this new frontier with British troops. This cannot be done without the reduction of Afghanistan to a British province, and this will not be effected without a bloody and costly war, in which, if Russia does not formally engage as an ally of the Afghans, Russian officers will fight in the ranks of the enemy.

R. D. Osborn, Lieut.-Colonel.

ENGLISH SENTIMENT IN THE RUSSO-AFGHAN CRISIS.

London, April 18, 1885.

Nearly thirty years have elapsed since England has been at war with a great European Power; and on no occasion since then has she come so near war as during the last few weeks. In the spring and early summer of 1878 there were for some time apprehensions of a breach with Russia, but the most skilful observers were then of opinion that the English Ministry did not really expect or intend to fight, but were holding high language only to alarm their adversaries. Now, however, there can be no doubt that the present Cabinet have repeatedly been, and are perhaps still at this moment (although the horizon looks somewhat brighter during the last two or three days), seriously anxious. The preparations they have made and are making, especially the purchase of so many swift passenger steamers for the purpose of turning them into war cruisers, sufficiently prove the reality of the danger; and the fluctuations of our stock markets have had a suddenness and violence which testifies to the gravity of the position. As events may have taken a decisive turn before this letter reaches you, there is no use in filling it with speculations as to the issue. It is more profitable to endeavor to describe the state of the public mind as we have latterly seen it, and to inquire what are the causes which have made it on the one hand so composed, and on the other hand so much less apparently pacific than might have been predicted.

Composed it has certainly been. Despite the extreme sensitiveness not only of the stock market, but of all those markets which a war could in any way affect, the attitude and temper of the people generally has been quiet and dignified. Considering how hot the newspapers usually become at a crisis, the newspapers have been cool—decidedly cooler than in 1878. Yet their temperature stands some degrees higher than that of the mass of private persons, even in the middle and upper classes. There is, of course, great curiosity to get the latest news, and constant discussion of the ever-changing aspects of the question. But when one remembers the enormous magnitude of the issues involved, and the way in which they touch every class in the community, the amount of passion and vehemence which one observes in the minds of individual men is less than might have been looked for—less (I think) than was shown in 1878, or during the French and German war of 1870-71, when we were mere spectators.

To what is this phenomenon to be ascribed? Partly to the distance of the scene of action and the darkness which surrounds it. Very few people had any notion, till two months ago, of where Herat, much less Panjdeh and Zulfikar, lay. Even now men's ideas about them are, of course, extremely vague. Communication is slow and difficult. It is extremely hard to get at the real facts, and to know which of the facts are material. Not only, therefore, is the imagination less excited, but the consciousness of ignorance keeps more sober minds in a state of suspended judgment, and disposes them rather to rely on the Executive than to pronounce for themselves upon the significance of events or the course to be adopted. Ignorance, no doubt, exposes men to be misled, but what I remark in the present case is the consciousness of ignorance, which our people have fortunately the good sense to feel; and although some vague declamation against Russia is indulged in, although there is doubtless a measure of prejudice against her, this sentiment has by no means overpowered the disposition to seek for more light.

Much must also be ascribed to the general unity and homogeneity of opinion which prevails. In 1870 the partisans of France and Germany respectively formed strong and bitterly hostile sections, as they did also during your war from 1861 to 1865. All Tories were arrayed on the one side, and most Liberals on the other, so that the ordinary bitterness of domestic parties increased the bitterness with which the questions were debated. At present there is no party division regarding the issues between ourselves and Russia. The Tory party, or rather the aristocratic and military party, is more pronouncedly anti-Russian than the Liberals are, because it holds by the traditions of Lord Beaconsfield's days. But the Liberals generally are scarcely less suspicious of the recent behavior of Russia, and no less willing to draw the sword, should the Government propose to do so. The obvious reason is, that a Liberal Government is in power, whose drafts on the loyalty of its followers will be met in this instance, as they have been in so many others heretofore. However, there is more than mere party loyalty in this disposition to trust the Executive. The present Government is not only credited with strongly pacific tendencies, but has until now been supposed to be specially well affected to Russia. From 1876 till 1880, Mr. Gladstone was constantly attacked for his supposed subserviency to Russia, and one person prominent in the social if not in the political world, the Duke of Sutherland (although professedly a Whig), went so far as to call him "a Russian agent," at a public meeting held in London at that time. Hence the belief that if this Cabinet declares war it will do so because it cannot help it, because nothing less than the strongest and clearest case exists, because Russia has forced it on us either by palpable bad faith or by a resolution to persist in aggressive measures. I do not say that such conclusions are necessarily right, for it is possible that the Ministry may be mistaken; that they may have misunderstood the facts or misinterpreted the facts, and may be unintentionally doing Russia injustice. Still, it is to the popular mind a most material fact that the Prime Minister is not only conspicuously pacific, conspicuously zealous for economy and a reduction of the public burdens, but has also been hitherto conspicuously free from such anti-Russian prejudices as were charged against the Cabinet of Lord Beaconsfield in 1878.

The same reasons serve to explain that other phenomenon to which I have referred, the absence of popular demonstrations in favor of peace. Strong as the fighting instinct in Englishmen is, the masses of our people are as a whole markedly pacific because they are an industrial and religious people. The working classes have long had a notion that wars are sought by the aristocratic class for its own purposes. They have a strong sense of what the French call the "solidarity of the industrial classes" in all countries, and hate the idea of being taxed to give the rich and the officers the amusement of war. The Nonconformists, who exercise much influence over the middle and a section of the humbler class, are averse to war on religious grounds, and were stimulated in their hostility to it by the struggle against Lord Beaconsfield's aggressive policy. If a Tory Ministry were now in power, we should probably see strong demonstrations against any war they might make, because the working classes, the Nonconformists, and the leaders of the Liberal local organizations over the country would believe (rightly or wrongly) that a war would be due to the generally bellicose tendencies of the Tories. Now that a Liberal Ministry is in power, their mouths are closed. They feel bound to believe that it is as anxious to keep the peace as they are themselves, and throw all the blame on the ambition or perfidy of the hostile Power. Hence we have had practically no agitation against the movements made toward war—none from the Tories, because they have always declared that the advance of Russia must be resisted by arms; none from the Liberals, because they rely on the good intentions of their leaders. Two or three small efforts have been made to obtain expressions of opinion in favor of referring the dispute to arbitration; but these have been faintly supported, not so much from any want of faith in that excellent principle as from a fear of embarrassing the Government, and from the notion that they might be misconstrued by Russia as indicating some want of resolution or union on the part of England.

No such want exists. Whatever strength a people can draw for the prosecution of war from the harmony of its citizens, England would apparently draw in this case. Radical members of Parliament who have been addressing mass meet-

ings of their constituents during the Easter recess, express themselves as somewhat surprised by the heartiness with which declarations of an energetic nature were received. It is plain that the sentiment of national greatness and the sensitiveness to national honor are, even in the working class, not less strong than the attachment to peace, and are fully prepared to support the Ministry should they be driven into war. There might be some revulsion if it should turn out, when all the documents are laid before Parliament, that the causes for war were, after all, not quite adequate; but, on the other hand, the sense of being committed to a fight, and the sort of thrill which effort gives, would be strong enough to counterbalance such a revulsion and to enlist the general and hearty sympathies of the people.

Should peace, on the other hand, be preserved (which many of our shrewdest heads have all along predicted), the judgment on the conduct of the Government will depend on the extent to which they can be shown to have given way to Russia. After this prolonged tension, there will be some sensitiveness on that point. If they have yielded any really substantial advantage to her—anything which can be said to endanger Herat, and with it the western frontier of India—they will incur serious censure and suffer at the general election. If they have merely receded from some claims which they had better have never put forward, having demanded for the Afghans territory which was not really Afghan, the reputation of their diplomacy, already discredited by their dealings with Bismarck, will be further tarnished, but the country, which has begun to think that diplomacy is not the forte of England, will before long forgive them. But while the scales of peace and war still oscillate, it is needless to pursue these ulterior questions. Y.

Correspondence.

BIENNIAL SESSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your remarks on biennial legislative sessions, apropos of Mr. Roosevelt's article, suggest a few words about the results of the system here. Although I am still inclined, on the whole, to favor the plan, I am convinced that it is not an unmixed good.

The conditions of the problem in California are very simple. Given, first, enormous interests controlled by men whose ideas of public policy are indicated in the Huntington letters; second, a Legislature of which, not Mr. Roosevelt's one-third, but probably a clear majority, are open to corrupt influences; and, third, a session of sixty days once in two years, and what will be the result?

The result, as might easily have been predicted, is that the Legislature has just enough time comfortably to pass all the corrupt and mischievous bills that are brought before it, and no time at all for those measures of merely public utility which Mr. Roosevelt's Irishman aptly termed "local bills." With the appropriations and other routine work of two years on hand, there are only a few days of each session available for general legislation. A few well-paid obstructionists can easily stave off any matter on which public and private interests are opposed, while a bill to pay unconstitutional claims or to relieve railroads from taxation slides easily through under suspension of the rules. For the last four years some legislation on the subject of irrigation has been absolutely essential to the peace of the State, but a few individuals, interested in maintaining the present condition of anarchy, have succeeded in preventing any action. The bills would be allowed to pass the Assembly about the middle of the session; then they would be elaborately discussed in the Senate until the last day, when there would be just time to vote extra compensation to the clerks and pages, present "testimonials" to the presiding officer, appoint a few junketing committees, and go home with the troublesome question laid for two years. No vote need be taken, no individual responsibility assumed, and by the next election the short popular memory would be occupied with something else. It is a beautiful plan for statesmen who desire to avoid "making a record."

To sum up, the California Legislature is in as complete a state of paralysis, so far as useful measures are concerned, as the British Parliament. And while it is the fashion to cry against over-legislation, and to say that it would be good policy to pay law-makers to stay at home, our experience is that a growing community needs new laws, and sometimes needs them very badly.

S. E. Moffett.

Kingsburg, Fresno Co., Cal., April 14, 1885.

STATUES AND MEDALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to present to you a few remarks in relation to the criticisms on Perrot's 'History of Art' and Lenormant's 'Monnaies et Médailles' that appeared in the *Nation* of April 23, 1885.

You are practically correct when you say, in the review of Perrot's book, that it is not possible for the stone steps with sculptured bas-reliefs to have been found inside the temple of Golgoi, as they are said by Cesnola to have been found ('Cyprus,' p. 159). But you are inaccurate in saying that they were found *prior* to the discovery of the temple. In comparing the two versions published by Mr. Di Cesnola about these sculptured objects you will find that, according to 'Cyprus,' p. 159, they were found in 1870 at a specially-indicated spot within the enclosure of the so-called temple, and are called then "footstools of stone"; while Mr. Di Cesnola's report, published in the journal of the Turin Academy (Atti, etc., vol. xi, pp. 493 et seq., Pl. iv.) positively says that these same objects were found *after* 1873 and *outside* the temple of Golgoi, in the necropolis, and this report calls them "funerary bas-reliefs."

In the same review you omitted to mention the important point that when Ceccaldi saw the statue of the "Priest holding a dove" in May, 1870, he found it "*intacte*," while when Doell, a real archæologist, admires it *three months later*, he finds it, as you say, without feet, base, and bird, and with the head and forearms separated from the statue; thus showing that Ceccaldi's eye had been deceived as to the real state of the statue.

As to the various measurements published by the Museum at different dates, relating to the height of this same statue, the public ought to be made aware that the climatic influences peculiar to the spot of mother earth where the Museum is built, may have great bearing on the accuracy of the rule used for measurement at the Museum. We know officially that the disintegration of the calcareous stone goes on more rapidly there than in other parts of the city or even of the world. Also, the geological formation on which the Museum is built is subject to great transformations. For instance, I read in the *Evening Post* of June 1, 1882, Di Cesnola's declaration (which I should not dare to question) that the foundations of the Museum are built "upon loose soil"; while in the *Evening Post* of the day after I read a letter of Mr. Cesnola's, written in December, 1872, in which he declares that the Museum is built on rock. Therefore one ought to be lenient in judging of the accuracy of measurements.

The review is inaccurate in speaking of No. 107 as "a terracotta statuette, which is represented as a bearded Venus, and accepted by him (Perrot) as such . . ." The truth is, that the godfather of the little monster is Di Cesnola himself, for Perrot, like yourself, denies its bisexual pretensions.

I must respectfully enter a protest against the conclusions contained in the review of Lenormant's book, when you say, "There is no reason to believe that coins (antique coins) were struck hot." I believe that an examination of antique gold and silver coins of perfect preservation, and which still bear on their surface what is called "radiation," would prove conclusively that these coins were struck while they were very hot, and that the surfaces of the metal touched by the dies suddenly became colder by this contact than the inside of the ingot. I believe, also, that what you say of the "incused denarii," in support of this theory of yours, tends to prove the reverse of what you ingeniously propose, and that the impression produced on the second *flan* shows that it must have been of softer material (probably hot metal), while the *flan* just struck before had already had time to harden (probably by cooling).—Respectfully yours,

Gaston L. Feuardent.

New York, April 25, 1885.

A YOUTHFUL JUDGE OF THE SUPREME COURT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article in No. 1034 on "The President and the Judiciary," mentioning the young men who have occasionally been elevated to the Supreme Bench, you have omitted one who, we believe, was the youngest ever appointed—Judge William Johnson, of South Carolina. Judge Johnson was Speaker of our House of Representatives before he was twenty-seven, and a judge on the State Bench at twenty-eight, and was appointed by Mr. Jefferson to the United States Supreme Court on the 6th of March, 1804, when only *thirty-two* years of age. Judge Johnson sat in the court for thirty years, dying August 16, 1834. Charleston.

April 25, 1885.

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his communication in the *Nation* on the "Study of English at the South," Prof. H. E. Shepherd says: "In the College of Charleston there is a specific chair of English, and the instruction is continuous during the four years of the collegiate course. This is a marked exception to the prevailing rule in Carolina colleges."

Lest the expression "marked exception" should give the impression that the course of English instruction in the Charleston College is so exceptional as to find no parallel in this State, I wish to say that at Wofford College, Spartanburg, S. C., there is also "a specific chair of English, and the instruction is continuous during the four years of the collegiate course."

F. C. Woodward.

Wofford College, April 24, 1885.

RAILROAD PASSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of April 16 you mention the fact that the legislator of Connecticut finds in small pay ($300) and in insufficient mileage a reason for accepting railroad passes. The legislator of Wisconsin, with $500 pay and a large

mileage, still finds reason to accept railroad passes for himself and all his friends. The way in which passes are here used by officers of the State and distinguished citizens falls very little short of wholesale corruption. J.

WISCONSIN, April 24, 1885.

TO MAGAZINE EDITORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I beg leave to offer a suggestion on the printing of reviews and magazines, that, if carried out, would be of a very great service to their readers. The speedy accumulation of the current numbers soon forces one either to have them bound, thrown away, or sold. Many adopt the expedient of cutting out such articles as have interested them, binding these, and throwing the remainder away. It is for this constantly increasing class that I offer this suggestion to the publishers: Let us always have an important article commenced on the top of the right-hand page, and nowhere else. If an interval of empty space should thus be made necessary, let it be so; or devote such to poems or short notices. By having all the significant articles so arranged, it would be possible to cut them out to the prejudice of no other significant article, which is seldom the case at present, and at the same time to avoid introducing them by truncated and acephalous morsels put in that bad eminence solely by the pressure of necessity. The reader and subscriber has rights that even publishers are bound to respect.

Yours sincerely,

JOHN TUNIS.

QUINCY, ILL.

["But who shall decide what are the 'significant articles'?" the editor will probably ask. And if invidious distinctions are to be thus made by him, will it not speedily be asserted that authors' feelings have as much right to be considered as the scrap-book convenience of readers and subscribers?—ED. NATION.]

TEWRDANNCKH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your Notes of April 23, concerning the Holbein Society's reproduction of the old German poem 'Tewrdannckh,' I read the following:

"The wood-engravings illustrating the work were probably by Albert Dürer and his scholars, but only Hans Schaufelin can be fixed upon with certainty as one of the engravers."

I hardly understand what can be meant by "Dürer and his scholars"; but there is no doubt of the 'Tewrdannckh' designs being the work of Schaufelin, who certainly was not an engraver. The engravings are by Jost de Negher.

W. J. LINTON.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., April 27.

Notes.

CASSELL & Co. publish early next month the 'Life and Reminiscences of Gustave Doré,' compiled by Blanche Roosevelt.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately a new volume by the Rev. R. Heber Newton, entitled 'Philistinism,' plain words concerning certain forms of unbelief, in twelve discourses.

Under the title of 'England and Russia in Asia' (Osgood) Mr. George M. Towle has compiled the initial volume of a vest-pocket series on "Timely Topics." He appears to have drawn his information from the nearest encyclopædias, and not always with care, as any of them would have saved him from the ridiculous blunder of constantly speaking of Timour Tamerlane. It will also confuse the geographical student to be told that Askabad is situated on the Caspian, when all the maps show it to be at least 250 miles in a direct line from the nearest point of that sea. Again, we are told that Merv was taken by the Russians passing from Turkestan to the left bank of the Oxus, whereas, in fact, it was captured by an expedition from the side of Askabad, and was the last step of the trans-Caspian movement on the part of the Russians. Of this movement Mr. Towle makes no mention, although it has occupied six years, has included three important campaigns, and has brought about the present difficulty, to enlighten the public about which is the avowed object of the book. These are not all the errors in it, but they are enough to admonish publishers to secure timely writers as well as timely topics.

Harper & Bros. have added Charles Marvin's 'Russians at the Gates of Herat' to their Franklin Square Library.

The painful circumstances of the past few weeks have directed public attention anew to the career of General Grant. The publishers (D. Appleton & Co.) of General Badeau's 'Military History of Ulysses S. Grant' have accordingly brought out a new edition of that eminently readable and authoritative work in three volumes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have published the opening lecture of the year delivered before the Union Theological Seminary by Prof. Francis Brown. The subject, "Assyriology, its use and abuse in Old Testament study," is opportune, and has drawn from Professor Brown some interesting illustrations of his thesis. His warnings are directed principally to the students of the Old Testament who are not familiar with Assyrian. He cautions them against its use in apologetics, and admonishes them to distrust popular and cursory statements of surprising discoveries—a warning by no means unnecessary, since in this, as in many other departments of learning, the writer who is able to catch the public ear is not, as a rule, of the best informed or most accurate class. Of the use of Assyriology in filling out the background and giving the details of some of the meagre historical accounts in the Bible, Professor Brown furnishes Cyrus, and Ahab, and Benhadad as instances. A good bibliography accompanies the book.

For summer reading, Roberts Bros. have put into attractive paper covers some old favorites—E. E. Hale's 'Man without a Country,' Silvio Pellico's 'My Prisons,' Mistral's 'Mirèio,' Molloy's 'Our Autumn Holiday on French Rivers,' and Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Treasure Island.'

A pleasing portrait of Miss Murfree ("Charles Egbert Craddock") is given in Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s *Literary Bulletin* for May.

In the heat of the late Presidential canvass the citizens of Buffalo paused to take part in one of the most curious sentimental actions of the present age. The bones of Red Jacket and of eight other chiefs of the Six Nations were reinterred with ceremony in the Forest Lawn Cemetery, and a monument is to be erected above their graves. A granddaughter of Brant, chief of the Mohawks, was one of the many persons of mixed blood who attended the exercises. Less than twenty full-blood Senecas are thought to be now living. The Buffalo Historical Society has published a pamphlet account of the obsequies of October 9, 1884. It contains numerous illustrations.

The series of papers on the "Battles and Leaders of the Civil War" will probably always be regarded as the greatest distinction of vol. vii of the *Century*, now lying bound before us. Mr. Cable's "Freedman's Case in Equity," however, has, above any other single article, caused the loudest echo and stimulated the most salutary reflection. Mr. Edward Eggleston's agreeable and valuable series on colonial life and manners furnishes another chapter to this volume. Professor Langley's papers on "The New Astronomy" also deserve to be signalized. Among the portraits, those of Doctor Holmes and of Webster occupy the first place in our regard. Mr. Vedder's Omar Khayyám illustrations mark the pictorial event of our American year.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for 1884 possesses several features of general, not to say popular, interest. Professor Cook states that another year is likely to see completed the necessary geodetic points for the basis of the entire State map now in progress. The topographical survey has less than two-fifths of the State's area to finish, and that the most level and easy of accomplishment. A buried forest, sunk since the advent of white settlers—say within 280 years—and lately discovered in the clay-pits near South Amboy, is made the subject of discussion and illustration, as is also the fine columnar trap quarry on Orange Mountain, which has been likened to the Giant's Causeway. The Green-Pond Mountain rocks are discussed anew, and assigned to a higher horizon than hitherto. The multiplication of artesian wells along the south coast has developed a certain and abundant supply of pure water, and thrown fresh light on the tertiary and cretaceous formations in their relation to the ocean bottom. The iron and zinc-mining industries receive their usual attention.

Mr. Rider's bright and independent *Book Notes* begins a third volume with the issue of April 25. He has been criticised for his effective comments on the tariff, and replies that "there is not to-day, nor has there been in half a century, a public print in Providence in which a word could be inserted in criticism of the policy of protection." This period coincides with the political and journalistic predominance of the late Senator Anthony.

Messrs. Appleton Morgan, R. S. Guernsey, Albert E. Frey, Brander Matthews, A. Chalmers Hinton, and James E. Reynolds have been incorporated "The Shakespeare Society of New York."

France owes to the memory of Cobden the popularization of his biography, and Mr. John Morley's Life has furnished the opportunity. Guillaumin et Cie., Paris, send us a translation executed by Sophie Raffalovich, which in the main follows the abridged popular edition of Mr. Morley's work published by the Cobden Club in 1882. Passages, however, of special interest to the French public have been restored by the translator, and others too exclusively English suppressed, so that this volume has an individuality of its own, apart from the language in which it is written. The translator has furthermore prefixed a eulogistic sketch of Mr. Morley's literary career and political doctrine, using (as others have done before her) this author's estimate of other people, particularly of J. S. Mill, to illustrate his own temper and genius. Her fitness for her larger task is superficially shown by the absolute accuracy in the printing of English proper names, so far as we have been able to observe.

Here we may fitly mention a German tribute to Cobden and to Germany's need of his doctrines—'Richard Cobden's volkswirthschaftliche und politische Ansichten, auf Grund älterer und neuerer Quellen systematisch dargestellt von Dr. Karl Walcker' (Hamburg: F. H. Nestler & Melle). It is a small pamphlet of ninety-one pages octavo, containing in its appendix a useful bibliography. The mention, in its place, of Morley's 'Life' points out certain defects as they appear to Dr. Walcker. One is the use of expressions unfavorable to Prussia's wars of 1866 and 1870-'71.

Mr. Christern sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Paris International Black-and-White Exhibition. Some of the reproductions manifest the steady improvement in these useful memoranda, which may one day become so cheap that a complete record of each exhibition can be afforded. The text is disgustingly fulsome. "On doit saluer M. E. Beaumetz comme un jeune maître" (p. 63). "Maîtres merveilleux de la Renaissance italienne, . . . dites-moi si vous n'avez pas un admirable successeur dans M. Boulanger" (p. 64). "Monsieur Hennequin, votre délicieux fusain me laisse une impression charmante, et je vous remercie du plaisir qu'il m'a procuré."

In the April number of *Le Moliériste*, the first of the sixth year of that admirable monthly, the editor, M. Georges Monval, publishes documents, recently discovered in the archives of the Comédie-Française, which show the chain of circumstances by which the precious Register of Lagrange, the most valuable of all the documents concerning Molière, came into the possession of the Comédie-Française.

The French critic, M. Gustave Masson, in an appreciative notice of Mr. Parkman's 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' in the April number of the *Revue des Questions Historiques*, takes his countrymen to task for neglecting the works of a writer with whom few "contemporary English historians can be compared for learning, perseverance, and literary ability." He even goes so far as to say, overlooking certain traitorous translations, that "the literature of the United States is so little known among us, that probably nobody in France has ever heard of Mr. Parkman." Though many French writers, he continues, have told the story of the strife of England and France for the posssession of Canada, none have done it so fully or with such perfect knowledge of the facts as the American historian.

This year being the 200th anniversary of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, interest has naturally been awakened in this remarkable episode in French history. In France itself the interest has been shown by the recent appearance of several works treating of different phases of the subject, as 'Les Huguenots dans le Béarn et la Navarre,' M. de la Garde's 'Le Duc de Rohan et les protestants sous Louis XIII.,' and M. Bourchenin's 'Étude sur les académies protestantes.' In England it is proposed to form a Huguenot society whose object shall be, "to form a bond of fellowship among those who inherit or admire the characteristic Huguenot virtues—namely, the holding of a pure faith with true courage, and the habitual aim at a high standard in every work undertaken." A more practical aim will be the collection and publication of historical and genealogical material relating to the Huguenots who settled in Great Britain. We already have a *pur sang* New York Huguenot Society.

A new feature of *La Nouvelle Revue*, beginning with the number for April 15, will be a series of articles on contemporaneous literature by the well-known dramatic critic, M. Francisque Sarcey.

French antiquaries are protesting against the destruction of inscriptions and monuments in the African colonies. The ruins of Seriana, about eight miles from Constantine, have been used as a quarry, and many inscriptions not yet copied have disappeared. North African history and ethnology are yet so extremely incomplete that this is very regrettable. Let the inscriptions once be authentically in print, and historical science might give up the stones for building purposes, though she would do it grudgingly.

When Dumas borrowed from biological science his famous comparison of the vibrio, all Paris was in a tremor. Sig. Papa has found an even more disagreeable comparison, which he has used in a sort of triangular duel that came about in this wise. Sig. Bartoli is writing a many-volumed history of Italian literature. In the fifth volume, which treats of Dante, he forgot to mention Sig. Imbriani as a distinguished Dante scholar. Imbriani's disciple, Sig. Amalfi, attacked Bartoli fiercely, and Papa in turn attacks Amalfi, calls him a literary Rabagas, and declares that "Amalfi would afford Dr. Koch a fine case of infection by the comma bacillus." It is a pity that the revival of learning in Italy has led, exactly as it did in the sixteenth century in Germany and Holland, to these literary ferocities, that give the lie to Colonel Newcome's favorite quotation from Horace.

More detailed accounts of Mr. Im Thurn's ascent of Mt. Roraima describe the summit as a plateau covered with piles of rocks of most extraordinary shapes, between which "were a few stretches of low vegetation entirely filled with plants of a character distinct from those seen elsewhere in Guiana." Many, indeed, "are of species hitherto unknown." "The only animal life on the top was a few small butterflies of a common type." It should be remembered, however, that Mr. Im Thurn remained but a few hours on the summit, making no extended exploration.

—In a recent issue of the Boston *Watchman*, it was asked who wrote certain lines beginning "With noiseless tread Death comes on man." The Rev. Dr. S. F. Smith volunteered the answer that the author was Charles Follen, of Harvard University, who perished at the burning of the steamer *Lexington*, in 1840. Follen, indeed, quoted the lines in a New York lecture, on the last day of his life, but he took them from Schiller. As the chant of the Brothers of Mercy, in "William Tell" (Act iv, scene 3), they are familiar to every tyro in German. They are usually quoted as translated by Carlyle in his 'Life of Schiller,' in 1825. As if to raise his blunder to a second or still higher power, Doctor Smith adds that "the words are a translation from an Ode of Horace." The truth is, that both the words and sentiment are as far removed from everything Horatian as was the hymnology of the mediæval Catholic Church.

—The similarity of the French character to the American in certain points has been often spoken of; a leading trait of likeness is the frequent practice of making liberal bequests and gifts for objects of public instruction. The numerous prizes dispensed by the French Institute, which are all the product of private bequests, the numerous *fonds*, both of books and of engravings, which have come into the Bibliothèque Nationale in the same way, as have also many paintings to the Louvre—are indications of a generous public spirit of which examples are not wanting, indeed, in England, but are, we think, less frequent, especially of late. Mr. Jones, to be sure, gave his £300,000 worth of pictures and furniture to South Kensington, and there have been other gifts of note, such as Lady Schreiber's china; but, on the other hand, the Duke of Marlborough's "Raphael," bought, one might almost say, with public funds, is sold to the nation for £70,000, and his library is dispersed to the ends of the earth. Part of the Earl of Ashburnham's MSS. cost the British Museum dear; the rest went to countries which have more liberal treasuries. It is the people who have their reputations to make who give; those whose names are already illustrious sell. There are some reasons in the condition of France for greater generosity toward public institutions of art and literature. The French law divides inheritance equally among the heirs. Collections are sure to be sent to auction on the death of the man who has spent his life in getting them together; even if they are divided among the heirs they have no longer size or unity, and generally the heirs prefer bank bills to canvases, books, and bibelots. The Rothschild library is one illustrious exception. Now no biblio- or pinako- or curio-maniac likes to think of the dispersion of the treasures that have cost him so much time, pains, and money to assemble; and if he is not obliged to provide sustenance for his children by selling them, he is tempted to seek glory for himself by giving them away. There is a fleeting fame, it may be, in a great sale, but in France there is glory with a promise of immortality in presenting one's art treasures to the Louvre and having them accepted. The body of *conservateurs* of that Museum are of universally recognized competency, and they do not accord a place on their walls or in their cabinets to the first comer. To have one's collections exhibited at the Louvre is like receiving the cross of the Legion of Honor; in some cases it is as good as being elected to the Academy. No wonder that every year there is a long list of donations, some of them, like the His de la Salle or the Coutan collection, of considerable extent and value.

—M. de Liesville, who died last February, is the latest example of a patriotic collector. He was less than fifty years old, but he had got together a most remarkable museum of arms, furniture, utensils, books, and engravings illustrating the Revolutionary period, which it is said it would be impossible to duplicate at any price. Inheriting an easy fortune, he came to Paris immediately after his graduation at the College of Pont-Levoy, and at once began the hunting of curios, which he kept up for more than twenty years in Paris and throughout the provinces. When he was satisfied that his collection was reasonably complete, he offered it to the state as a gift; but, after some negotiations, it was decided that the city of Paris should become its possessor and provide quarters for it in the Hôtel Carnavalet, where he became officially its *conservateur* and actually its augmenter. He was a very large man, of very mild manners, and his friends called him "the Gentle Giant." His writings, which were chiefly pamphlets, treated not only of art and archæology, but of agriculture and natural history. They are not what will keep his name alive, as he doubtless knew.

—A new rival of the *Rundschau* has made its appearance in Germany in the shape of a monthly review called *Berliner Monatshefte für Litteratur, Kritik und Theater*, which is, however, published at Minden, Westphalia (New York: Westermann). The editor is Heinrich Hart, who, with reference to Hieronymus Lorm's statement that "Germany has no literary public," expresses his determination to create such a public. The place of honor in the first number is, of course, assigned to the obbligato novelette, as usual in German magazines. No fewer than twelve pages are devoted to verse, including a Heinesque poem, "Die Begegnung," by Hamerling, characterized by an almost pictorial vividness of suggestion. The editor announces in the prospectus that much attention is to be given to the theatre, and there are accordingly special dramatic reports from the leading German cities, besides an article by the former intendant of the Stuttgart Royal Theatre, deploring the great deference still paid in Germany to Parisian plays when the country has an abundance of modern dramatists of her own, including Paul Heyse, Bauernfeld, Wilbrandt, Lindner, Paul Lindau, Wichert, Moser, Schönthan, L'Arronge, Anzengruber, Wildenbruch, etc. Eduard von Hartmann contributes an article on the attempts to equalize the sexes, with which he does not sympathize, as he considers the realization of such aims both undesirable and impossible. On account of the great influence which women exert over men by their

natural charms and passive coyness, he thinks it is absolutely necessary that men should enjoy certain prerogatives over women; otherwise a period of pure feminine rule would be inaugurated such as not history but only legend has heretofore known: "Instead of one vote, every woman would have two, unless the husband were willing to sacrifice domestic peace to his political convictions." "In all Catholic countries the victory of the clerical party would be assured permanently, ending in the gradual triumph of Jesuitic Popery over the whole globe." Hartmann even seems to doubt the advisability of employing women as teachers, owing to their lack of physical endurance, the lower wages paid them being neutralized by the necessity of pensioning them sooner. In this, even if his facts are correct, he leaves out of account the influence which habit, aided by hereditary transmission, may accomplish in strengthening the feminine nerves and brain. In an anonymous article Bismarck is soundly berated for his want of interest in German literature. The writer thinks this indifference is neatly illustrated in a letter Bismarck once wrote to his wife, bidding her send him a novel to read, without specifying the author or even the kind of novel. The humorous department seems to appeal most to his sympathies, and even here, we are told, Bismarck's taste does not rise above the *Kladderadatsch Kalender* and the *Fliegende Blätter*. The writer indignantly asks why it is that the Government spends 200,000 marks on an alleged Rubens, one and a-half millions on some old miniatures and drawings, several millions on excavations at Olympia and Tiryns, but not a mark on contemporary literature. The author should have waited another month before writing his article, for an item is at present going the rounds of the press which shows to what atrocious extremes this Governmental indifference to contemporary genius goes. A poet sent a long poem to a newspaper, but owing to some mishap the package was lost. The poet demanded indemnity at the rate per column he would have been paid by the newspaper he wrote for; but the Post-office Department insisted on paying for the lost manuscript by the kilogramme!

—For the fifth time M. Jules Claretie has gathered into an annual volume the chief of his weekly *chroniques* in the *Temps*, 'La Vie à Paris—1884' (Paris: Victor-Havard; New York: F. W. Christern). It is not inferior to its predecessors. It abounds in amusing anecdotes, like the saying of the young music-maniac who regretted that he had never heard Alboni: "But fortunately Rossini has just died, and she has promised to sing at his funeral" (p. 457). Those who remember the absurd offer of the *World* Employment Bureau to provide amusing guests for dull entertainments, and who recall the clever story suggested by it, "Passages from the Diary of a Social Wreck," contributed to *Harper's Magazine* and reprinted in Scribner's 'Stories by American Authors,' will be pleased to see that the same scheme has been suggested in Paris, and that M. Claretie foresees the same social complications which the author of the story set before us most humorously. He also solves an enigma which has puzzled many readers on this side of the Atlantic, by declaring authoritatively that the proper pronunciation of his name is Clarety and not Clarsy. To still another American idea we owe some further personal revelations by M. Claretie in the March number of *Le Livre*. He takes as his pretext for describing his library and his books ("Confidences à propos de ma bibliothèque") the circular addressed to him by an American physician, asking how long he worked daily, whether early or late, whether smoking or not, and using stimulants or not, etc. If our memory serves, a book was the result of these inquiries. So M. Claretie tells us how his copy for the *Temps* is written on green paper, of letter-sheet size, whereas his tales and dramas demand quarto sheets—green for the former, white for the latter. He has three *cabinets de travail* for his different kinds of literary composition. He generally works three hours a day, seldom four, and on rising in the morning—never at night. This takes no account of reading. M. Claretie's amiable if not very forcible countenance is among the illustrations which accompany this article.

—In the same number of *Le Livre* we find some interesting details, borrowed from the *Journal de Genève* of February 13, concerning Rousseau's sojourn in Venice (1743-44). He was then secretary of the French ambassador, M. de Montaigu, to whom he supplied literary style if not ideas. The Swiss Consul at Venice has lately had the curiosity to trace this connection from the archives, and has discovered the palace where Rousseau lodged, now occupied as a storehouse by Messrs. Juliani, master builders in wood. The young secretary reached Venice at the end of August, 1743, and left the city on August 22, 1744. A single autograph signature remains, attached to a passport for provisions intended for the Ambassador's household; but, among a crowd of documents written in his own hand, the whole of the memorandum to the Senate concerning a sailors' riot ("affaire Olivet"), as reported in the 'Confessions,' remains to justify Rousseau's truthfulness in this particular. In other respects the part he played in the embassy is thought to have been magnified, and the story of Véronèse and his two daughters the *danseuses* is pronounced apocryphal so far as Rousseau is concerned in it. Curiously enough, however, a parallel case with other names is found in the records. This seems to the investigator proof of falsification, but we are all familiar with freaks of memory that lead us to identify ourselves with past occurrences with which we were familiar if only by hearsay.

—That what is now the ambitious dream of Russian commanders—a descent upon India, in order to break the main prop, as they deem, of perfidious Albion's power—was also a scheme of Bonaparte's in the prime of his military career, is well known. It is, however, surprising to find how long he cherished the idea of rivalling the greatest adventure of Alexander the Great. A recently published letter to his librarian, M. Barbier, dictated by Napoleon at Bayonne, in July, 1808, and containing instructions for the composition of a travelling library, makes this occupation of his mind, amid enterprises in quarters most remote from the shores of the Indus, almost indubitably clear. The library was to include translations of the Bible, the best works of the Fathers, the Koran, mythology, ecclesiastical history; Homer, Lucan, Tasso, 'Télémaque,' the 'Henriade,' Corneille, Racine, and other poetry; select works of Voltaire, Rousseau, Fielding, Richardson, Le Sage, and other novelists; the principal writings of Machiavelli and Montesquieu, and a considerable number of special historical memoirs. The letter then goes on to say (we quote from an English translation): "The Emperor would also wish M. Barbier to prepare, in conjunction with one of the most eminent geographers of the day, a memoir upon all the campaigns which took place upon the Euphrates and against the Parthians, beginning with that of Crassus, down to the eighth century, including those of Antony, Trajan, Julian, etc., tracing upon maps of a suitable scale the route taken by each army, with the ancient and modern names of the countries and principal towns, geographical remarks about the territory, and an historical narrative of each expedition, taken from the original writers." The meditated campaign was thus to begin from a base conceded by Turkey, and proceed, like Alexander's onward march, through the northern provinces of Persia.

—The site of Gortyna, one of the most important cities of Crete in ancient days, has been long known and frequently visited. In 1857 M. Thenon found there a stone built into the walls of a mill, and succeeded in purchasing it for the Louvre. It was inscribed with archaic letters running alternately from right to left and left to right, as the ploughman goes, exhibiting the intermediate stage between the original Phœnician mode of writing and the later Greek. It contained some regulations touching the rights and property of adopted children. A larger fragment was found by Haussoullier in 1879, in the walls of a house near by, where it still remains. This was concerned with the disposal of the hand of a maiden heiress on the decease of the father. Both fragments came from the bed of a sluice that flowed from the mill. In July last the place was visited by Doctor Halbherr in the interests of the German Archæological Institute of Athens, who, on being informed that other inscriptions lay in the bed of the sluice, where it had been carried through and over an ancient wall, had the water turned off for two days, dug out the inscribed side of the wall, and copied four columns which were evidently the continuation and completion of the fragments known before. The inscribed wall extended still further to the right, but into a field whose owner would not give him permission to dig. Returning to Candia, he communicated his discovery to Dr. Ernst Fabricius, his collaborator, whose report last year upon the tunnel of Polycrates in Samos has made him well known to archæologists. He repaired to the spot and succeeded in prevailing upon the owner to allow a trench to be run as far as the inscription extended. It was found that it had been engraved on the inside of a heavy wall of grayish limestone, formed of squared blocks accurately fitted in archaic fashion without cement. The wall had been that of an apparently circular structure, connected with other substructions without. Eight columns of inscription, in addition to the four copied by Halbherr, came to light, in so remarkable a state of preservation that but a few of the letters, here and there, are missing. Each column consists of 53, 54, or 55 lines, covering four layers of stone in height (about five feet), and engraved without regard to the joints of the stone. The tops of the ninth, tenth, and twelfth columns are missing, but the inscription is otherwise complete, both the beginning and end being certainly found. As the letters in the first line of each column begin at the right and run toward the left, so the tablets read from the right in succession to the left. This is the inscription whose discovery was announced in No. 1019 of the *Nation*, where it was said to contain no less than 17,000 letters—which is not far from the fact. For length alone it is conspicuous among the memorials of antiquity, and in this particular among archaic Greek inscriptions there is nothing to compare with it.

—It probably belongs to the sixth century B. C., and the twelve tables may be compared with the famous twelve at Rome, except that the Cretan are wholly concerned with matters of private law—how cases are to be conducted; when and what fines are to be paid; regulations in case of divorce; what property the wife may take with her; marriage of a widow, and the status of her children and their property; disposition of her property if she die childless; action in relation to exposing a child; reciprocal rights of parents and children in the matter of property, sons receiving twice as much as daughters; mi-

nute directions as to the laws of succession to property, and most elaborate regulations for heiresses and their disposal in marriage, so that the estate shall remain in the family, as at Sparta. With the provisions relating to free persons are usually coupled something similar for slaves, of which there appear to be two classes—one householders, the other house-slaves—for whom the fines are usually smaller than those for freemen, but sometimes greater, according to the nature of the crime. Much has been written in ancient and modern days about the laws of Crete, from which those of the Peloponnesian Dorians have been supposed to originate, but nothing has come down to us so minute and specific, and so comprehensive, as this inscription. Its value to the historian and the student of ancient law is very great, while it leads the philologist into a field of clover such as he has not had in many a day. The language is of the harshest Cretan Doric, where, if euphony is laziness, laziness was not a habit. Words strange to our lexicons, and forms unseen in our grammars, are thickly strewn. Fortunately, the most of them become intelligible by derivation or analogy, and the completeness and length of the inscription tend to elucidate the remainder. In order to place it as soon as possible before scholars for their study, it has been published in the *Mittheilungen des deutschen archäologischen Institutes*, ix, fourth part, without comment. Comment, however, it needs, and it will be a fruitful source of monographs from various quarters.

PASTEUR.

Louis Pasteur. His Life and Labors. By his Son-in-law. Translated from the French by Lady Claud Hamilton. D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

THIS volume, in the original French, has for subtitle, "Histoire d'un Savant par un Ignorant," but it is not written for ignorant people. It presupposes, if not a knowledge of the interesting discoveries which it details, some familiarity with kindred subjects; and those who would seek simple entertainment will scarcely find it in these pages. But they are only technical, not abstruse; and through the barriers which these technicalities impose on the unscientific reader, glimpses may be obtained of wide regions important in their character—for it can scarcely be questioned that it is of importance to all of us to know the principal physical facts of our world. And however little we are adepts in science, it is almost impossible in reading such a book not to share in some degree the emotion with which one of Pasteur's scientific predecessors—an old man—exclaimed, on seeing the completely successful result of one of Pasteur's first entirely original experiments and discoveries: "My dear boy, I have loved science so well all my life that this makes my heart beat."

We are far removed from the days, fifty years ago, of which Mr. Mark Pattison writes in his 'Memoirs,' when "the great discoveries of the last half century in chemistry, physiology, etc., were not even known by report to any of us." The vast domain of physical science is now overrun by every newspaper and magazine, "journal," and "record" in the land, and we are in some danger of that mental disease spoken of by Kant (in a passage quoted by Mr. Pattison) which "arises from the growth in the nation of a class which has not thorough science, and yet is not totally ignorant; which has caught up notions on [out of ?] current literature, which make it think itself on the same level of knowledge with those who have laboriously studied the sciences." But this self-delusion does not necessarily follow the attempt to *apprehend*—even if one cannot *appreciate*—the large final results reached by those who "laboriously study the sciences"; and it is not an idle interest one may take in the volume before us, since M. Pasteur ranks very high among those who in our day have thrown such a light on a great number of physical facts as converts them from isolated phenomena into illustrations of law.

While his researches have been in wholly different directions from Mr. Darwin's, they are by no means wholly dissimilar in quality to those of his great confrère, and the chapter in this volume on Fermentations curiously reminds one of Mr. Darwin's volume on Earthworms, if only in proving the enormous part played by agencies of which we habitually take little note. One of these chapters shows us the steps by which Pasteur reached his great and now well-known discovery—a discovery of the most amazing expansiveness—that fermentations are due to the presence and action of microscopic organized living beings. Different fermentations are produced by different kinds of organisms. One of the fermentations (that of butyric acid) exhibits an entirely undreamed of peculiarity, in the extraordinary fact that the vibrios which produce it live and multiply without air. So that, as the famous chemist M. Dumas said one day to M. Pasteur, before the Academy of Sciences: "In these infinitely small organisms [*petits de la vie*] you have discovered a third kingdom—the kingdom to which those beings belong which, with all the prerogatives of animal life, do not require air for their existence, and find the heat necessary for them in the chemical decompositions which they set up around them."

Another of these little organisms, that which produces acetic fermentation, has such prodigious activity of life and multiplication that M. Pasteur gave expression in this manner to its powers—at the Academy of Sciences again: "I would undertake in a period of twenty-four hours to cover over with mycoderma aceti a surface of vinous liquid as extensive as the hall in which we are here assembled. I should only have to sow it the day before in almost invisibly small spots with newly-formed mycoderma aceti." We will here observe, in passing, that the English translation renders this last sentence inaccurately: "sow in it . . . almost invisible particles of," etc.; it is the smallness and variety of the *spots* ("petites *places* à peine visibles") which makes the wonder.

Of the magnitude of the operations of fermentation we are scarcely conscious except when we definitely bring to our minds that it is the cause of "the disappearance of the dead body and of the fallen plant, of the foaming of the must in the vintage cask, of the rising of dough, of the curdling of milk, of the putrefaction of blood, of the transformation of the heap of straw into manure, of the creation of soil out of dead leaves and plants."

The investigation of the cause of fermentations leads directly to the question of spontaneous generation. "M. L'Ignorant's" entertaining, superficial account of the history of this theory we must pass over. Suffice it to say, that down to 1858 learned believers in this theory and able defenders of it were not lacking; and when in that year M. Pasteur proposed to enter on the study of the problem, his principal scientific friends vainly endeavored to dissuade him from so foolish a task. But in 1860 the Academy of Sciences offered a prize for careful experiments which would throw new light on the question, and this prize Pasteur won by experiments already completed which drew from the permanent Secretary of the Academy of Sciences, M. Flourens, this assertion: "The experiments are decisive. . . . Those who still doubt have failed to grasp the question."

We must hasten on without entertaining our readers with the interesting accounts of the objects of M. Pasteur's travels, and the purposes of his feasts, his drinking-bouts, and the reports of his various triumphs before native and foreign "Commissions," and in International Congresses. His investigations differ from Darwin's in the immediately *practical* nature of many of them. He has frequently—notably in his studies of the "maladies" of wine and of silk-worms, and of the virulent diseases of horses, cows, and sheep—turned his attention to these points from other motives than those of strictly personal scientific interest; and the sacrifice of life which he made by such overlabors as brought on a paralysis in 1868, must have been amply rewarded by the widespread recognition of his patriotic services. The permanent results of these services—the fact, indeed, whether they are "services," is still under discussion among men of science. While some of them believe that he has conferred incalculable public benefits by placing large industries and departments of agriculture on the secure basis of scientific knowledge, others maintain that his processes open one door to dangers in shutting another, and would listen without enthusiasm to Huxley's assertion that "Pasteur's discoveries would suffice of themselves to cover the war indemnity of five milliards of francs paid to Germany by France." And there is equal difference of judgment with regard to his discoveries concerning human diseases, fevers—those of a contagious nature—cholera, hydrophobia, and other. It is maintained by many that it is by no means impossible that he has taken the first steps toward their complete extinction. But perhaps no stronger assertion is safe than that made by Tyndall in 1876, when he wrote to him, "For the first time in the history of science we are able to entertain the sure and certain hope that in relation to epidemic diseases, medicine will soon be delivered from empiricism and placed upon a real scientific basis. When this great day shall come, humanity will recognize that it is to you the greatest part of its gratitude is due."

Pasteur's experiments show not only that the cause of virulent diseases, as of fermentations, is a microscopic parasite, but that this living organism can be "cultivated" in the laboratory of the physicist, and can be used, under certain conditions brought about at the will of the cultivator, as a (more or less) complete protection from the malady which under other conditions it creates. The question raised on the part of the adversaries of Pasteur is not only whether the subsequent immunity from danger is complete, but whether it is not purchased by the loss of vital strength. Pasteur's discovery of these new "vaccinations" (as he has called them in honor of Jenner) amounts to this: if cowpox were to vanish from the world, our present preventive against smallpox would be lost; but under the great law Pasteur has revealed, disease henceforth may be fought with weapons from its own arsenal. It is to be regretted that the author of this volume has not dwelt more effectively on the necessity of using vivisection in obtaining this all-important knowledge. It is a curious indication of the interlocking of one investigation with another, that it was at the close of his 'Studies on *Beer*' that M. Pasteur wrote: "The etiology of contagious diseases is perhaps on the eve of having unexpected light thrown upon it"—words which are a striking confirmation of the judgment reached two hundred years earlier by the genius of Robert Boyle: "These phenomena [divers phenomena of diseases, as well fevers as others] will perhaps be never well understood without a thorough knowledge of the theory of fermentations."

We have already referred to Mr. Darwin's studies of earthworms. In Pasteur's investigations

concerning the etiology of the disease known as *charbon*, he, too, was brought face to face with these obscure workers, and he saw their work from a less welcome point of view than that of the great naturalist, discovering a part of it which Mr. Darwin seems to have overlooked. Pasteur became convinced that some portion of the spread of contagious diseases is due to the earthworm bringing to the surface the germs contained in buried bodies, which, in the form of dust on leaves and herbage, carries contagion to browsing animals. And, in this connection, M. Pasteur lately pointed out in the Academy of Medicine the possible malign influence of the soil on human maladies, and the possible danger from cemeteries. Is the earthworm to be our final and convincing argument for cremation?

It may be wished that this volume had not appeared during the life-time of M. Pasteur, and with his evident coöperation. But such a wish is too alien to the literary habits of our day for any vehement expression of it to be indulged in. French sentiment, even what may be called French folly, plays a certain part, but an insignificant one, in these pages; and those who are in the habit of reading the last page first, if they be fastidious, will receive an undue impression of tastelessness from the melodramatic scene-painting there. But fortunately the book, as a whole, is much more a sketch of the man's work than of the man himself; and the work is great work. The translation is fairly easy and agreeable (as good in style as the original deserves), and Mr. Tyndall's imprimatur should be sufficient assurance of its scientific accuracy.

CLARK'S SIGN LANGUAGE.

The Indian Sign Language, with brief explanatory notes of the gestures taught deaf-mutes in our institutions for their instruction, and a description of some of the peculiar laws, customs, myths, superstitions, ways of living, code of peace and war signals of our aborigines. By W. P. Clark, U. S. A. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 443.

THE most noticeable point in Captain Clark's volume is that he makes no mention of the large amount of literature that has gathered around the subject of sign language in general, and more particularly that he acknowledges none of the work accomplished during the present century upon the sign language of the North American Indians. The most recent of that work, which comprehends and republishes all of the earlier, has been done by the Bureau of Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution, and is the special production of Colonel Garrick Mallery, assisted by many collaborators. In 1880 Colonel Mallery published an 'Introduction to the Study of Indian Languages,' which was followed in the same year by a 'Collection of Gesture Signs and Signals of the North American Indians, with some Comparisons,' 329 pages quarto. This volume contained more than two thousand signs in alphabetic order, representing several hundred different ideas, the material being furnished by about forty special correspondents. A third paper by the same author, of 290 pages royal octavo, with 286 illustrations, entitled "Sign Language among the North American Indians Compared with that among Other Peoples and Deaf Mutes," appeared in the First Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, issued in 1881. These works have been widely discussed with reference to their value in connection with theories of the origin of oral language, and, by another line of evolution, with ideographs, pictographs, and consequently with written language.

That Captain Clark has made no allusion to these publications, especially to the second or 'Collection,' is the more remarkable from the fact that the arrangement of his work, including minute details, is apparently copied from it. But no charge of plagiarism in the description of the individual signs rests upon him, as his mode of considering sign language—indeed, his fundamental conception of it—differs radically from that presented by the Bureau of Ethnology. He has substantially taken the ground that there was but one sign language among the North American Indians, and, furthermore, that there was, as a rule, but one sign, or combination of signs, to represent one object or conception. On the other hand, Colonel Mallery, in his several publications, has stated and shown by many examples that while there is one system of gesture speech among Indians, it is not to be regarded as one formal or absolute language; several groups, with their centres of origin, being indicated for signs that had become conventional, and indefinite variety and flexibility being postulated for true ideographic or self-interpreting signs.

The same difference of view between the two writers prevails with regard to the gesture signs of deaf-mutes, which are introduced by both of them in connection with the Indian signs. Captain Clark simply gives one deaf-mute sign: Colonel Mallery recognizes the fact that many of the particular signs of deaf-mutes in America not only differ from those used with the same signification in some countries of Europe, but also differ among the several institutions for deaf-mute instruction in the United States; and also that there is an entirely distinct class of signs, which may be called "natural deaf-mute signs," produced by the separate invention of mutes before instruction. These several classes of signs, and not one indefinite example, which might belong to any one of them, are given by him in comparison.

The third difference in the mode of treatment of the subject is, that the Bureau of Ethnology has presented copious comparisons of the gesture signs of antiquity, so far as preserved in literature and art, and of their modern use and signification in many remote parts of the world, including Italy, Turkey, Sicily, the Hawaiian, Fiji, and Gilbert Islands, Madagascar, Japan, and Australia. The gesture signs of all speaking men, and of deafmutes, are in this manner regarded as one system possessing great interest and importance; but by no means can any collection of them, whether comprehensive or limited, be usefully treated as a separate language. When the diverse signs are purely ideographic, they have been found to be intelligible to persons familiar with the principles of sign expression; but when, as is very common, they have become conventional, they cannot be understood without the aid of the context or without knowledge of the particular convention. The instances of diversity among Indian signs are so numerous that a vocabulary would be insufficient and misleading that should be confined to the presentation of a single sign for each of the several objects or ideas to be expressed, without adding variants giving the designations of the several groups using them. There being no single absolute language, each of the several forms of expression has an equal right to consideration, without which a vocabulary must either be limited to a single dialect or become a glossary of a jargon.

The present work is liable to this charge. There is no means of ascertaining whether the greater part of the signs printed are those of any distinct body or bodies of Indians, or indeed whether they have not all or most of them been subjected to Captain Clark's catalytic discretion. He frankly declared, in the number of the *United Service* for July, 1880, that the description of signs should be made according to a mean or average, which average of course is made by himself; and there is internal evidence that this course has been pursued in the volume. The signs, as described, have become his own signs, not the genuine signs of any Indians. According to the principles of sign-formation, he could and undoubtedly did use his signs to advantage, for he became distinguished as an expert sign-talker. But with this practical skill he has been unable to explain the principles of the system, just as many a fluent talker of English is unable to spell or parse, far less qualified to write a grammar and dictionary. His vocabulary, therefore, will not contribute to science until it has been analyzed by scholars experienced in this branch of study. Nor will it be of much value to travellers or other persons desirous to learn sign language for their personal use. Mere memorizing of his signs will not suffice when there are so many variants both in conception and execution which are left unmentioned. It is also doubtful if many students can memorize the signs as described, especially without the aid of illustrations.

Captain Clark gives in all honesty the signs which he has met, understood, and approved during an experience of six years. His work, as compared with that of the Bureau of Ethnology, illustrates the difference between the individual work of any one man, unprepared by special education for its undertaking, and the combined labor of many observers and students trained in the same methods, and directed to a common object. In all of the publications of the Bureau of Ethnology mentioned, in immediate connection with the description of a sign appears the tribe or tribes in which it is noticed, and the authority therefor, whether collaborator or pub lished work. Many of the collaborators have been directly engaged in the work for a longer time than claimed by Captain Clark for himself, and some of them have contributed the observations of a lifetime, made in regions in which Captain Clark had, according to his own account, spent but a few weeks or days, or which he had never visited.

Although in his vocabulary Captain Clark does not often recognize the diversities in Indian signs, which, as above explained, constitute a fundamental and interesting part of the system, he inconsistently acknowledges in his Introduction that some tribes have "had determined centres, if not of origin, certainly of perfection and propagation of gesture speech," and divides them into five groups as follows: I. Cheyenne, Arapaho. II. Mandan, Gros Ventre, Arikara. III. Crows. IV. Blackfeet. V. Kaiowa, Apache. These divisions, according to the views held at the Bureau of Ethnology, are not true groups, but the tribes mentioned are arranged into two. The first embraces the Arikara, Dakota, Mandan, Gros Ventre or Hidatsa, Blackfeet, Crows, and other tribes in Montana and Idaho. The second consists of the Arapaho, Cheyenne, Pani, Kaiowa, Caddo, Wichita, Apache of Indian Territory, and other tribes in the southwest as far as New Mexico, and possibly portions of Arizona. The other tribes not mentioned by Captain Clark are to be grouped as follows: Third, Pima, Yuma, Papago, Maricapa, Hualpai (Yuman), and the tribes of southern California. Fourth, Shoshoni, Banak, Pai-Uta of Pyramid Lake, and the tribes of northern Idaho and lower British Columbia, eastern Washington and Oregon. Fifth, Alaska: embracing the southern Innuit, Kenai (Athabaskan), and the Iakutat and Tshilkaat tribes of the Thlinkit or Koloshan stock. The gestures of Alaskan tribes present a marked difference from those of any of the southern tribes. Gestures are still understood by the Indians of British Columbia and northern parts of Vancouver's Island, where they prevailed extensively at one time. This region is

somewhat beyond the area in which the Chinook jargon is spoken, and in which it supplants the use of signs as a necessity for communication.

The parts of the volume which will be most interesting to the general reader are the accounts of laws, customs, myths, and superstitions, injected into various parts of it in connection with the signs mentioned. Few of these are new, and some of them are contradicted by writers and explorers in the field who have had more experience than the author. They will not now be criticised. The only one of them which it seems important to note is in direct connection with the sign language, where the author declares, under the head of "Woman," that even among the tribes that are thoroughly conversant with gesture speech, the women only possess a limited knowledge of it. This is distinctly denied by many observers, and a particularly interesting account was communicated by Disappearing Mist (a leading chief of the Iroquois now remaining in Canada), to the effect that in his younger days the women used the sign language among one another in the presence of the warriors of the tribe, in order not to disturb them by the noise of spoken words.

It is proper to end this notice with an expression of sorrow for the untimely death of Captain Clark, which suddenly occurred as his manuscript had been placed in the hands of the publisher. He was an accomplished, amiable, and industrious young officer, whose interest in contributing to the literature concerning the North American Indians was most commendable. The reasons for the imperfections of his work have been sufficiently indicated.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Macready as I Knew Him. By Lady Pollock. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 8vo, pp. 141.

Henry Irving. By William Winter. George J. Coombes. 8vo, pp. 123.

William E. Burton, Actor, Author, and Manager. A Sketch of his Career, with Recollections of his Performances. By William L. Keese. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 230.

An Actor's Tour, or Seventy Thousand Miles with Shakespeare. By Daniel E. Bandmann. Edited by Bernard Gisby. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 12mo, pp. 305.

L'Art de la Mise-en-Scène. Essai d'esthétique théâtrale. Par Becq de Fouquières. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo, pp. xi,-285.

THE little book about Macready, in which Lady Pollock has gracefully recorded her recollections of him, is an admirable supplement to Macready's journals which Sir Frederick Pollock presented to the public about ten years ago. Lady Pollock did not make the actor's acquaintance until just as he was about to retire from the stage, and her reminiscences relate for the most part to his sayings and doings in private life. Thus, she records his opinions on his art as expressed from time to time in his table-talk. We are told (p. 30) that Macready thought little of Junius Brutus Booth—whom, however, he could have seen only at the beginning of his career, when Booth was crushed by the competition of Edmund Kean. Macready attended Coleridge's lectures on Shakspere, and they delighted him, although they were discursive. "He recalled a striking expression of Coleridge's in condemning passages of revolting horror as alien from true art; he said it was '*a descent from the heart to the stomach*'" (p. 23); and Macready then cited certain modern French plays as examples of this fault—Hugo's "Le Roi s'amuse" being one. He was wont to assert the great difficulty of reading plays aloud, and he doubted whether dramatic reading could ever be altogether satisfactory as an art. "No change of voice should ever be attempted: it misdirects the attention; only a change of tone, as a softer tone for the woman" (p. 26). Macready's example as a reader may, perhaps, be placed against his precept. Lady Pollock gives an excellent description of the way in which he read "Hamlet," and she praises especially "the supernatural character with which the ghost was invested. He neither growled nor droned nor dragged the time, but his tones seemed to come from another world. They were audible, quite audible; but they were without resonance" (p. 40). This unpretending monograph is full of bits of criticism as interesting as this and as stimulating to the student of the stage. To be noted also is the hitherto unprinted letter written to Macready by Alfred de Vigny, after the author of "Cinq-Mars" had been to see the English actor as *Richelieu.*

Mr. Winter's 'Henry Irving' is the last and the best of a long line of works on the same subject. It is handy in form and beautifully printed. The preface correctly declares it to be "a record of Henry Irving's professional career upon the New York stage and a study of his acting." The record is well-nigh perfect. It is full in its statements of fact, precise and accurate; abounding in dates, casts of plays, composition of companies, etc., and lacking only an index. The study of the acting—that is to say, the purely critical part of the work—is also excellent, though Mr. Winter's opinion of Mr. Irving's acting, of his histrionic faculty, of his artistic limitations, is not always our opinion. He has the good habit of giving a concrete example for his abstract dictum. In a volume so scrupulously prepared as this, it is not hypercriticism to point out two trifling mistakes: On p. 11, Mr. Winter tells us that the French original of "The Bells," the "Juif Polonais" of MM. Erckmann-Chatrian, was not intended for representation. We believe him to be misinformed on this point; at all events, the play certainly was acted at the Cluny Theatre not long before the English adaptation was produced at the Lyceum Theatre. The other error is a misprint only: On p. 43, the name of one of the French authors of the "Lyons Mail" is spelled "Sevaudin." It should be Siraudin.

Mr. Keese has written a pleasant and readable account of Burton's career as an actor and as a manager. As an actor, Burton was perhaps the last of the British low comedians who have been succeeded by the present finer, drier, more American actors of comic character. Burton was broad to the verge of vulgarity—and sometimes beyond it; and the more decorous theatre of our times would not tolerate the means of raising a loud laugh to which Burton descended not infrequently. But he was an actor of abundant and unctuous humor, and he had no need to lower himself to the level of the clown. It is as a manager that he had most influence on the American theatre. The house which he managed raised the level of the American stage, continued the best traditions of the old Park Theatre, and made the way straight for the elder Wallack, when his time came to found the famous theatre we now see in its decadence. Mr. Keese has performed his task with simplicity and taste. He has not omitted the list of parts performed by the actor—an indispensable appendage of all dramatic biographies; nor has he omitted a full and trustworthy index. He has had the aid of the surviving members of Burton's family; and we could have spared the reprinted description of the actor's library in favor of more anecdotes, or of more letters like the characteristic epistle written not long before the actor died, and given in full on pages 104-110. We had hoped, also, that Mr. Keese might be able to find among Mr. Burton's papers some further account of the relations between the comedian, when he was publishing the *Gentleman's Magazine* in Philadelphia, and Poe, when the latter was its editor. Mr. Woodberry has treated the quarrel at length in his new life of Poe (pp. 128-142), but we should have been glad of any other letters, if such there be, in the possession of Burton's family.

'An Actor's Tour' is one of the most needless and worthless books it has ever been our misfortune to read. "I celebrate myself," might be its motto; for it is an exhibition of complacent and ignorant egotism, disfigured by a most offensive snobbishness (see the references to Lord Lytton and Charles Reade, p. 182; to Mr. "Mowbry" [*sic*] Morris, p. 102; and to Mr. "Willy" [*sic*] Winter, p. 226). The sub-title, "Seventy Thousand Miles with Shakespeare," is an impertinence.

By *mise-en-scène* the French mean the stage-management of a play, the setting of it on the stage in all its details of "readings," "business," scenery, costumes, music, etc. It is on this important subject that M. Becq de Fouquières has written a treatise of indisputable value. He confesses in his preface his great indebtedness to M. Sarcey's weekly criticisms in the *Temps,* and the regular reader of that paper will find little here that is absolutely new. But the matter is perfectly assimilated and set forth in logical sequence from beginning to end. His argument is too compact to be summarized in the space at our command. We can do no more than to recommend the book most cordially to all who are interested in the stage, and desire some insight into the principles which should govern acting, costumes, and scenery. Incidentally, M. de Fouquières is led to join issue with the new naturalistic school which wishes to substitute the exact imitation of nature for the artistic suggestion of nature—the sole desirable or possible thing. M. de Fouquières, of course, is a Frenchman of the straitest sect, and his examples are chosen almost entirely from the French drama.

The Native Religions of Mexico and Peru. By Albert Réville, D.D., Professor of the Science of Religions at the Collège de France. [Hibbert Lectures, 1884.] English translation by Philip H. Wicksteed, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons.

MR. WICKSTEED has made an admirable translation of these six lectures, which were originally delivered in French, and the author himself has said some excellent things, which are very true. Thus, on page 41, when he qualifies the Mexican worship-mound as being "essentially a gigantic altar, of pyramidal form, built in several stages, contracting as they approached the summit," he has given perhaps the very best definition of it ever published. Again, touching upon the delicate questions of relationship between the "religions and civilization" of aboriginal America and those of the Old World, he very truly remarks (p. 200): "The fact is, that all these attempts rest on the arbitrary selection of some few traits of resemblance, on which exclusive stress is laid, to the neglect of still more characteristic differences." On p. 205, he announces the great truth that "there is not the smallest trace of an earlier monotheism preceding the polytheism of either the one or the other nation [Mexico and Peru]." We have not space to dwell on M. Réville's summary of the characteristics of this polytheism. Suffice it to say that it is excellent, and that he has unconsciously stated the "true inwardness" of Indian religion in general.

It is almost singular that he should have succeeded so well, for the bulk of his work is far from deserving the praise which we are happy to bestow upon the foregoing points. M. Réville has, in the main, not only followed the

inflated and exaggerated views held of aboriginal American culture by many authors like Prescott and Bancroft—he even improves upon the latter. This leads him, in his descriptions of that culture, to errors so numerous that we refrain from specifying more than one, which will serve amply to explain the rest. We allude to the first lecture (p. 17):

"To begin with, we treat these two districts [Central America and Mexico] as a single whole, because the Europeans found them inhabited by a race which was divided, it is true, into several varieties, but was distinguished clearly from the red-skins in the north, and still more from the Eskimos, and alone of the native races of North America had proved itself capable of rising by its own strength to a veritable civilization."

The disadvantage under which M. Réville labors is one which is common to the majority of writers on American aboriginal topics. He does not know the American aboriginal from personal observation and experience, and therefore makes of him an imaginary being. He is not conscious of the fact that, at the time of the conquest (as since—with very few modern exceptions in the United States, and excepting also the Indians trained and educated by the Spaniards and the Catholic Church), no Indian was permanently sedentary, none absolutely erratic. The permanency of residence is due not so much to a higher development as to natural causes. M. Réville also forgets that the "Age of Stone" prevailed equally over the whole continent, in Mexico as well as among the tribes of Brazil; that the so-called bronze is an accidental compound; that the "savages" of New York used copper as well as his "civilized natives" of Peru, whereas the sedentary house-builders of New Mexico had none—in short, that there is only a gradual difference, and no fundamental distinction. So-called "wild tribes" are even, in certain arts, further advanced than the ancient Mexicans and Peruvians.

Where there is such a lack of ethnological knowledge and experience on the subject, it can hardly be expected that the use made of the literary material accumulated since the Columbian period would be more than the usual copying and quoting. M. Réville has used a fair array of authorities, but he has done so without applying to them the judicious criticism required of an historian. His book, in short, is one of the many which have contributed to discredit American aboriginal history and archæology before the modern public, through the constant clash and jar of their views with actual facts. It is much to be regretted that such should be the case. As we have before stated, some of the statements and assertions, rather than conclusions, of M. Réville are surprisingly true, but they are not in harmony with the main picture as presented by him. This has prevented him from reaching a just appreciation of causes, and therefore from making his book a valuable addition to history as well as to the "Science of Religions" itself.

The Flemish School of Painting. By Prof. A. G. Wauters. Translated by Mrs. Henry Rossel. [South Kensington Series.] Cassell & Co.

THE growth of the art of Flanders is too closely involved with that of Holland, whether considered in reference to its inner springs or its school characteristics, to permit the two to be separated in any philosophical study. Considered in reference to the great developments of the art of painting throughout Europe, the Dutch and Flemish schools must count as one, like the Umbrian and Florentine, in view of the fact that they obey the same general law and spring from the same inspiration. The distinguishing trait which decides the position of the school of the Low Countries, taken as a whole, is its realism, both in form and color. While the Italian school slowly evolved from the Byzantine, based on the antique tradition of the ideal, the Dutch, alien in history as in temperament to this poetic descent, took root and grew vigorously and rapidly from the beginning in direct inspiration of nature; and from this spring the art of Rembrandt and that of Rubens are equally derived. Political and religious causes separated the race into two nations and differentiated the art, but the political history is not more closely entangled than the artistic, and it is as difficult to give a clear conception of the earliest art of one without reference to the other, as it would be to write the history of Flanders and make no reference to Holland. It is only when the French Renaissance invaded the Low Countries that Belgium, having already ethnologically become in part French, began to develop an art which separates itself completely from the art of Holland; and this influence has so increased that to-day the art of Belgium is less Flemish than Gallic—the painters are more Walloon than the people.

The history of Professor Wauters, by slighting these relations, neglects an element essential to the elucidation of his subject. His patriotic pride is greater than his love of art. No one can belittle the honor due the Van Eycks, or obscure the fact that they were the prime movers in an artistic revolution; but it would have been more worthy an historian to have shown in their proper place the common sources of the ancestry of Rubens and Rembrandt, Teniers and Van Dyck, than to have dismissed the subject with a single paragraph of seventeen short lines:

"When speaking of Van Eyck and his sojourn at the Hague in 1422-24, we have suggested the probability of the direct influence which he, the head of the school of Bruges, *must have exercised* on the Dutch school then in its birth. Indeed, it is toward that period that we have the first record of Albert Van Ouwater, the earliest known painter of the northern provinces. Haarlem was the scene of the labors of Gérard de Saint Jean (1450), his pupil; the two panels which are attributed to this artist at the Imperial Museum of Vienna denote the influence exercised by the Flemish school of the end of the fifteenth century."

If, then, Van Ouwater was already known as painter when Van Eyck went to the Hague, there must be an artistic genealogy antedating that visit. What this was, and how far both painters were the result of a common tendency, as were the school of Cimabue and the contemporary school of Sienna, was worth the historian's study. He does, indeed, later in his work, admit practically the identity of the schools in two sentences (p. 178): "In its origin, the history of Dutch painting can hardly be separated from that of Flemish painting. Both sought inspiration from the same sources, and were guided by the same master; the result was that in the fifteenth century the seventeen provinces produced exactly the same art." Why not, then, have given us to understand clearly the common parentage and common course?

But Professor Wauters is rather a eulogist than an historian, and his eulogy runs rather into poetry than plain criticism. In speaking of Rubens he says:

"He is everywhere, and everywhere abundantly represented. He is everywhere, and everywhere triumphant. No matter what pictures surround him, the effect is invariable: those which resemble his own are eclipsed, those that would oppose him are silenced. Wherever he is, he makes you feel his presence; he stands alone, and at all times occupies the first place. . . . The same ardent brush which depicted the struggles of lions and Titans, painted garlands of cherubs bright with silver and pearl; he exposes all the coarseness of a village fair, and without an effort rises to the most sublime heights of art with Homer, Dante, Michael Angelo, and Shakespeare. . . . His weak points themselves proclaim his genius and his might; they are but the consequence of his rarest gifts, of his sumptuous coloring, his masterly dimensions, his astounding facility, his eloquence, his vitality. How gorgeous his coloring! How admirably all those tints of red, gold, blue, vermillion are blended! How they enhance the beauty of his pearly carnations! How powerful and stirring their harmony! What an irresistible hold they have on our senses! We are bewildered, delighted, bewitched, entranced! . . . His touch is masterly; his brush flies and scatters sparks on marble columns, breastplates, unfurled standards, brocaded silks, distant verdure, golden hair, and the luxurious show of his rosy-tinted carnations."

There are nearly four pages of this frantic effulgence of the pen—to invent a phrase that shall fitly characterize the rhapsody which Professor Wauters imagines to be criticism. Of course, after this, any other commendation is tame; and of Leys, the most remarkable painter of the modern Belgian (no longer Flemish) school, this modest sentence is the highest note of praise: "We do not fear to prophesy that some of the figures in the four large panels at the Hôtel de Ville will rank among the finest creations of the nineteenth century." In common with many other authorities, he errs, we believe, in making Alma-Tadema a pupil of Leys. There is good authority for saying that Alma-Tadema never was in the studio of Leys, although an admirer and follower of the great Belgian master.

The illustrations are copious, but, in common with all those in this series that we have thus far seen, coarse and ineffective. The addition of the monograms of the painters is a tribute to a branch of erudition once of some value, but which, now that pictures as well as monograms are thoroughly and systematically counterfeited, has no longer any meaning.

Italy, from the Fall of Napoleon I. in 1815 to the death of Victor Emmanuel in 1878. By John Webb Probyn. Cassell & Co. 1 vol., 8vo.

THE period marked in the title of this book is one of the most marvellous in the history of Italy, and will hereafter vie in romance and legend with the most heroic periods of Greece and Rome. Any one who was a witness of the state of Italy from 1815 to 1848, when Lamartine called it the "the land of the dead," and Metternich "a geographical expression," must look upon the change that took place from 1848 to 1870 as something bordering on the miraculous and supernatural.

On the fall of the Empire of Napoleon the First, Italy was cut up into eight principalities, by the so-called Holy Alliance of Kings, and handed over, bound hand and foot, to Austria and a number of kings and dukes, her dependants and minions, including the Pope, who were compelled to obey slavishly her slightest wish in the government of their small territories. Whatever movement for liberty took place in any of these States, if not suppressed at once by the local petty despots, was crushed by the overwhelming military force of Austria, who would march her armies from her formidable quadrilateral of Lombardy into any of their territories as a landlord among his tenants, sometimes without even the formality of asking leave.

The Revolution of 1848, begun in Sicily against the Bourbons of Naples and which then spread over Italy, took Europe by surprise; France followed in its wake, and then part of Germany and Hungary. All the small Italian despots, taken suddenly aback, pretended to yield to the Liberal movement, but abided their time for repression; except one, Charles Albert of Savoy. Something similar happened to Germany and Austria. But no sooner was there a Napoleon at the head of the French Government, though a nominal republic, than the old despotic powers combined together to smother the Liberal movement—Russia in Hungary, Prussia in Germany, Austria, France, and even Spain in Italy. In

less than two years, Austria, which had lost Milan and Venice, recovered them by force of arms, and occupied Modena, Tuscany, Parma, and Bologna, replacing the dukes on their thrones, but with Austrian garrisons. The King of Naples, the famous Bomba, crushed liberty by treachery and brute force in Naples and Sicily; and the French attacked Rome, and by force of arms restored the Pope to his throne, while Spain sent a division that occupied Ancona for the same purpose. Thus, nearly two-thirds of Italy was occupied by the Austrian armies, the Roman State by the French and Spanish; and Naples and Sicily groaned under the iron rule of the Bourbon of Naples, with his ten regiments of Swiss and Bavarian mercenaries.

Only in the northern corner, a little kingdom of four million souls held aloft a broken sword and a tattered flag, which Victor Emmanuel of Savoy had gathered on a bloody field of battle after a crushing defeat at Novara, March 23, 1849. His father, Charles Albert, who had taken the people's side against Austria, had been defeated on that day and abdicated, and Victor Emmanuel gathered up the broken sword and tattered flag, and assumed the task of liberating Italy, slowly but boldly, gathering strength from all sources—from the Liberal element at home, of whatever shade, from alliances abroad; gradually regaining what Piedmont had lost. Then he began with Cavour that system of Liberal reforms that attracted all the Italian patriots to the constitutional government of Piedmont and its young King. The alliance with France and England during the Crimean war opened the way to the recognition of the Italian question before Europe, 1855-'56. The marriage of Princess Clotilde with Prince Napoleon secured the alliance of France for the war of 1859, which dispossessed Austria of Lombardy, and caused the revolution of Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and Bologna, who annexed themselves to Piedmont. The year after, Garibaldi descended upon Sicily with his one thousand patriots, and overturned the throne of the last offshoot of the Bourbons of Naples, and bestowed a kingdom of eight millions on Victor Emmanuel, who was then proclaimed King of Italy. There remained only two states under foreign bayonets, Venice and Rome. The alliance with Prussia in 1866 opened the quadrilateral and the City of the Lagoons to the Italians; and the defeat of Sedan, causing France to recall her army of occupation from Rome, opened the gates of the Eternal City, and accomplished the unity of Italy in 1870. Eight years after, Victor Emmanuel died in the very capital of the new kingdom which he had liberated from foreign and domestic tyranny.

Mr. Probyn says in the preface to his book: "The purpose of this volume is to give a concise account of the chief causes and events which have transformed Italy from a divided into a united country. A detailed history of this important epoch would fill volumes, and will not be written for some time to come." Mr. Probyn has kept his word and has given us that and nothing more. But the subject is so pregnant with matter that his work, though accurate as to dates and the chronological course of events, is meagre in the extreme, and leaves the reader totally unsatisfied. Moreover, the "chief causes" are so superficially and lightly touched upon that they appear utterly inadequate to the events which they produced. We commend the book, therefore, simply as an epitome of the striking events that took place in Italy during the period under review.

Lessons on Practical Subjects for Grammar-School Children. By S. F. and C. W. F. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

OPINIONS differ as to the wisdom of arranging the college curriculum with direct reference to the demands of every-day life, but in the case of the public schools the question is hardly an open one. The vast majority of their scholars must finish their education and go to work at about the age when preparation for college is begun, and it is essential that what knowledge they get should be immediately available. Holding this view, the authors of the little book above named have presented some of the elementary principles and most important facts of our economy in such a way as to be comprehensible to the youngest scholars. An outline is given of the subjects of money, bonds, taxation, corporations, and savings-banks, with much sensible advice upon such matters as strikes, habits of saving, etc., interspersed. The style of the book is extremely simple and clear, and although human beings generally insist upon being taught by experience in financial matters, yet if they have once listened to these plain lessons they may buy their experience cheaper and profit by it sooner.

We incline to think that it would have been better to select examples from actual history in many cases where imaginary instances have been taken. Thus, to illustrate the necessity of the introduction of money by supposed dealings between antediluvian tailors and bakers is to be guilty of an anachronism—although the responsibility for this illustration may be thrown upon Adam Smith—and it is certainly undesirable to give the impression, even to grammar-school children, that iron was generally employed as money before the other metals. We trust that prejudice and official regulations will not hinder the fair trial of this book in some of our schools. It can hardly fail to interest both teachers and pupils, and although the authors disclaim the intention of burdening scholars with another separate study, we should be glad to see their intention defeated. These matters are of enough importance to crowd grammar and geography into the background.

Labrador. A Sketch of its Peoples, its Industries, and its Natural History. By Winfrid Alden Stearns. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1884. 12mo, pp. 295.

THIS is an excellent account of southern Labrador by one who has made three voyages to the coast and wintered upon it. Indeed, Mr. Stearns's relation of his winter experience at Bonne Espérance, near the southern entrance to the Strait of Belle-Isle, is the most original and valuable part of these sketches. At the same time the book is the only good guide to the coast from the Mingan Islands to the end of the Straits of Belle-Isle that we possess. So far as regards this region we can recommend it for its careful description of the better-known harbors and points of interest as far north as Château Bay opposite Belle-Isle and Newfoundland. The account of Mr. Stearns's third voyage, in which he went a few miles beyond Square Island, situated in about lat. 52° 30′ N., a little north of Cape St. Lewis, is very brief, and contains little that is noteworthy or novel.

The sketches of a Labrador home; of the average Labradorian, so hardy, rugged, and shiftless; of the winter scenes and amusements; the autumnal moving from the summer house on the shore to the more sheltered winter house up the bays; of the summer fishing; of winter and summer sports; and of the sudden breaking up of the ice and the incoming of spring at the beginning of June—all these characteristics of Labrador life and nature are faithfully sketched. We should have liked some new information regarding the Eskimo occupation of southern Labrador, although on p. 231 a mound containing five Eskimo graves is briefly described; and more about the ornithology and game birds, as well as the geological features of this interesting coast; but as it is, the book will prove indispensable to any one bound to "the Labrador" for a summer's cruise.

Some mistakes could have been avoided, such as "Dutch" for German, in referring to the German Moravians. On the last page Okkak is spelled Okkuk; Cape Chudleigh should read Cape Chidley uniformly. These are the most noticeable errors in what is a timely picture of a little-known region, a health resort for the summer which should attract more visitors to the coast, though the trip is always a stormy one, with dangers from fog and ice.

"*Boots and Saddles*"; or, Life in Dakota with General Custer. By Elizabeth B. Custer. Harper & Brothers. 1885.

MRS. CUSTER has appropriately taken for her title the military "call" that puts the cavalry in motion, for her book is a record of the nomadic life the ladies lead who follow our mounted regiments, constantly on the alert, and often on the march. Even peace gives little rest to officers, troopers, or wives. She has undertaken "to give a glimpse to civilians of garrison and camp life," as a general answer to the many questions constantly asked about the details of an existence that has so little in common with ordinary pursuits. That she has truthfully presented the domestic life of an army family, there is abundant internal evidence. Moreover, she has done it graphically. This refinement in the desert, these privations that become pleasure on account of those who share them, and the constant undercurrent of excitement that any day may ripple the surface and change the course of life, are enough to fill the spectator with surprise and to warm the participant's blood in healthy circulation. The book is breezy with the open air and cheery with horse and hound. It touches lightly the inevitable annoyances, and, while recounting incidents whose horror is fully measured, it passes on, without unnecessary loitering, to show the brighter side. Mrs. Custer has written a most vivid account of army life, and many of her experiences must be daily repeating themselves to the devoted wives now on the military frontier. She has given us a very pleasant glimpse into the inner courts of the sodality of the spur. But she has less to tell about lieutenants than lieutenant-colonels; and the fair girls whom yellow plumes and prancing horses attract westward, should read this book and count the cost of their prospective sacrifices before speaking the irrevocable words. Socially, all grades are equal, but subalterns and commanding officers with similar human desires have, from the exigencies of rank, very dissimilar facilities for their gratification.

Incorporated with these pages are two memorials: one of General Custer as he appeared to his wife, and one (entirely unconscious) of a fascinating and most loyal wife, always tender and true, whose constant thought was the pleasure and honor of him she loved. To those who have measured General Custer from the point of a man's observation, this newer view will be of great interest; and all who admire a guileless heart will be carried away by this transparent record, which is an effectual antidote to certain fiction lately published to the disparagement of ladies whom the bugles rally. We may be thankful for what Mrs. Custer has given us, but she has not told all her experiences of flood and field, and we may hope for a new volume with notes of her preceding campaigns.

A Lady's Ride Across Spanish Honduras. By Maria Soltera. With Illustrations. Edinburgh: Blackwood. 1884.

MARIA "SOLTERA," an English governess, landed

at Amapala, a port on the Pacific coast of Honduras. Tempted by a glowing pamphlet describing the advantages of a settlement in San Pedro Sula, a town about 200 miles to the north, she was on her way thither, alone, as her pseudonym indicates, to take charge of a school which was being erected for the colonists' children. Provided with a hammock, a mosquito net, a *mozo* or boy, three mules, and a muleteer, she set out on her hard, though not dangerous journey. After various mishaps, none of them serious, she reached San Pedro only to find that she had been grossly deceived. The colonists had nearly all left, and there was no school nor immediate prospect of one. There was nothing to be done then but to continue her ride to a port on the northern seaboard, whence she took passage in a steamer for New Orleans. Her account of her adventures is lively and entertaining, and she impresses one as having tact and courage not surpassed even by Miss Bird. She is enthusiastic in her praises of the magnificence of the mountain scenery of Honduras, and dwells gratefully on the uniform kindness with which she was treated by the people. Of the Indian women whom she met she draws a most attractive picture. There seems to be little enterprise among the natives, the business of the various places through which she passed being mostly in the hands of foreigners. Even the Alcalde of a town in the interior was a Scotchman by birth, and in another a Frenchman. The food of the people consists principally of *tortillas* (Indian cakes), plaintains, and occasionally fowls and dried venison. Their property is mainly in cattle, of which she saw many fine herds. At one village they were holding their annual *fiesta*, the chief features of which were a bull chase (the bull belonging to the captor) and the graceful *ronda* of the muleteers, so called "because the dancers are surrounded by their mules, which are all decked with their gayest trappings; some of these bearing panniers, sometimes filled with flowers, sometimes filled with babies." The Hondurians spoke very bitterly of the railway built by the English some years ago from Puerto Cortez on the Atlantic coast about a hundred miles into the interior. Many were led to invest in it and were utterly ruined by its failure, which was caused, they say, "by British mismanagement and not by ours." The greater part is unserviceable, and on that which is in working order trains run at intervals of a few days. The people are now looking eagerly to the United States for help. "We are hoping now for brighter days," said a cheery Spanish landlady. "America is bringing in both labor and money." A contract for the navigation of the Ulua, granted not long ago to two Americans, gives some ground for this hope.

Weird Tales. By R. T. W. Hoffmann. A new translation by J. T. Bealby. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE disadvantages to which writers of short stories, as a class, are subject, disappear with authors whose forte is the description of the abnormal and grotesque. Poe is an instance of the popularity which such writers may enjoy for more than one generation; and so, perhaps, in a greater degree, is his prototype Hoffmann, whose tales have been translated, some of them, hundreds of times. Carlyle wrote, in 1827, that Hoffmann belonged to that class of "vivid and gifted literary men whose genius, never cultured or elaborated into purity, finds loud and sudden, rather than judicious or permanent, admiration." As a prophecy, this characterization is a failure; but there can be no doubt of its soundness as criticism. The present collection contains only twelve out of a total of fifty-two tales—the same number and, generally, the same stories as were embraced in the Boston edition of 1855. As regards the English, the new translation is commonplace, but has the advantage of being made from the original instead of through the French. But the memoir of the author, which fills sixty-seven pages, appears to have been purely perfunctory, and is very shabby reading after Carlyle's admirable, though brief, article.

Poems, Plays, and Miscellaneous Essays of Charles Lamb. With introduction and notes by Alfred Ainger. London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 8vo, pp. xxiii,-408.

To Mr. Ainger we are already indebted for the sympathetic monograph on Lamb in Mr. Morley's "English Men of Letters" series, and for admirable editions of the 'Tales from Shakspere' and the 'Essays of Elia.' In the present volume he has collected all of Lamb's other prose and verse of which the author himself or his literary executors authorized the collection; so that the possessor of this volume and of Mr. Ainger's edition of the 'Essays' has Lamb's complete works, so far, at least, as Lamb himself knew them. Mr. Ainger rightly holds that an author's wishes have some title to an editor's regard; and although he does not think that the world will willingly let die even the smaller scraps that fell from Lamb's table, he prefers to gather up these minor odds and ends in a volume apart and distinct from the regular works. After he has edited this supplemental volume of Eliana, we understand that he intends to prepare a complete collection of Lamb's letters—a service for which all lovers of Lamb will be duly grateful to him, seeing that none of the existing collections is either accurate or complete. In the notes to this, as to the preceding volume, Mr. Ainger has rescued from fugitive MSS. more than one of Lamb's epistles as characteristic as anything in the 'Essays of Elia.' Our editor's notes are models. In that to Lamb's paper on Wither, a poet whom he affected greatly, Mr. Ainger tells us that the paper was originally a series of marginal notes on a copy of Wither's 'Philarete,' now in the possession of Mr. Swinburne. The note to "Mr. H." sets forth the true reason of its failure in London, and records its success in the United States. In the introduction is given a poem of Lamb's hitherto unprinted. It only remains to say that the poems have been arranged for the first time in strict chronological order, and that the text, everywhere, has been carefully revised.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badeau, Gen. A. Military History of Ulysses S. Grant. From April, 1861, to April, 1865. In 3 vols. D. Appleton & Co.
Barrows, Isabel C. Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, Eleventh Annual Session, St. Louis, 1884. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Behrens, Dr. J. W. The Microscope in Botany. Illustrated. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.
Buckley, Dr. J. M. Oats or Wild Oats? Common-Sense for Young Men. Harper & Brothers.
Cox, Sir G. W. Lives of Greek Statesmen. Solon to Themistocles. Harper & Brothers.

New Books.

MILITARY MANNERS AND Customs. By J. A. Farrer, author of 'Primitive Manners and Customs.' 12mo, $1.50.

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Says the *Literary World:* "Miss Guiney is a native of Boston, a daughter of the late General Guiney. Her friends recognize in her intellectual character many of her father's brilliant traits. Her poetic gifts and acquirements are rare, while her insight and power of expression in prose are equalled by very few living writers."

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ROBERTS BROTHERS,
BOSTON.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 7, 1885.

The Week.

THERE seems to be an impression afloat at the South that certain Mugwumps at the North are opposing vigorously, or are prepared to oppose vigorously, the clearing out of the Republican officials at the South, and especially in Virginia, by the present Administration. The Atlanta *Constitution* has a long article in a recent issue, intended to convince the said Mugwumps of the unsoundness of their position. Our answer is that we know of no such Mugwumps in this region. In our own opinion, often expressed, something like "a clean sweep" at the South, beginning with Virginia, is not only to be desired, but is the duty of the Administration. The Federal service in that quarter is and has been for twenty years utterly corrupt and corrupting, the Mahone part of it being the worst of all. To purge it thoroughly is one of the things for which President Cleveland was elected.

The Lawton incident has developed one feature which is both interesting and encouraging. Lawton is a Southern man, whose eligibility for Federal office was passed upon and decided affirmatively by an Attorney-General from the South. It was natural to suppose that the South would unquestioningly sustain Mr. Garland's decision, and Northern people expected to find his action heartily endorsed in that part of the country. Yet the fact is that, from the moment when the question was first raised, the stoutest advocate in the press of the view that the Fourteenth Amendment was an effectual bar to Lawton's appointment has been that prominent Southern Democratic journal, the Richmond (Va.) *Dispatch*, which now expresses its regret that the new Attorney-General "has gone astray from the right path of constitutional construction." Moreover, the *Dispatch* has not been alone among Southern newspapers in taking this position, which has been maintained by other journals of standing and influence. Considering all the motives which tend to make the South a unit in supporting the law officer of a Democratic Administration in such a matter, this division of sentiment on the question is an exceedingly hopeful sign. When representative Southern journals sustain the Fourteenth Amendment in this vigorous fashion, the country is furnished convincing evidence that the fruits of the war are safely garnered.

The recent decision of the Supreme Court in the Virginia coupon cases also illustrated the same tendency toward a breaking down of the partisan line in the consideration of broad issues. The question of State rights in its most extreme form was directly involved in this matter, and it might have been expected that the strong Republican bias of our highest bench would have produced a close approach to unanimity against the traditional Democratic side of that issue. It certainly might have been supposed that the one representative of the Democratic party in the court would plant himself firmly upon the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution, which exempts a State from suit. In point of fact, Judge Field took the contrary ground, while it was from the lips of a Republican judge, speaking for three party associates as well as himself, that there issued a rather heated protest against the attempt of the majority of the court to treat the Eleventh Amendment "as a mere jingle of words, to be slurred over by cunning subtleties and artificial methods of interpretation, so as to give it a literal compliance, without regarding its substantial meaning and purpose." Entirely aside from the question as to whether the majority or the minority of the bench had the best of the argument in this matter, the fact that the division was not along party lines is matter for congratulation. Like the Southern dissent from Mr. Garland's decision, it indicates a disposition to regard new issues as they arise from an independent point of view, rather than to be governed by some ancient tradition, which is full of encouragement.

The latest "Democratic outrage" reported from Washington is found in the announcement that the clerks in the Pension Office did more work during April than in any previous month in its history, the increase amounting to an addition of nearly one-half, with the same force as before. There has never been any doubt among well-informed people that the average amount of work turned off every day by a Government clerk fell far below not only what he should accomplish, but also what the employee of any private establishment would have to render on penalty of dismissal for inefficiency; and this change in the Pension Office demonstrates the fact. The trouble was, that under the spoils system the political "striker" who forced his patron to give him a place in one of the departments, knew that he could keep it so long as his Senator or Representative backed him, even if he were lazy and negligent, and so he had no incentive to do his best. Now, on the other hand, the clerk is well aware that he is watched by a critical eye, and that incompetency will lead to his discharge, and so he goes to work in the same way as a man who wants to keep his place in a private business establishment. An incidental element in producing this better showing is the operation of the Civil-Service Law, which has been the door through which a considerable percentage of the present employees in the Pension Office reached their desks, and which has thus sensibly raised the level of ability.

Attorney-General Garland can hardly render the country a greater service than by perfecting and submitting to Congress the revision of the whole system for administering justice in the District of Columbia, which he is said to have in hand. There is no part of the country where such antiquated legal forms are to be found in common use, or where the statutes for the punishment of all sorts of crimes, from a bar-room murder to a wide-reaching conspiracy for defrauding the Government of millions, are in a more hopeless tangle. Causes of the greatest national importance are constantly brought before the courts of the capital, and yet, between the involved condition of such laws as exist and the wretched way in which juries are impanelled, miscarriage of justice has come to be the rule. The matter has reached the proportions of a national scandal during the last few years, and the present Administration will secure a strong claim to popular favor if it shall put an end to it.

The idea of choosing a Minister to China from the Pacific States is open to the serious objection that the Chinese Government holds the same opinion of all Californians that the Italian Government holds of all Ultramontanes. The most gentle Californian politician is in their eyes more obnoxious than the most abandoned ruffian from the Atlantic slope. He is associated, in their conceptions, with every sort of persecution, legal and illegal, of the hapless Chinese immigrants to this country. An Eastern man holding identically the same views on that subject will have a much better standing at Peking, and will be in much better position to take advantage of the slowly awakening spirit of the Empire, and to push American interests and American commerce in that important quarter of the globe. Any diplomatic representative who goes to China with a preconception of the inferiority of the Mongolian race, or who is believed to entertain such prejudices, will be handicapped from the outset, and will handicap all the interests of his country in the great trans-Pacific empire. What these interests are, may be inferred from the fact that China is in want of all the appliances of modern civilization, and that we are nearer to her than any other country capable of furnishing them. Hitherto her rulers have repelled the ingress of railroads, telegraphs, labor-saving machinery and implements, through fear of foreign domination and possible social revolution. Latterly these fears have been subsiding. The advantages gained over Russia in the Kuldja dispute, and more recently in the controversy with France, have raised the spirit of self-reliance and self-confidence among her rulers in a remarkable degree, and disposed them to look with more favor and less fear upon Western civilization.

In the years anterior to our anti-Chinese legislation the United States occupied the place of the most favored nation in the counsels of the Celestial Empire. Our ministers had the ear of the Government. Our engineers, our sailors, our soldiers, our merchants, and our instructors were the favorites of the court, and the confidential advisers of the official class. We had had no opium war with them; we held no possessions in contiguity with theirs; we had no burning reminiscences of any kind and no trade rivalries to bar the way to a thoroughly good understanding. American capital controlled the coastwise traffic of the Empire. American captains commanded the steam fleet on the inland waters American professors were in demand for Chinese colleges, and American colleges were sought by

Chinese students. American officers were wanted for Chinese armies. American trade was increasing and prospering in a market of 400,000,000 consumers. All this has been changed. Among the adverse influences which have conspired to place us in a position inferior to both England and Germany, nothing has been so baleful as the treatment accorded to Chinese immigrants and the disabilities imposed upon them by our laws. It is perhaps idle to look for any speedy change in the current of political opinion which shall ameliorate the condition of this class among us, or remove the stamp of degradation which we have set upon them; but we ought not to remind them of these things by sending to Peking a Minister whose very domicile is detestable to them, and whose home atmosphere is redolent of every species of outrage and humiliation upon them.

The troubles of Mr. Keiley seem to have no end. When he found himself in the Papal frying-pan he jumped into the Confederate fire, where he now is. But here he has been attacked by the *Catholic Mirror*, for putting himself in opposition to all the great authorities of the Catholic Church in holding that the Pope's claim to Rome has been destroyed by a popular vote. The poor man does not seem to have known that no vote, even about the proprietorship of territory, can stand against a Papal allocution. Moreover, he is required to believe that, in spite of the French occupation of Rome for twenty years, the Romans liked Papal rule. The only consolation we can offer Mr. Keiley is that there never was a more academical discussion than this about the Papal sovereignty, and that no matter what the Church doctors say, it will never be restored. The Papal lamentations about it will probably be kept up for some years longer, but they will gradually die out.

The *Herald* publishes a copy of the oath taken by James M. Morgan, our gallant Consul-General at Melbourne, when he was appointed acting midshipman in the navy on the 24th of October, 1860. This oath was in the usual form administered to army and navy officers, and contained the words: "that I will support the Constitution of the United States." Unless, therefore, Mr. Morgan's disabilities have been removed by a vote of two-thirds of Congress, he is disqualified from holding the office to which he has been appointed, or any other office under the United States. That his disabilities have not been removed must be inferred from the fact that the Charleston *News and Courier*, whose editor desires to be held solely responsible for Mr. Morgan's appointment, when asked for some explanation as to the oath and the disability, replied that no such oath was required of midshipmen in the year 1860, and that none was taken by Midshipman Morgan. The production of the oath itself, with the attestation of a justice of the peace at Annapolis, Maryland, is conclusive upon that point. If the disability had been removed, the editor of the *News and Courier* would undoubtedly have mentioned that interesting fact. If Mr. Morgan is still under disability, he will assuredly not be confirmed. The Senate has drawn a hard and fast line against that class of candidates, and it is not likely to make any exceptions in favor of the Blaine pamphleteers in the late campaign.

The principles of civil-service reform are steadily gaining ground in the filling of State as well as national offices. Two rather notable victories have been won within a few weeks in Pennsylvania. That State has now the first Democratic Governor for a quarter of a century, and plenty of old fogies in his party expected and desired that, whenever the term of a Republican office-holder by executive appointment expired, he would immediately name a "good Democrat" for the vacancy. But Governor Pattison has quite another idea of his duty in such cases. When he found that he must appoint a Superintendent of Public Schools, he looked into the matter, found that the man selected by his Republican predecessor had been an exceedingly capable and faithful official, and could do better work in the future than any new man, and so he named him for another term. When the Insurance Commissioner's term expired, he made a similar examination with a similar result, and he reappointed him also. There are doubtless a number of palæozoic politicians who think that the Governor might have "vitalized" the Democracy by giving these places to a brace of disreputable political hacks like Pillsbury; but Mr. Pattison is a young man and appreciates the fact that the world has changed somewhat since the days before the flood.

The Buffalo Common Council struck from the city estimates sent in by the Mayor an item of $1,250, for the expenses of executing the Civil-Service Act in the municipal service. They did not consider the item at all, but rejected it summarily, for the avowed purpose of defeating the law, being still the same unprincipled and shameless plunderers they were when Mayor Cleveland had to deal with them, and gave them his opinion of them in very plain English. A mandamus was then obtained directing them "to consider the item in good faith, with sound judgment and discretion, and if any misapprehension had intervened in its amount to correct it and apportion it to the probable necessities of the service for which it was designed," but admitting their authority "to alter or amend the estimate, extend, modify, or limit it." Of this authority the Common Council has now availed itself by cutting the estimate down, by a two-thirds vote, to $200, which is of course utterly insufficient to carry the law into effect. The rascals have thus "euchred," to use their own phrase, the civil-service reformers. These gentlemen, however, as well as the decent people of Buffalo generally, will find, as New Yorkers have found, that there is only one way of dealing with Aldermen and Common Councilmen in American cities in our day, and that is to take away from them all power over municipal expenses, and over appointments to office.

The Ohio Legislature, which expired on Monday, was one of the worst in the history of the State. It was the creation of the McLean political ring in Cincinnati and the Standard Oil monopoly, and almost to the last it was their faithful servant. At its first session it contemptuously cast aside George H. Pendleton, for the avowed reason that he had been untrue to his party in pressing the Civil-Service Reform Bill, and elected to the Senate the superannuated but wealthy Payne, after a canvass redolent of corruption. During the session just expired the Democratic majority passed a number of outrageously partisan measures intended to capture the political control of the chief cities—measures so bad that the Supreme Court, now in Democratic hands, was compelled to pronounce them unconstitutional—while the liquor interest had power enough to prevent the passage of any bill to take the place of the Scott Law taxing saloons, which the Democratic majority of the Supreme Court had declared null and void. Yet public opinion was potent enough to affect even such a body, which in its last hours did the State a great service by passing a comprehensive and apparently effective registry law applying to the cities of Cincinnati and Cleveland. For many years the elections in these places have been characterized by glaring frauds, which culminated in such open and shameless performances at the local contest in Cincinnati last month, that all honest men demanded safeguards against their recurrence. It is extraordinary and discreditable that a great State like Ohio should have gone on so long without even a pretence of a registry law, and it is scarcely less surprising that the duty of providing such a measure should have been neglected by so many Republican Legislatures, to be finally performed by the Democrats.

The recent local elections in Illinois possess a general interest in the evidence which they furnish of the growing faith in the high-license system as the best method of dealing with the liquor problem. The State has now tried for about two years a law which allows the fee for licenses in cities to be fixed at any sum from $500 to $1,000, and in the greater number of places where the issue was raised this spring the voters decided in favor of high figures. The Prohibitionists made a further exhibition of the folly which always leads them to oppose any practicable measure for checking intemperance, and struck hands with the lower class of saloon-keepers in voting for a nominal prohibition, which everybody knows cannot be enforced. In two or three places this curious combination was successful in defeating the restriction of high-license and providing for the reign of "free rum," which is certain to ensue; but in most cases the best elements of both parties united in supporting a system the wisdom of which has already been abundantly vindicated. Laws based upon the same principles have worked equally well in Michigan, Missouri, and other States in that section, and there is a good prospect that the high-license system will before long prevail generally throughout the West. There is no other part of the country where it could be applied to greater advantage than in New York, and yet the Legislature of this State seems more likely than not to relax still further the mildness of the present excise law.

The liquor problem is the burning issue in Massachusetts just now. The Bay State followed the example of Maine in making trial of the prohibitory theory, but it proved such a

failure and scandal in practice as to produce a political revolution in 1874. The Republicans in that year nominated a strong prohibitionist for Governor, while the Democrats chose a believer in license, and for the first time in more than a quarter of a century the Democratic candidate was elected. With him came into power a Legislature which repealed the prohibitory law, and substituted a system which allowed each city or town to decide by popular vote whether the sale of liquor should be licensed, and, if so, to determine through its municipal authorities how many licenses should be granted. During the ten years since this system was introduced, there has been great diversity in its application even to the same city, many places having voted one year in favor of license, the next against, and so on. Experience has conclusively proved that a rigorous application of the license plan is far more effective as a restriction upon drunkenness than a prohibitory law which public sentiment will not support; but the difficulty is to secure uniformity in such application. Just now there is a decided drift toward indiscriminate license. Thus Springfield, which began in 1875 with 158 licenses, and reduced the number by 1881 to 67, has, after a year of "no-license," gone to the other extreme and granted the prayer of all but a dozen of the 175 applicants, including a number who have been convicted of violating the law in past years. This is at the rate of one dealer for every 225 inhabitants, and the proportion is almost as great in several other large places in that part of the State, while many smaller towns have this year for the first time voted in favor of license. It would not be strange if the result should be a reaction in public sentiment which will enable the prohibitionists to succeed in their next annual attempt to secure from the Legislature another trial of their hobby, little as the cause of temperance would have to hope for from such a result.

The Civil-Service Reform Association is making an effort to arouse public sentiment against the Earl bill, which is pending in the Senate, having been pushed through the Assembly, although adversely reported from the Judiciary Committee. It is the old trick over again of trying to break down the civil-service regulations by getting an exemption for soldiers and sailors. "It proposes," say the Association, in a circular just sent out, "to allow heads of departments to fill the offices under them without regard to civil-service rules, provided they select men who served as soldiers or sailors in the late war. Under the mask of a patriotic discrimination in their favor, it is in reality utterly hostile to the vast majority of veterans, for it will deprive them of the positive advantages guaranteed by the present law. As the law now stands, every honorably discharged soldier or sailor is given a preference over other competitors of equal grade. Under the proposed change no ex-soldier or sailor, however great his services or ability, will be given a chance to secure a place unless backed by political influence. As there are probably more than ten times as many veterans as there are offices covered by the act (less than 13,000 in the whole State), it is plain to see that the object of the bill is to break down civil-service reform, by letting the Machine bosses fill every office with those of their henchmen who may have served in the war, to the exclusion of every other veteran who has not made politics a trade."

The lengthy pronunciamiento which was formulated at the recent conference of the Mormon Church, and was read at all the tabernacles in Utah, Idaho, and Arizona on Saturday, sounds more like a wail of despair than like the cry of boastful rejoicing which the country has grown accustomed to hear from that quarter. Its very tone shows that the leaders have lost much of their former confidence, and are seriously troubled over the prospect for the future. The explanation is not far to seek. Within a few weeks the Supreme Court of the United States has rendered two exceedingly important decisions. The one, while overruling certain actions of the Commissioners appointed under the Edmunds act, expressly sustained the constitutionality of that statute, and specifically affirmed the right of the general Government to modify or abridge the political rights of citizens of a Territory, to the end of developing it into a State founded upon the modern idea of the family relation. The other sustained the local Federal courts in excluding polygamists from grand and petit juries, and thereby securing the convictions of Mormon offenders by Gentile juries. Under this latter ruling the sentence of one dignitary of the Church to a term in the penitentiary has been reaffirmed, and within the past few weeks a number of others high in official rank have either been convicted, or have confessed judgment without risking a trial, while still others have sought safety in flight.

It is announced that the negotiations which had for some time been pending between France and Mexico for the establishment of a commercial treaty, are completely broken off. Coming so soon after the inaugural address of President Diaz, in which he expressed confidence that the treaty would be satisfactorily arranged, this is something of a surprise. Yet the *Diario Official* makes it clear that the positions of the two Governments were such that no agreement could be reached. France insisted that the treaty should be merely provisional, for an indefinite time, and voidable at the option of either country. She also made it a *sine qua non* that goods arriving in French bottoms should be placed on an equality with those imported in Mexican vessels. Mexico was willing to concede neither of these points, and besides felt obliged to offer no advantage to France which would conflict with any of the franchises conceded to the United States in the treaty recently ratified with that country. These obstacles proved insurmountable, and the French Minister showed that he considered the matter at an end by leaving the country. In connection with the question of Mexican commerce is to be noted the rapid decadence of the port of Vera Cruz. This is partly relative, since the immense importations of railway material have naturally fallen off almost altogether; but it is also absolute on account of the increasing competition of the American railway system and the diversion of ocean freights to the northern Gulf ports. This last is not to be wondered at, considering the extraordinary disadvantages under which vessels unloading at Vera Cruz have to labor. To the dangers of a stormy coast and an unsafe harbor the Mexican officials, not content with providing the most inadequate facilities for getting merchandise on shore, have added such petty and vexatious exactions as to make the chief port of entry of the republic the bane of shippers and sea captains alike. Nothing but the certain loss of commercial supremacy, unless some vigorous effort were to be made to retain it, could have induced the authorities to undertake the repair and enlargement of the harbor and the building of wharves, in accordance with the plans of Captain Eads, a work which now is languishing along in true Mexican style. But it is doubtful if these measures, adopted all too late, will prevent Tampico or some other port from ultimately drawing off the greater part of the ocean commerce.

We do not know that there is any good reason for giving out that Great Britain is likely, in the impending war with Russia, to resort to "paper blockades" and "to declare the Baltic closed," except the desire to attract attention to journalistic observations on a dry subject. This must be the excuse for a somewhat absurd article on this subject in the *Herald* last week. Great Britain has never taken any ground in favor of paper blockades since 1806, and is never likely to do so. Her interests as the greatest commercial as well as naval Power in the world are all on the side of the doctrine that "blockades must be effective." To advocate anything else would be to give weak naval Powers the right to do by mere proclamation what ought to be done by great fleets. Moreover, the rule that blockades must be effective was definitely laid down in the Treaty of Paris, and adhered to by Great Britain, in 1856. Even if she were disposed to revive paper blockades, it would be absurd to irritate neutrals by trying to do so now, inasmuch as the effective blockade of the Russian trading ports of importance is very easy. Consequently, Mr. Bayard's notification to the Colombian Government that he will not permit it to blockade its own ports on paper simply, though timely and proper, has no importance with regard to the coming conflict in Europe, and was not intended to have. If "it has already been reported from London that the British Government will declare the Baltic to be closed," the reporter being on his own showing an ignoramus, our esteemed contemporary may save itself the trouble of writing editorial articles on his sayings. The Powers owning the shores of the Baltic have claimed the right to close it to belligerent vessels when none of themselves is engaged in hostilities, but no outsider has ever put forward the pretension that he might either close it or declare it closed. The Black Sea was neutralized by the Treaty of Paris, but Russia broke this up, and reasserted her right to build fortresses on its shores, and keep a navy in it, in 1871. The Sultan has still the right to prevent war vessels from passing the Dardanelles, but he can always yield to superior force under protest, and this he will undoubtedly do in the present case. That is, he will allow England to pass the Dardanelles, because she can do him most damage if he refuses.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 29, to TUESDAY, May 5, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Thursday appointed Anthony M. Keiley, of Richmond, Va. (first appointed to the Italian Mission), to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Austria-Hungary. On Friday he appointed John Goode, of Virginia, to be Solicitor-General, vice Samuel F. Phillips, resigned (Mr. Goode is a vigorous anti-Mahone Democrat); William M. Merrick, of Maryland, to be an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, vice Andrew Wylie, resigned; Thomas M. Ferrall to be Collector of Internal Revenue for the First District of New Jersey, in place of William P. Tatem, suspended; and George Hayes to be Supervising Inspector of Steam Vessels for the Fifth District, in place of Mark D. Flower, suspended.

The President on Saturday appointed J Ernest Meiere, of Colorado, to be Consul of the United States at Nagasaki, Japan. Dr. Meiere was formerly a lieutenant in the Marine Corps. In 1861 he married a daughter of Commodore Franklin Buchanan. He was a Confederate soldier during the war, and afterward became a physician.

In view of the excellent records of the following consuls, the President has decided that they shall be retained: W. F. Grinnell at Bradford, England; Lyell T. Adams at Geneva; Samuel W. Dabney at Fayal.

President Cleveland recently said to a caller that all the mistakes of the Administration thus far could be directly attributed to yielding to the pressure for speedy action on appointments; that he had four years in which to transact the business before him, and he did not propose to be forced into inconsiderate action.

It is reported that when Mr. Keiley discovered that he could not be commissioned Minister to Italy he made an earnest plea to be sent as Consul-General to Paris. This was refused. There are said to be nearly one hundred applications for this position.

President Cleveland went to Gettysburg on Monday to attend a reunion of the Army of the Potomac.

The Mormon authorities have forwarded to the President a declaration of grievances and protest against the arrest and conviction of Mormons on the charge of unlawful cohabitation. Among other things they say: "We protest against unfair treatment on the part of the general Government. We protest against a continuance of territorial bondage, subversive of the rights of freemen and contrary to the spirit of American institutions. We protest against special legislation, the result of popular prejudice and religious interference. We protest against the conscience of one class of citizens being made the criterion by which to judge another. We protest against the breaking up of family relations formed previous to the passage of the Edmunds law, and the depriving of women and children of the support and protection of their husbands and fathers. We protest against the prosecution of persons, many of whom are infirm and aged, who entered into plural marriage before it was declared a crime, and have never violated any law."

United States Treasurer Jordan has already convinced his subordinates that he means to conduct his office upon business principles. He has requested the chiefs of divisions to notify their subordinates that he does not intend to make any changes for political reasons, and that efficiency will be the condition of their tenure.

The public-debt statement for April was issued in both the old and new forms. According to the old form, the reduction in the debt during April amounted to $5,464,596 38, while in the new form the amount of reduction is placed at $4,837,339 71. This discrepancy, amounting to $627,256 67, is due to the fact that in the new form two items, accrued and unpaid April interest on Pacific Railroad bonds, amounting to $298,037 56, and the amount of increase during the month in fractional and minor coins, aggregating $329,219 11, are treated, the first as liabilities, and the latter as assets unavailable for debt reduction.

A decision rendered by the United States Supreme Court on Monday affirms the decision of Judges Withey and Hammond of the Circuit Court, holding that the State of Tennessee and not certain railroad companies is liable for a large part of the State debt.

A settlement of the trouble at Panama was arranged on Wednesday by the Consular Corps in conjunction with Admiral Jouett, Commander McCalla, Aizpuru, the insurgent chief, and Colonels Montoya and Reyes, commanding the Colombian troops. Aizpuru surrendered, and promised, together with his followers, to retire from the city. According to the treaty agreed upon, the city, with all the revolutionary armament, was delivered over to the Government troops, under command of Colonel Reyes, on Thursday. Colonel Montoya assumed the civil and military Governorship of Panama until the reorganization of the State Government. All political offenders received full pardon, excepting those implicated in the recent burning of Colon. These latter will be apprehended and tried as criminals. The programme was carried out in an orderly manner, and the revolution was ended.

Admiral Jouett went to Colon on Friday. The contingents from the Pacific and North Atlantic fleets have returned to their ships. A detachment of the First Battalion, under Colonel Heywood, will remain at Panama until peace and good government shall have been assured.

Governor Hill, of this State, has vetoed the Census Appropriation Bill, holding that the census should be a mere enumeration of the inhabitants, and saying: "The responsibility for any failure to carry out the constitutional provision for an enumeration of the inhabitants must rest upon that branch of the Government which seeks, not to provide for an enumeration, but to impose on the people a collection of statistics which is elaborate, costly, and useless." It is said in the office of the Secretary of State that this veto will prevent the taking of the census. On Thursday Governor Hill signed the Niagara Park Bill, about which there had been much uneasiness.

In the Assembly at Albany on Thursday the Gas Bill was defeated by 52 to 64.

Superintendent of Prisons Baker transmitted to the Assembly on Monday night a communication showing the necessity of a further appropriation of $200,000 for the fiscal year in order to run the prisons.

The Buffalo Common Council on Thursday had a long fight over the estimate of $1,250 for the support of the City Civil-Service Commission. A mandamus had been granted ordering them to make the appropriation. They voted 18 to 8 to make the appropriation $200, and so virtually defeated the civil-service reformers.

The monument commemorative of Edgar Allan Poe, which has been erected in the Poets' Corner of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in this city, was unveiled with appropriate exercises at 3 o'clock on Monday afternoon. Algernon S. Sullivan, Edwin Booth, L. P. di Cesnola, and William Winter took part in the ceremony.

J. R. Osgood & Co., the Boston publishers, made an assignment on Monday. Liabilities $150,000.

General Grant continues to improve in health, and has resumed work on his book.

Gen. Irvin McDowell died in San Francisco on Monday night. He was born in Franklin County, O., October 15, 1818, and was graduated at West Point in 1838. He served in the Mexican war, being brevetted captain for his conduct at the battle of Buena Vista. At the beginning of the civil war he was engaged in organizing troops at Washington, but in May, 1861, he was appointed Brigadier-General of Volunteers and placed in command of the Army of the Potomac. He commanded the Federal forces at the first battle of Bull Run, and later was placed in command of the defences of Washington and commissioned as a Major-General of Volunteers. He engaged in the operations in northern Virginia, took part in the pursuit of General Jackson, and under Pope was present at the second battle of Bull Run. From July, 1864, to June, 1865, he was in command of the Department of the Pacific, and in the latter year was brevetted Major-General in the United States army. He was retired several years ago.

Commodore Cornelius K. Garrison died in this city on Friday afternoon. He was born on March 1, 1809, at Fort Montgomery, N. Y., where he received a very limited education. The foundation for his immense fortune was laid in San Francisco and the West, where he engaged in the steamship business. In 1860 the Commodore returned to New York a millionaire, and thenceforth was one of the foremost capitalists of the metropolis. He bought and built ships and invested capital in real estate, railroads, and telegraphs. At the outbreak of the rebellion he took a conspicuously patriotic stand for the Union. His ships were placed at the service of the Government, and he contributed largely to the raising and equipment of troops. He made an assignment about a year ago, but his estate proved to have a large surplus.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night the budget for 1885 was submitted. Last year the total revenue was £88,043,000, and the total expenditures were £89,092,000. The estimated expenditures for 1885-6 were £88,872,000, not including the vote of credit. With the income tax at 5d. in the pound sterling, the total revenue would be £85,180,000. There would be a reduction in the revenue of £40,000 on sixpenny telegrams. The deficit Mr. Childers estimated at £3,732,000, and, adding the vote of credit, together with reasonable allowances for supplementary estimates, the total deficit was estimated at £14,922,000. This forecast of the deficit by the Chancellor of the Exchequer created a sensation. It is the largest since the Crimean war. It is proposed to meet it as follows: The increase of the income tax to 8d. will, it is estimated, yield £5,400,000; the modifications of the probate and legacy duties and other property taxes, £150,000; the duties on spirits, £900,000; and the duty on beer, £750,000. Part of the remainder will be met by suspending payments toward the reduction of the national debt, and stopping the sinking fund and terminable annuities. The rest of the deficit, amounting to £2,812,000, will be dealt with next year.

The St. Petersburg *Official Messenger* published the following telegram on Thursday from General Komaroff, despatched from Askabad on March 27: "A telegram forbidding the occupation of Panjdeh reached me on March 23. I only communicated it to commanders of outposts, and did not make it generally known. Colonel Zackrzewski, with my permission, interviewed by correspondence some British officers in a private capacity. I did not admit their right to treat officially. I addressed my demands direct to the commander of the Afghan forces. General Alikhanoff, with a sotnia of Turkomans, rode in the direction of Morkals along the river bank on the Russian side. It was by no means my intention to advance on Panjdeh. To march the sotnia in the rear of 4,000 Afghans was inconceivable. One company of Russians marched on the heights on the right bank of the Murghab River, but did not reach our videttes on the left bank of the same river. When the Afghans approached, however, this

one company, by my order, returned to camp."

The London *Standard* on Friday morning said positively that England had proposed to Russia to submit to any European sovereign for arbitration the simple question whether or not the agreement of the 17th of March, that, pending negotiations, neither Afghans nor Russians should advance or attack, was broken by General Komaroff's attack upon the Afghans at Puli-Khisti. It was also asserted that England had offered to end the dispute by conceding to Russia the Lessar line under a distinct pledge that it shall be the abiding limit of the Russian frontier. Russia was reported as being favorably disposed toward the proposed arbitration. It was believed that the King of Denmark would be chosen.

The London *Standard* on Saturday morning had a despatch from Tirpul, dated April 28, stating that the Russians had occupied Kalaï-Maur, on the Kushk River, about twenty miles south of Panjdeh, and were making a military road from there east to Merutchak, on the Murghab River. The *Daily News* (Government organ) said on the same day, that a special messenger had left St. Petersburg for London with Russia's formal acceptance of England's latest proposals. A London despatch to the Associated Press on Saturday asserted that an agreement has been concluded between the English and Turkish Governments by which the latter will allow British vessels to pass through the Dardanelles in the event of war. In return, Turkey will be allowed to send an expedition to occupy the Sudan by way of Suakim, and England will restore Cyprus to Turkey at the end of five years, and guarantees the integrity of the states of the Porte.

In the House of Lords on Monday afternoon Earl Granville, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, stated that England and Russia had agreed to renew the negotiations in London concerning the Afghan frontier question, and that the details had been arranged for the meeting of the Delimitation Commission. His Lordship said that both England and Russia had agreed that the difficulties which had arisen from the Panjdeh incident should be submitted to "a full investigation and reference to friendly Powers." Both Governments would facilitate the inquiry as much as possible. The Panjdeh district will remain neutral territory during the progress of the negotiations. "The Russian Government," continued Lord Granville, "have stated their readiness to consider the question of withdrawing their troops should the decision of the Afghan Boundary Commission prove to be against them. Any differences that may arise regarding the interpretation of passages in the despatches of the two Governments will be dealt with in a manner consistent with the honor of both countries." Mr. Gladstone made a similar statement in the House of Commons. "Russia," added the Premier, "has expressed herself as willing to agree to a removal of the Russian outposts." These statements were regarded as a complete assurance of peace. In London the announcement was received with general satisfaction. It was considered a slight to Sir Peter Lumsden.

After Mr. Gladstone's announcement in the House of Commons on Monday, the vote of credit was immediately called up. Lord Randolph Churchill, the young Conservative leader, immediately made a savage speech against the Government. He argued that the announcement just made of an agreement with Russia was a terrible piece of news to those anxious for the security of the Indian Empire. "The Government," he cried, "have made a base, cowardly surrender of every point at issue to Russia! I greatly fear that as a result we have lost India!" He protested against the conduct of the Government in submitting the vote of credit last Monday without giving the slightest indication of their policy and of the exact point at issue with Russia. The latter, he continued, had been for a long time breaking the agreement of 1873 with respect to Central Asia. He declared that the history of Russia's negotiations with England was a record of treachery, fraud, and falsehood. Mr. Gladstone replied that there had been no change in the Government's policy since last Monday, when the House unanimously agreed to the credit. In Mr. Gladstone's judgment, any appearance of hesitation in agreeing to the credit would be a serious public evil. He had no objection to sweeping criticism, but when, happily, there was a prospect of a favorable issue of a difficult crisis, he asked the House not to derogate from what it had already patriotically done. A number of attempts were made to adjourn the debate, the last of the motions being defeated by 164 to 106. The vote of credit was agreed to by 130 to 20, on the understanding that the subject could be still further discussed in Committee of Supply.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday Mr. Gladstone announced that Sir Peter Lumsden, the British Afghan Boundary Commissioner, and Colonel Stewart had been ordered to come home immediately. It was rumored that Lord Dufferin had resigned the Viceroyship of India. Mr. Gladstone explained that Sir Peter Lumsden had not been "recalled" in the diplomatic sense of censure, but had been called home for consultation, as the negotiations were to be conducted with Russia in London. On the other hand, there are rumors that Sir Peter has resigned because his advice has not been followed.

The British Government has been in confidential communication with Austria respecting the policy of the latter in the event of war between England and Russia.

Lord Wolseley left Cairo for Suakim on Wednesday.

The *Fortnightly Review* publishes an article by Charles Williams, Sudan correspondent of the London *Chronicle*, which asserts that Sir Charles Wilson could have rescued Gordon on January 24, two days before his death, but that he wasted precious time, although urged by the commander of Gordon's Nile fleet to hasten on to Khartum.

Nubar Pasha, Prime Minister of Egypt, has formally apologized to M. Tallandier, the French Chargé d'Affaires at Cairo, and the *Bosphore Égyptien* incident is considered ended. It was explained in the House of Commons on Monday that the Government found on investigation that the suppression of that paper was not justifiable, and so recommended the apology.

The Inventors' Exhibition was successfully opened in London on Monday by the Prince of Wales.

Whistler, Sargent, Alexander Harrison, and Frank Boggs are among the Americans represented in the French Salon this year. Thursday was varnishing day. The total number of works exhibited is 5,034, of which 2,488 are oil paintings.

A dinner was given to Mr. Henry Irving in London on Wednesday at the Criterion. Many notable guests were present. The Earl of Wharncliffe presided. Mr. Irving, in his speech, paid a warm tribute to America.

Mr. John Ruskin has intimated his intention to resign the Slade Professorship of Fine Arts at Oxford. He will deliver a few farewell lectures.

The London *Standard* editorially urges that a public farewell dinner be given to the retiring American Minister, Mr. Lowell, who has always been ready to preside when pressed by presidents of councils or committees to honor them with his presence, and whose after-dinner speeches were always attractive and genial. There are reports that Mr. Lowell may accept an Oxford professorship.

The Japanese Village Exhibition and Humphrey's Hall, Hyde Park, London, were burned on Saturday. Loss $175,000.

Gen. Brière de l'Isle telegraphs to the French Government from Tonquin that the Chinese are loyally fulfilling the conditions of peace.

Despatches from Tientsin state that the dispute between China and Russia regarding the frontier of Mantchooria has become acute, owing to the non-arrival of the Russian members of the Delimitation Commission and the constant postponement of the date of their arrival at the place of meeting to settle the boundary. The Chinese Commissioners have been ready for the past several months to begin the work of delimitation. Now that the difficulty with France in relation to Tonquin has been settled, China has become more courageous and has demanded that Russia fulfil her part of the agreement. It is said that China has also intimated that she is quite prepared to enforce her claims in regard to the frontier of Mantchooria.

Louise Michel, the Anarchist, refuses to accept a pardon unless as a part of a general amnesty to all political prisoners.

The Rome *Diritto* confirms the statement that Italy delicately hinted that she objected to the nomination of Mr. Keiley as United Minister to Italy.

A new opening has appeared in Mt. Vesuvius near Torre del Greco, from which the lava is abundantly flowing.

Dr. Koch, the German cholera investigator, has been chosen a professor at the University of Berlin.

Dr. Gustavus Nachtigal, the celebrated German traveller, is dead, in his fifty-second year. He died at St. Vincent, on his way to Africa. In 1863 he went to Algeria in search of health. In 1869 he undertook to convey the presents of the King of Prussia to the Sultan of Bornou. He left Tripoli in February, and in the summer following got from Fezzan into the mountain regions of Tibesti, no other European having ever penetrated so far southward. In July, 1870, he returned to Fezzan, after having passed through great dangers, arrived at Bornou and delivered his presents. In January, 1872, he undertook a journey from Kouka in Bornou to Begharmi and the slave-dealing regions south, all unknown ground, on which he made valuable scientific observations. Early in 1873 he set out for Wadai, where the first European ever seen there, Dr. Vogel, had been killed by the King. Dr. Nachtigal crossed this region safely and arrived in Darfur, which he left again just after war had been declared by Egypt, and arrived at Cairo in November, 1874. At the time of his death he was German Consular Commissioner for West Africa.

A number of people in Valencia, Spain, are being inoculated with cholera virus to escape the disease. This inoculation produces a tumor on the patient, who becomes severely prostrated from the effects in about twenty-four hours, but generally recovers entirely within forty-eight hours after the operation. It is believed that the success of the system has been established.

M. Delyannis has formed a new Grecian Ministry.

On Sunday night a fracas occurred between some Jamaicans and national soldiers at Culebra, on the Isthmus of Panama. The latter were disarmed, and afterward retired. After procuring reinforcements they returned and broke into the barracks where the Jamaicans were sleeping, and in the most barbarous manner killed twenty-five of them and wounded twenty others. Only one Colombian was killed and none wounded. The Jamaicans are leaving the Isthmus in great numbers. Their departure will delay the work on the canal. Martial law has been proclaimed on the Isthmus.

News was received on Tuesday that Colonel Otter, with 300 men, had had a severe engagement, near Battleford, on May 2, with Chief Poundmaker's force of 600 Indians, and had lost 8 killed and 12 wounded. The Indians lost about 50. The Canadians were obliged to retire to their barracks. It was a practical defeat.

THE TWO THEORIES.

Mr. Cleveland has now given the country an excellent opportunity to judge as to the relative wisdom of two theories regarding the conduct of the public service. During the first six weeks of his Administration he followed pretty uniformly the principle which controlled his selection of a Cabinet, namely, that capacity and merit—not "claims" and "influence"—should be the governing considerations as between different candidates for office. In the seventh week he made three notable appointments to Internal Revenue Collectorships which were based upon the opposite theory, that partisan service and political backing constitute the proper tests. The distinction between the two theories could not possibly be more sharply drawn than in the appointment of such men as Secretary Endicott and Postmaster-General Vilas in high places, and such men as McMullen, the new Appraiser for the port of New York, in lower places, on the one hand; and the appointment of such men as Pillsbury, Chase, and Troup, on the other hand. The stupidest voter perceives at a glance the difference between the two sorts of selections, and comprehends instantly the diametrically opposite theories upon which they are based.

Consider the matter solely from the party point of view. Here is a Democratic Administration recently installed in power, after the party has been in a minority for a quarter of a century. Its chief is naturally and laudably ambitious to secure for it a further lease of power when, three years hence, it shall appeal for a vote of confidence. In 1888 the record of Mr. Cleveland's Administration will be before the people. The supreme test which it must confront is its ability to command for the Democratic party the support of a majority of the voters in the next Presidential election.

The really practical question, therefore, is this—Will the Administration win larger support by making appointments on the score of merit, or on the basis of "claims"? The answer to this question is found in the reception by the public of nominations which illustrate the two theories. Take the case of Pillsbury, who is made Collector of Internal Revenue for the more important of the two Massachusetts districts. The Bay State gave Garfield 165,205 votes and a clear majority of almost 48,000 over all others in 1880, while Blaine received in 1884 only 146,724 votes in a much larger poll, and fell nearly 10,000 short of a majority. This great change was due to the fact that many thousands of former Republicans, who placed country above party, believed that the Republican candidate last year was unfit to be President, and that the Democratic party under Mr. Cleveland could safely be trusted. A large proportion of these men can be won over to the permanent support of the latter party if they find that better government may be expected from it than from the Republicans, while many of their old associates, who felt compelled unwillingly to vote for Blaine, are in the same condition, now that their apprehensions of some terrible disaster to follow a Democratic victory are already dispelled. At the same time both these classes of voters can be, and will be, held to their old party relations if it shall appear that the success of the Democrats only means the enforcement, by a new set of agents, of the old spoils theory of politics. The selection of so able, liberal, and high-minded a man as Judge Endicott for Secretary of War outlined the policy which would enable a rejuvenated Democracy to make a hopeful fight even in such an old-time "Republican stronghold" as Massachusetts. If the issue between Blaine and Cleveland could have been presented over again a month after inauguration day, the Republican plurality of November, in the opinion of many good judges, would have entirely disappeared. There is just one way to arrest this tide and to set it running in the other direction, and that is to follow up Endicott in the Cabinet with a row of Pillsburys in the local Federal offices. Endicott and Pillsbury admirably represent the opposite political poles. The one irresistibly attracts the great and growing body of independent voters in the State, which is already large enough to hold the balance of power, while the other as inevitably repels it.

It is the same way in Maine. The temporary success of the curious and otherwise inexplicable Fusion movement in that State, a few years ago, was due to Republican disgust with the odious methods of the party Machine far more than to any general acceptance of Greenback doctrines. The strength and persistence of this feeling were forcibly demonstrated by the fact that, despite all his efforts last fall, Maine's Favorite Son received a smaller majority in his own State than Lincoln, Grant, or any other Republican candidate for President, with the single exception of Garfield in the November following the local Fusion victory of September, 1880. There are plenty of former Republicans in Maine who are ready and anxious to exchange the tyranny of Blaineism for a progressive Democracy, but they will not jump from the frying-pan of Republican bossism into the fire of a Democratic ring rule which means the elevation of such political rascals as Chase, who shared with Pillsbury the disgrace of the attempted theft of the State in 1879-'80. An honest, straightforward, business-like Democratic Administration will make Maine a doubtful State; while the building up of a Democratic Machine, with such men as Chase for engineers and stokers, will assure its control to the Republicans.

The same rule holds good in Connecticut. A little body of men in that State has for a dozen years constituted the balance of power, and turned the electoral vote whither they would—in 1876 to Tilden, in 1880 to Garfield, in 1884 to Cleveland. Their ballots were given to Cleveland because they believed that he would appoint to office men of high character and spotless record. Until a fortnight ago he had justified their confidence, and he only needed to keep on in the same way to swell the ranks of these last-year supporters from among those who voted for Blaine. The appointment to a responsible office of a notorious blatherskite, who has been by turns a "labor reformer," Greenbacker, Butler man, and Bourbon Democrat, arrests this tendency; and clear proof that Troup is to represent the local standard of a Democratic Administration will give the Republicans a fine chance to win back the State.

What is true of Massachusetts, Maine, and Connecticut is equally true of the whole country. Whether the Republicans or the Democrats are to carry the next national election depends upon the consideration which party, by its course between now and 1888, will secure the adhesion of the Independent voters. There is, to be sure, a theory that the appointment of the worst sort of Machine politicians will "vitalize" the Democracy, so that it will not need any infusion of fresh blood in order to maintain a vigorous life. The experience of the Republican party, however, conclusively disproves this theory. A Government for the benefit of the politicians never satisfies even the politicians, simply because there are never spoils enough to go around. The result was that before its downfall the Republican party in almost every State was split into two or more factions, which usually fought each other more bitterly than they did the Democrats. The fact that in more than one State the Republicans are to-day congratulating themselves upon their improved chances of victory because they no longer have the offices to quarrel over, is the most eloquent answer that could possibly be made to the plea that patronage will build up a party better than principles.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF THE LATE CAMPAIGN.

An Englishman who landed in this country for the first time in the midst of last year's Presidential campaign, and returned home two months later, has given his "impressions" to the British public in the form of an article in a recent number of the *Fortnightly Review*. Naturally those impressions are somewhat confused. The two months between August and November in any Presidential campaign, and especially in such an unusual one as that of 1884, do not afford the most favorable opportunity for a stranger to gain a clear and accurate idea of how Americans "work their political institutions." Yet this is what the *Fortnightly* observer attempted to do, and the result is a very remarkable article.

His first observation is the familiar one that "one of the great peculiarities of the United States is the absence of any leisure class. Every man is in business; no matter what fortune he may accumulate he continues in business," and at election time "every one is drawn into the fray, and ordinary business is almost at a standstill." Then, too, everybody marches in processions which are beyond compare greater than were ever seen in England. "The whole country is completely organized in military fashion for the purposes of the campaign. Brigades, battalions, troops, and batteries appear as numerous and as fully organized as in Germany when the order for mobilization is issued." It is evident that our observer never had the opportunity of a close inspection of the personnel of a campaign regiment, or stood where he could command an unobstructed view of such a regiment as it turned a corner. "The idea," he says, in summing up on this point, "forcibly presents itself that in the event of any internal disturbance or alarm of attack from without, this elaborate organization would be promptly turned to serious account." A story is told by James Russell Lowell, in his delightful essay on "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago," of a venerable Harvard

President who granted the request of the college militia to go to Boston for a general training, and added, with a twinkle in his eye: "Young gentlemen, have you made arrangements for having your muskets brought home in the evening?" The muskets were the property of the State, and the college was responsible for them. In case a campaign regiment were to be turned to "serious account" against an "internal disturbance" or "attack from without," it would be necessary to provide some means for bringing home the tin battle-axes, pasteboard helmets, and waving white hemp plumes which the mobilized brigades and batteries would carry into the fray.

The first Republican procession of dry-goods men made a great impression upon the visitor, who comments upon it with much shrewdness. There were a thousand of them, he says, and "those in the rear, who were too far from the band to march in time to the music, kept step to shrill and continuous cries of 'J !— G !—Blaine !— O ! — Hi ! — O !—J ! — G !— Blaine !—O !—Hi !—O !' The effect of hundreds of voices repeating this sharp cry was most remarkable, but I should doubt the Republican party having secured a single extra vote by its monotonous repetition or by any other feature of the demonstration." His observation did not go deep enough to discover the fact that this "monotonous repetition" was the beginning and end of the Republican principle at stake in the election.

One of the most lucid passages in the article is that devoted to Tammany and the part played by it in the campaign. We will not attempt to condense this: "As regards the Tammany Hall business, probably no one but a New York wire-puller could understand all the ins and outs of what took place. The most that could be learned by the uninitiated was that the leaders of Tammany Hall, which is a very old political and Democratic club in New York, sought to obtain the support of the managers of the Presidential election in appointing such city officers at the October election as would give them the control of the municipal administration and the valuable patronage connected with it. The position taken up by Tammany evidently puzzled the party leaders." We are unable to see how the "uninitiated" could have hoped to learn more than that, for there are several things in it which even a New York wire-puller never suspected before.

On the question of the use of money in elections, the observer contributes a large amount of new and rather startling information. "The actual purchase for money of single votes" is, he says, "of course useless and unknown," but there are "well-known methods of influencing whole classes and communities." One of these well-known methods is the "River and Harbor Steal," and this is the way in which our observer says that it works:

"Very considerable sums of public money which were some time ago assigned for the improvement of rivers and harbors, were expressly intrusted to individuals who are stated to have employed them solely for the purpose of influencing political votes. This subject was a very favorite one for Democratic journalism; and it was asserted that the Republican managers had promised, if returned to power, a further similar 'steal' to encourage their supporters in certain wavering localities."

The most striking portion of the article is that devoted to the celebrated Gould-Field-Blaine dinner, that followed so closely upon the heels of the Burchard incident with which it is destined to be inseparably linked in political history. The observer has an entirely new theory of this banquet, and we are not prepared to say that it is not the correct one. He declares that instead of the dinner being given to Mr. Blaine by his rich admirers, it was given by Mr. Blaine to them. Here is the notable passage in which this announcement is made:

"Mr. Blaine's personal connection with the railway monopolists was of course made a ground of special attack, and the large grants of public lands made to railway companies by the Republican Government were said to have been awarded for corrupt purposes. Mr. Blaine himself evidently valued the support of the great railway financiers sufficiently to induce him to disregard such insinuations; and he excited public curiosity by a great dinner given at Delmonico's in the end of October to the leading capitalists. New York society was particularly exercised as to Mr. Blaine's object in assembling the great moneyed interest around him at the famous restaurant, and extraordinary statements appeared in the newspapers as to the number of millions represented at the dinner-table. It was maintained by some that the Presidential candidate desired to impress the business community at large by a sign of the confidence reposed in him by his remarkable guests; but the more prevailing and perhaps the more correct idea was that the invitation of the millionaires was simply a little plot to squeeze them for further contributions to the dire necessities of the Republican campaign fund. Speculation was rife as to how the great men took the squeezing and the amount in which each individual was mulcted; and many witticisms were indulged in at their expense, on the supposition that they had all been more or less entrapped by the 'smartness' of the famous J. G. Blaine."

The article concludes with casual and appreciative allusions to the part played in the campaign by Benjamin F. Butler and Belva Lockwood, who are dismissed with the finely comprehensive remark that "they were neither of them of real political importance." The effect of the "impressions" upon the American reader is of wonder, not so much at the amusing mistakes made, as that a stranger could make any accurate observations at such a time.

ARBITRATION.

MR. GLADSTONE has virtually announced that all danger of war has passed, owing to the Russian acceptance of his proposal to refer to the arbitration of some European sovereign—it is rumored the King of Denmark—the question whether the Russians were to blame for the fight at Panjdeh, or in other words, for a violation of the Boundary Convention. It is now said that Russia agrees to arbitration if the question submitted to the arbitrators be, not whether Russia is to blame, but who is to blame for the Panjdeh affair. The matter is one peculiarly suitable for arbitration because the question to be submitted is rather one of self-love, or what is called "honor," than of either loss or gain. It is exceedingly difficult, in the existing condition of human nature, to get two powerful nations to submit to the peaceful decision of a third party any question involving territory or money on a large scale. The success of the plan in the case of the San Juan boundary line was largely due to the smallness and remoteness of the territory in dispute. Its success in the case of the *Alabama* claims was largely due to the openly-expressed American determination to retaliate in kind whenever England was engaged in a foreign war. This weighted English diplomacy heavily in all European complications, and was counted on by her Continental neighbors. To be able to get rid of the danger by payment of a round sum in cash was, therefore, a very valuable opportunity, of which Mr. Gladstone had the wisdom to avail himself. But if the question had been simply and solely whether the United States or Great Britain should pay $15,000,000 in cash, it is very doubtful whether public opinion in England would have sanctioned arbitration. As it was, the Gladstone Ministry was undoubtedly weakened, and its overthrow in 1874 in part caused, by the arrangement.

The great difficulty in the way of settling international disputes by arbitration in Europe to-day is the danger of being thought afraid to fight. This is the almost inevitable concomitant of the military system of the great Powers, and of the extent to which every one of them holds property or dominion of some sort by the strong hand. There is not one of them which is not in possession of something to which its neighbors question its title. To provide for this state of mutual distrust, great armies and fleets are maintained, and in order to keep them in good fighting order every government has to cultivate a condition of military touchiness. If it did not, if it showed readiness to pocket insults and to let small injuries pass without notice, the army and navy would be humiliated and lose heart. It would seem as if the Government dared not use them, and the sympathy of the people with them would be so great that the whole country would be plunged in shame and sorrow. Consequently even the most peace-loving ruler, even a man like Gladstone, when put at the head of an empire which holds millions of people in subjection by the power of the sword, has to put on more or less swagger, and either twist his moustache or pull up his shirt collar when he gets into a dispute with a foreign government about anything. No matter how trifling the matter in controversy may be, policy, or what is called "prestige," compels him to keep telling people that, trifling as it is, he is quite ready to fight over it, if need be, and that the slaughter of tens of thousands of young men, and the waste of millions of treasure, have no more terrors for him than for anybody else. This attitude, too, is forced on him by nearly all foreign critics. As a general rule, neutrals are always in favor of having international disputants go to war, and the neutral press stimulates their animosity by encouragement and taunts. Neutrals like the spectacle of a fight which is going to cost them nothing, and they generally think they will make pots of money out of the belligerents in one way or another. Consequently any sign of unwillingness to fight generally draws forth a shower of jeers, which not only touches the old animal pride of the peace-loving country, but fills its people with a vague fear that if it does not fight now, it will lose its "prestige," and be "put upon" in some dreadful way at a later period. There is no argument which military men use with more effect in getting up wars than this. They always maintain that now is the time to fight, if you want only a little fighting, and at a comparatively small cost. If you do not, they say, the war will be simply

postponed, and will be far more terrible when it comes, because your enemy will probably be reinforced by others who will be led by your pusillanimous conduct on this occasion to believe that you are an easy prey, and that they can, by joining in the attack on you, have some share of the spoils.

Against all these forces Mr. Gladstone has to contend at the present moment. Military opinion is a great social and political force in London and in the House of Commons. In India it is omnipotent. Probably the whole weight of Indian influence on home opinion is thrown to-day on the side not only of war but of speedy war. Moreover, the Conservatives are disposed to consider the proposed arbitration a sort of fraud on them, inasmuch as when they voted the large credit they supposed the Ministry meant to fight; and they maintain that when Mr. Gladstone asked for the money he knew there would be no fight. Accordingly the Tory papers are filled with lamentations over the fresh humiliation of England, and about the drugging of the nation by the Gladstonian rhetoric. It must be remembered that if Russia and England were to fight for five years, they would probably end by calling on some arbitrator to fix the boundary line between the Afghans and the Turcomans. England could not have a boundary line of her own, and then maintain an army on it to see that the Russians did not cross it. In other words, the war would end in just such an arrangement as Gladstone is now making, and everybody would be satisfied with it. But so strong are the barbarous instincts of the race, even among the more civilized nations, that probably a very large proportion of the English people to-day do not like it, simply because it has not been preceded by extensive human slaughter, the burning of large numbers of merchantmen, and the wasting of great tracts of country by fire and sword. They want to see the attention of the civilized world distracted for a year or two from commerce, and art, and science, and literature, and invention, in order to count the mangled corpses on great battle-fields, and rejoice over the number of buildings destroyed and ships sunk. They want to see the Russian clergy thanking Almighty God for the slaughter of so many Englishmen, and the English clergy praying to Him to help the English gunners to kill plenty of Russians with the least possible loss to themselves, and fill the land with widows and orphans whom nobody else will take care of.

THE PULLMAN EXPERIMENT.

Two recently published reports of State Bureaus of Labor and Statistics—those of New Jersey and of Illinois—have inserted as an appendix to the respective volumes a special report on the organization of labor created by the town and works of Pullman, in the vicinity of Chicago. This establishment, representing probably the most notable existing combination of labor and capital in the world, was made the subject of a special examination by the chiefs of thirteen State Bureaus in June, 1884, whose report is annexed to the volumes referred to. Descriptions of the town of Pullman have been made from time to time by many competent writers, one of whom, Mr. R. T. Ely, gave an exceedingly graphic picture in *Harper's Magazine* for February last, accompanied by some philosophical reflections not exactly favorable to the experiment. The report of the bureaus is more thorough and complete than that of Mr. Ely, and differs from the conclusions reached by that gentleman as to the effect upon the laboring classes, and upon the progress of industry, of "a gilded cage" for the workingman as compared with a repulsive and forbidding one.

The population of the town of Pullman consists of 8,513 persons of various nationalities, about one-half being natives of the United States and the remainder from Canada and various countries in Europe. The chief industry of the place is the building of railway cars. The idea at the bottom of the enterprise was neither philanthropy nor avarice, but an intelligent conception that the highest rate of profit for capital was consistent with the highest state of comfort for labor. Conjoined to this idea, and a necessary part of it, was the belief that tasteful houses, clean rooms and streets, good drainage, free libraries, cheap and wholesome amusements, good schools, churches, bazaars, and markets, would attract and retain the best and most intelligent class of workingmen, would lessen the tendency on their part to "strike," and would thus in the long run pay the extra expense involved in providing such unaccustomed luxuries for wage-workers. The result has proved the accuracy of this prevision. Shortly after the heavy expense had been incurred of building a large town on a plan of high architectural merit and "with all the modern improvements," the present business reaction set in. The Pullman Company had no monopoly privileges to give it an advantage in the race of competition with other car builders. It was compelled to meet falling prices and dull times in the same way as other manufacturers. It has had no adventitious aids of any kind. On the other hand, it has had a vastly larger capital to provide dividends upon than any competitor—a capital in bricks and mortar, in plumbing and paving, in decoration of all sorts, in churches and school-houses, in theatres and libraries, and other presumable waste, which no other establishment was encumbered with. If the hard times had pulled down the Pullman Company as a financial enterprise, everybody would have said that its ruin was the natural and inevitable consequence of a chimerical attempt to better the condition of the working classes and to make a great show.

Nothing of the kind has happened. It has borne the strain with entire success, not without difficulty perhaps, but without disturbance and without strikes. It has been compelled to reduce wages, but these reductions have been made upon a presentation of all the facts relating to the state of the markets, the prices obtainable for cars, the cost of raw materials, etc. There has been no intervention of trades unions, no assistance from professional labor reformers and socialist spouters to enable the men to discover their rights. By drawing to his establishment a class of men capable of forming their own opinions as to the state of the markets, and able to understand that the rate of wages is not an arbitrary sum decreed in the counting-room, but the resultant of forces working outside, and beyond the control of either employers or employees, Mr. Pullman has secured himself the first and most important factor in the successful conduct of any business. It is said that the common opinion among the workmen now is, that Mr. Pullman is merely the agent employed by them to secure steady work at such wages as the car-building trade will afford.

It has been no part of Mr. Pullman's plan to furnish anything for nothing. The workmen must pay a rent corresponding to the actual value of their apartments; they must pay for the schooling of their children and for their seats in church, and for their admission to the theatre, and for everything they have and enjoy as much as they would pay anywhere, and as much as the privileges are worth. No sense of obligation rests upon them; they are free to come and go at their pleasure. Only one restriction is imposed upon them—they cannot procure strong drink in the town, and no habitual drunkard is allowed to rent an apartment or to be employed in the place. In view of the great results accomplished, the Commissioners who made the examination last June say that it is a matter of secondary concern whether the experiment is pushed forward another stage, to the end of giving the laborers a share of the profits of the company. So much has been done for them that the future may be trusted to care for itself.

THE LOCALITIES OF AUTHORSHIP.

We suggested in these columns, a few weeks ago, a compilation from travellers' diaries; we would now urge on any one who has a taste for compiling, to make a volume bringing before us the scenes in which famous works have been written. As Mr. Morley has said: "It is always interesting to know the circumstances under which pieces that have moved the world were originally composed"; and often there is a striking dramatic contrast, sometimes a beautiful harmony, between the work itself and the circumstances of its composition, which one finds it worth while to become aware of.

Authors are fond of picturing to us their moments of inspiration, and the records of them are numerous. Those of Rousseau, naturally, are among the foremost, and it was they that occasioned the sentence we have quoted from his biographer. We know how he was walking along the road from Paris to Vincennes one hot summer afternoon, going to visit Diderot, then in prison for his 'Letter on the Blind,' when, seeing in a newspaper the theme proposed by the Dijon Academy, his hitherto unembodied genius instantaneously asserted itself "with a force and confusion that threw me into unspeakable agitation." Diderot, when they met, perceiving his excitement, "I told him the cause of it; and I read him the prosopopœia of Fabricius, written in pencil under an oak. He urged me to give wing to my ideas and to compete for the prize. I did so, and from that moment I was lost. All the rest of my life and my misfortunes were the inevitable result of that hour of bewilderment." In other words, from that moment he was a leader of men.

Of Gibbon, whose great work made him not a leader of men but a master of students, we have perhaps heard quite enough concerning "the moment of conception" and "the hour of my final deliverance"; quite enough about "the ruins of the Capitol," and "the barefooted friars," on the

15th October, 1764, and "the summer-house in my garden," and "the *berceau*, or covered walk of acacias, . . . on the day, or rather night, of the 27th June, 1787, . . . when all nature was silent." But we shall never hear enough of (what he himself does not tell us) the ruffles and powder in which he was wont in his solitude to array himself for the majestic presence of his history—an admirable contrast to the Dominican robes and lamp-lit rooms in which Balzac wrote the "Comédie Humaine"—just as our interest is insatiable in hearing from Mme. de Genlis that Rousseau told her that "he wrote all the letters of Julie on pretty little note-paper with vignettes, which he afterward folded as letters and re-read on his walks with as much delight as if he had received them from an adored mistress." This power of acting his characters to himself reminds one of what was told the other day of Mr. Dickens by his daughter, in an article in the *Cornhill*. She describes being with him, when a child, in his working hours, and seeing him spring up from his writing-table and go to a mirror to bring before himself more vividly, by dispositions of his own face and figure, the looks and ways of the personage he was creating.

But to return to localities. It is interesting to know that George Eliot wrote 'Adam Bede,' full as it is of England, in a foreign land, at Munich; and it is perhaps even more interesting to know that George Sand wrote 'Jacques,' which Lord Acton calls "the most ignominious" of her stories, 'André,' one of the most plaintive of her idyls, and, as she herself described it, "the least complicated and most indolent of fictions," and 'Léone Léoni,' the counterpart of 'Manon Lescaut,' all in Venice in rapid succession. She was there in solitude and desolation; the carnival was roaring and whistling together with the icy wind outside her great dreary apartment in the Palazzo Nasi. She sought by the help of imagination to escape from melancholy, and, she says, "I began at haphazard a romance which opened by a description of the place, of the gayety without and of my solemn apartment"; it was finished in a week, and the breath of her life still quickens it after fifty years.

Passing over the prison within whose walls Bunyan entered into the "large upper-chamber whose window opened towards the sun-rising: the name of the chamber was Peace," let us turn to the poets, and to Burns's exquisite account of the "bonnie, sweet, sonsie lass"—his fellow-laborer in the harvest field in his fifteenth autumn—who, a year younger than himself, first inspired him with love and poetry. "She sang sweetly, and it was her favorite reel to which I attempted" to vent in rhyme the emotion with which "I looked and fingered over her little hand, to pick out the cruel nettle-stings and thistles." The pendant to this, which may be found in Mrs. Burns's account of the circumstances connected with the writing of "To Mary in Heaven," is infinitely touching. She told how, on a frosty autumn evening after a day spent in harvest work, he appeared, as the twilight deepened, to grow "very sad about something," and she found him slowly striding up and down the barnyard contemplating the sky, which was singularly clear and starry. When he entered the house he immediately wrote the verses exactly as they now stand, as if copying from memory—

"Thou lingering star, with lessening ray."

Turning to a lesser man, we know that Lodge, one of the sixteenth-century singers, wrote his fine and glowing lines to "Rosaline" on a voyage to "the islands of Terceras and the Canaries," which gives occasion to Mr. Palgrave to shape a somewhat far-fetched eulogium of them in which "those southern seas" and "the almost contemporary art of Venice" play a rather remarkable part—after a fashion we trust our compiler will not imitate. And the lovers of Spenser are reconciled to the thought of the stately and odorous flower of his great poem growing on the "savadge soyle" of Ireland by the pretty picture he makes, in "Colin Clout's come home again," of reciting his verses to Sir Walter Raleigh:

"Amongst the cooly shade
Of the green alders by the Mullaes shore."

We have gone wandering carelessly through France and England, but our happy compiler should carefully seek out in Italy, Spain, and Germany the self-revelations concerning their works of the creators of the 'Divina Commedia,' 'Don Quixote,' and 'Faust.' With regard to Dante, he might be aided by a dry but interesting little volume by Ampère, 'Voyages Dantesques.' And when he is busying himself with Goethe let him not forget the passage in the 'Italienische Reise' where he speaks of his "griechische Reisegefährtin." "At the Lago di Garda," he says, "while the strong south wind drove the waves against the shore, and I was not less alone than my heroine on the coast of Tauris, I first sketched her in, and carried on the work afterward at Verona, Vicenza, Padua, and most diligently at Venice. Then it came to a standstill, for I was drawn to a new conception, namely, of writing an 'Iphigenia at Delphos,' which I should immediately have done if I had not been prevented by distractions and by a feeling of duty toward the older piece."

THE SPOILS SYSTEM IN FRANCE.

PARIS, April 22.

THE downfall of Jules Ferry took not only France, but Europe, by surprise. Only two days before he fell he had obtained a vote of confidence from the Chamber; he had been in power for two years, and it seemed almost certain that he would continue to remain in power till the dissolution and the general elections. He was negotiating with England on the subject of Egypt; the International Conference on the Isthmus of Suez had just begun its work in Paris, under his presidency. He had succeeded in getting in the diplomatic world a status which none of his predecessors had obtained. Even his enemies were beginning to say that there was more real strength in him, more logic, more character than in Gambetta; he was recognized as one of those leaders who are able to conduct the affairs of a great country. The war against the congregations was almost forgotten, as well as the remodelling of the magistracy and the attack on the principle of the unremovability of the judges. Jules Ferry had imprudently wished to revise the Constitution, but was able to limit the revision within narrow bounds. In every field he seemed to be successful, when the news came to Paris, on a Sunday afternoon, that our troops were in full retreat in Tonquin, General Négrier was wounded, and General Brière de l'Isle telegraphed that he *hoped* to be able to preserve the Delta of the Red River. The consternation created by this news was great; "Sedan" was in everybody's mouth. The boulevard was black with people, who assured each other that none of the French soldiers would ever come back from Tonquin; that the fatal expedition to that distant land would end in a national disaster. The Chamber met the next day, under the influence of these sentiments, and Ferry fell without a struggle. Without a word he left the Chamber, amid a tempest of screams, of insults, of threats, and offered his resignation to the President of the Republic. Could he have done otherwise? You will know, says a proverb, the good pilot in a tempest. Ferry did not face the tempest; he submitted like a man who thinks that you cannot reason with madness.

Time has shown that the Chamber was mad on that eventful Monday which followed the bad news from Tonquin; it has shown that the bad news was much exaggerated, that the retreat of the French column, which had, perhaps imprudently, gone as far as the frontier of Yunnan, did not end in a complete disaster, that the loss of Langson did not mean the loss of the Delta. Time has shown, also, that at the very moment when Jules Ferry was conducting the war in Tonquin with a vigor which had its dangers, he was also conducting negotiations for peace; and the instrument of peace, such as it is, is now in the hands of his successors. If I speak of this ministerial change, it is not in order to repeat what everybody knows at the present hour; but, in my opinion, the defeat in Tonquin was only a pretext—it was the lever in the hands of the Chamber. The real field of battle between Ferry and the Chamber was a question of patronage; it was the question which the American people have had recently to examine, and which in the United States goes under the name of civil-service reform.

Jules Ferry has in reality fallen by the same secret forces as Gambetta. The present Chamber was elected by what is called the *scrutin d'arrondissement*. The elector, in this system, votes not for a ticket but for a man. This man, once elected, becomes, or tries to become, a tyrant in his arrondissement. In order to secure his future election he must fill it with his creatures. Everything must give way to that necessity. Gambetta had a great dislike of this system; he felt that the ministers could have no force as long as they depended on deputies who consulted only their private interests. The arrondissement deputy has established his fatal influence; all the interests of his electors are centred in him; he takes care of them as if they were his own interests. If you go into the antechamber of a minister, you will find a dozen people waiting patiently, humbly for their turn. Suddenly a man comes in, the *huissiers* rise as if they were pulled by a string; it is a deputy. All the doors are opened, the deputy enters at once the cabinet of the minister; he cannot, he must not wait: he is a sovereign. He gives his orders, he demands something every day; must he not give collectorships, places to young aspirants in the bureaux, licenses for the sale of tobacco (tobacco is a state monopoly in France), places as inspectors of asylums, of prisons, places in hospitals; furloughs for young soldiers; favors of all sorts—promotions, changes of residence, etc., etc.? Who could number the things which the deputy can ask for? In old times, what we call the "Administration" was all-powerful; the fountain of grace was either the prefect or the minister himself. The system had its inconveniences, but it had at least some established rules, it was not purely arbitrary. Some attention, and in the majority of cases much attention, was paid to the character, to the merit, to the record of a candidate for office or for promotion; if a favor was granted it was for motives derived from the nature of things. The arrondissement deputy knows no such limitations; he ignores the checks of routine, of administrative delay; he struggles for life; and to him all means are good.

When Gambetta, borne on the wave of a great popularity, accepted the task of forming a Cabinet, everybody was surprised to see that the Chamber did not manifest any enthusiasm. In fact, the first declaration which he read to the Chamber, his programme, was received very coldly—so coldly that the same evening he said to a friend that he must fight at once a battle with the Chamber, win or lose. The Minister of the Interior whom he had chosen was M. Wal-

deck-Rousseau, who was likewise M. Ferry's Minister of the Interior. He developed the ideas of Gambetta in a circular. Gambetta, in his declaration to the Chamber, had said that he meant to "free the Administration from personal influences." The circular was more explicit: "It cannot be permitted that solicitations, petitions for office or for advancement, shall continue to reach the Minister over the heads of his subordinates. The authority of these functionaries is thus diminished without profit to anybody, and the services which they can render are diminished. I have resolved to return unanswered the requests of this sort thus sent to me, and to accept no recommendation not transmitted through you." This circular was addressed to the prefects, and M. Waldeck-Rousseau added: "The time has come when the Republicans of Parliament will no longer have to maintain their credit by adding their signatures, with a recommendation, to petitions and requests, but by applying themselves to the study of the complex problems which are asking for a solution, and by finding a solution in conformity with the views of our democracy."

M. Waldeck-Rousseau, I have been informed, went so far as to address in an envelope a copy of this circular, which was written for the prefects, to every member of the Chamber. The lesson was hard, and it was understood. The Chamber felt that Gambetta wished to get rid of the local tyrants of the arrondissements. In order to complete his work, he introduced at once a bill changing the system of vote by arrondissement to the system of *scrutin de liste*, or vote by departmental tickets. It is quite clear that this last system changes the character of the deputy: he ceases to depend on the petty local influences of the arrondissement; he becomes the nominee of a party; he represents that party in the wider sphere of the department; he is no longer the slave of a few electors, and therefore he is not obliged to spend all his time in securing their future votes by obedience to their wishes.

The Chamber born of the *scrutin d'arrondissement* was hostile to the views of Gambetta. There seems to be a peculiar pleasure in being at the same time slave and tyrant. The deputies who had been sent to Paris, and who intended to remain there four years, were alarmed at the prospect of a change in the electoral law, which might be followed by a dissolution. "Was für Plunder!" (What rubbish!) old Blücher is said to have exclaimed when he saw Paris for the first time. These provincial conquerors owed their election to a great party struggle (the struggle against what is called the 16th of May—the dissolution made by Marshal MacMahon). That was very well for the present, but they had the future to secure; they had their own interests to promote, and the interests of their electors, closely bound up with their own.

The opposition against Gambetta, timid at first, became by degrees very loud. The word "dictator" was pronounced: it was whispered that he wished to be uncontrolled; that he despised the new Chamber, and called it a Chamber of *sous-vétérinaires* (under-veterinarians); that he wished for the *scrutin de liste* merely in order to have a Parliament of his own choosing, since he, with his Home Minister, would himself make up all the tickets. The struggle was not long: the *scrutin de liste* was rejected, and Gambetta fell, to the surprise of the whole world, having only been three months in office.

The Chamber has now spent all its activity, and, strangely enough, toward the end of its life, it has voted this very *scrutin de liste* which it rejected four years ago. It voted it at the request, we might almost say, at the command of Jules Ferry; but it voted it with fear and trembling. It was thought that Ferry was unassailable, that nothing could upset him, that he would, as the saying is, make the elections. It was highly important for each deputy to be on his side, otherwise he risked having his name stricken from the future tickets. I have it from very good authority that the Chamber would not have voted the new electoral law if it had thought it possible to change the Cabinet. The Chamber in reality dreaded Ferry and did not like him. It dreaded Waldeck-Rousseau, and did not like him either. The new law, voted at their request, had not yet gone to the Senate when the terrible news arrived from Tonquin. The deputies felt that they could now get rid of their leader. They had not dared to vote against him as they had done against Gambetta, on the question of the *scrutin de liste;* they took advantage of the emotional character of the Parisian population, and, I might almost add, of their own emotional and sensational disposition. They turned Ferry out, with the air of men who must sacrifice everything to the honor of France, with a heroic attitude, with a show of sensibility and of patriotism which was truly touching; in reality they avenged their own wrongs. They had not found Ferry and the Home Minister very complaisant tools; the spoils of office did not seem large enough in their own eyes; they were alarmed at the future; they felt that the country was discontented with them; they needed an expiatory victim. They found it in the person of the very man who, for two years, had led them at his will.

Correspondence.

THE END AND THE MEANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From Mr. Taussig's 'History of the Present Tariff' and your notice of that book it clearly appears that, in the general imposition of war taxes in 1864 and 1867, certain private interests were allowed to arrange the rates of customs pretty much at their own discretion; that the rates thus imposed have been in any case reduced but slightly, have been nearly all maintained and many of them even increased, and this notwithstanding that the internal taxes, against which they were assumed in a certain degree to be an offset, have been long since swept away. All expedients—tariff commissions, Executive recommendation, popular agitation, efforts of individual members—have failed to afford any remedy, and the tendency has been to relieve the surplus revenue by taking the taxes off of whiskey and tobacco; the very last articles which, by all doctrines of political economy, ought to be relieved. The natural conclusion is, that the tariff at this time is not a financial but a political question; not of abstract essays upon free trade and protection, but of the expedients for resisting hostile forces; not of explaining to the people that they are robbed, but of showing them how to defend themselves from being robbed; not of what to do, but of how to get it done.

Meantime, it may fairly be said that the tariff, more than all other causes put together, is chargeable with the paralysis of business. Not so much from its actual condition—that could be borne: business will in time, and after a fashion, adjust itself to high rates or low rates. But what no business can bear is an absolute uncertainty whether a given condition of things will be maintained or suddenly and violently reversed, and that uncertainty every session of Congress brings with it.

The apparent hopelessness of obtaining any systematic revision of the tariff is driving public opinion into a demand for "horizontal" reduction. It may be doubted whether the remedy is not as bad as the disease. In the first place, as Mr. Taussig points out, it can be too easily repealed, as witness the ten per cent. reduction in 1872 and its repeal in 1875. The evil of uncertainty therefore remains. Again, a small reduction, by stimulating imports, is quite as likely to increase as to diminish revenue; while any reduction which should be large enough to admit of an increase of imports with a decrease of revenue might involve serious financial danger. The tariff is completely bound up with our system of currency. Besides legal-tender and national-bank notes, we have a vast fabric of bank deposits, both national and State, in the form of trust companies, the whole resting upon a comparatively small basis of specie, not to mention the complications involved in the silver coinage. It is not merely manufactures, but this expanded currency, which is protected by the tariff, just as a dam in a mill-stream protects the lake which is formed above. Whatever else may be said of the tariff, it placed a heavy check upon imports in the speculative years 1879 to 1883; and thus, when the panic of last year took place, and now, when a European war is threatened, instead of being heavily in debt abroad, and thus furnishing the instrument for a drain of specie, we find ourselves but lightly in debt, with a bank surplus of more than fifty millions in cash, and with foreign exchange obstinately sticking below the point of export of specie, notwithstanding that money in London has for a time ruled considerably higher than here. A sudden and large horizontal reduction of the tariff would produce an effect, if not so immediate, yet similar in kind to that which would follow from knocking a hole in the dam of a large lake immediately above a town. Once more, the industries which have been artificially nurtured by the tariff, though imposing an unjust burden upon the consumer, exist less through their own fault than through that of the Government. They are entitled to any consideration consistent with the main object, to reasonable time, and gradual and equitable readjustment of duties. Experience, as well as theory, has shown that systematic revision cannot be expected from secret committees of Congress, working under pressure from the lobby and with suppression of public discussion. There is needed some agency which shall represent the national interest against private and local ones; which shall be exposed to public, constant, and efficient criticism, in a manner which will render intrigue impossible, and make every member of Congress responsible before the country for the motive and the effect of his vote. This agency can be found only in the Secretary of the Treasury having a seat on the floor of the houses, with the right to a share in debate, but without a vote.

To those who regard this as a mere notion, an impracticable "fad," I will submit only one fact. On the 4th of February, 1881, Hon. Geo. H. Pendleton presented in the Senate a report signed by all the eight members of a committee of that body, recommending that all the members of the Cabinet be admitted to both houses, with the right to share in debate, but without a vote, and that on certain days in the Senate and certain others in the House, they should be present for the purpose of answering any questions addressed to them; suggesting certain modifications of the rules necessary for this purpose; and adding a long list of examples showing that it is in accordance with the practice of every government in the world making any pretence to constitutional forms. The names of these Senators will show that it was no doubtful matter which could bring them to unanimous agreement. They were George H. Pendleton, W. B. Allison, D.W. Voorhees, James G. Blaine, M. C. Butler, John J. Ingalls, O. H. Platt, J. T. Farley. In this re-

port occurs the following sentence: "The advantages of the system proposed are so obvious and so manifold that the committee feels relieved from a detailed statement of them, and confines this report to an examination of the question of its constitutionality," which they demonstrate beyond the possibility of doubt.

The question next arises, Why is it, if its advantages are so obvious and it is so strongly recommended, that this measure has never since received the slightest attention in or outside of Congress? This brings us to the next link in the chain of argument. If this measure is most likely to produce tariff reform, and if tariff reform is what the lobby and therefore the committees object to, then they will for that reason oppose and endeavor to suppress the measure. Again, Congress, as at present composed, very much prefers the great power of its committees and their chairmen, and the party use of that powerful instrument, the Speaker, to any national reforms which would involve a surrender of a portion of these privileges. The interest of the country is exactly opposed to the interest of Congress in its present form, and it is to be noted that while the question of tariff reform implies control of a mass of details easily manipulated by the lobby, Cabinet responsibility forms a simple and definite issue, to be met only with "yes" or "no," and which the lobby would be powerless to resist if once the country was determined upon it. It is a singular thing that while so many past Cabinet officers (and I could give a surprising list) have expressed themselves strongly in private in favor of the measure, there is not one of them who dares to lend his name to the public advocacy of such a radical departure from the beaten track of routine.

I have observed lately that at public meetings, and especially dinners, orators, occupying the highest political positions, have attempted to outline the policy of the two great parties, their efforts extracting from the public only shouts of laughter or sneers of contempt. The fact is, that neither party has any policy at all, nor any reason of existence beyond its relation to the civil war of a quarter of a century back. Now the Senate report above quoted offers a definite line of policy open to competition by either party—a policy warranted to wear, and to wash without change of color. Executive responsibility; separation of executive and legislative power; national interest as against private and local; a continuous and developing policy as against spasmodic and impotent efforts; publicity in place of secret intrigue; the will of the people as against the lobby; individuality against impersonal majorities—there are as many notes in it as keys to a piano, and they may be played upon in combinations to suit individual genius and taste. What artist of reputation will open the concert?

G. B.

Boston, April 27, 1885.

POPULAR VIEW OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One needs to breathe the atmosphere of the capital if he wishes to trace to their sources the mutterings of discontent which now and then make themselves heard against the new Administration. To those of us who stay at home, it seems that all things are working together for the good of the country. It seems to us that the President is wise in refusing the exorbitant demands of eager office-seekers. It seems to our rural and simple minds that the President is carrying out a solemn promise when he adheres to his civil-service-reform principles. We know, as long as we stay at home, that he is *the* great apostle of reform. Moreover, we feel assured that much depends upon that reform which he is so honestly and so bravely carrying out. We have all seen the evils of the spoils system. We want no more of it.

But when we get to Washington, we are told by the first office-seeker we happen to meet that there is a suppressed murmur rising up from the people, which shortly will break into a terrible yell or howl. We ask the reason of this intended howl, and we are told that the President is moving too slowly in the matter of distribution of offices, and the people will not stand it. We are also told that the President is a new man, without experience—that he is no politician; and then, when we involuntarily ejaculate, "Thank God for that!" our friend calls us a Mugwump, and indignantly takes his departure.

In truth, the people are more than satisfied with the Administration; there is among them a quiet satisfaction and a perfect confidence. They care as little about the supposed grievances of the office-seekers as do the office-seekers about the real welfare and good of the country.—Very respectfully, J. H.

Madison C. H., Va., April 30, 1885.

THE REWARD OF BOLTING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Independents do not expect and should not accept office under the present Administration. But their feelings are entitled to consideration.

It was very painful to me, a Republican from boyhood, to bolt the party nomination last year, but I did it as a matter of public duty, and worked with voice, pen, and—within my modest means—purse, for the defeat of Mr. Blaine.

At about the same time, as would appear from his pamphlet, "America's Egypt," Mr. James M. Morgan bolted his party's nomination, to work for the opposite candidate, Mr. Blaine. Mr. Blaine was not elected, but Mr. Morgan has received from Mr. Cleveland what he doubtless hoped for from Mr. Blaine. That this man should be rewarded by office, under these circumstances, is a blow in the face to every Republican that left his party for the country's good. B.

Washington, May 1, 1885.

FREE SHIPS, FREE GOODS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial paragraph of a late number of the *Nation* the opinion is expressed that "if war should unfortunately be waged on the ocean between England and Russia the rule 'free ships, free goods' would be of enormous benefit to the Government and people of the United States if they only had (as they have not) the ships to do the carrying trade for both belligerents."

Does not the writer of the article lose sight of the fact that, in the event of war between the two countries named, we could not safely carry the goods of either enemy upon our vessels, as the four articles contained in the Declaration of Paris apply only to the signers of, and not to us who refused to accede to, the convention? It is true that during the Crimean war England *waived* the right which, she had persistently claimed, belonged to her under the law of nations, of seizing enemy's property laden on board a neutral vessel, and that the United States did the same during the late civil war. But, if I mistake not, the English Government has always maintained that the Declaration of Paris applies solely to the signatory Powers, and that the second article, which nearly expresses the rule quoted, is designed for the exclusive benefit of neutrals *who are parties* to the Declaration.

If this is England's position, would she not, in the event of war, feel at liberty to seize Russian goods found in our ships, and would not Russia, even if disposed to act differently, be then driven to retaliate by confiscating British goods discovered in American bottoms?—Yours very respectfully, T. S.

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, April 29, 1885.

[England not only "waived" the right of seizing enemy's property on board a neutral vessel, but formally abandoned it in 1854, and adopted the principle of "free ships, free goods." She went further than this, and, by an Order in Council, permitted her own subjects to trade with enemy's ports in neutral bottoms. There is no more probability of her reviving the old claim than of her reviving the claim to search foreign vessels for British seamen. The old doctrine about enemy's goods in neutral bottoms is simply dead, and there's an end on't. The declaration of the Treaty of Paris with regard to enemy's goods in neutral bottoms was attacked in the British House of Lords in 1856, but Lord Clarendon made light of the concession it contained on the part of England, on the ground that it was simply the abandonment of a claim "which she could not maintain."—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The fourth volume of the *Q. P. Index Annual* (No. 17 in the valuable series of which it bears the distinctive name) is a key to the contents of upward of thirty American, English, and German periodicals for the year 1884. For the major part of these Mr. Griswold also furnishes a tabular statement of the number of the last page in each monthly issue.

Roberts Bros. will shortly publish 'New Poems,' by Jean Ingelow, from advance sheets; a plain edition, 12mo, of Hamerton's 'Landscape'; and 'The Fall of the Great Republic, 1886 88.'

'The Russian Revolt,' by Edmund Noble, for some time a resident in Russia; and 'Down the Ravine,' a child's story, by Charles Egbert Craddock, will be published during the present month by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. will be the American publishers of the Ashburton edition of Carlyle's works, in seventeen volumes, just begun to be issued at the rate of one a month.

The war poems of Mrs. Kate Brownlee Sherwood, and a little volume containing two essays by Mrs. Helen Ekin Starrett and Mrs. Frances Ekin Allison ("The Future of Educated Women," "Men, Women, and Money"), are in the press of Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Somewhat more than two years ago we praised, as considerably above the average of its class, Prof. Robert K. Douglas's 'China.' This work has now been reprinted by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, under the editorial supervision of Mr. Arthur Gilman, who furnishes an analytic table of contents and an index. Mr. Yan Phou Lee, of Yale College, has suggested a few notes.

We notice a new edition of Rees's 'Life of Edwin Forrest' (Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.), for the sake of quoting from the preface a crucial test of the writer's inability to discriminate between *shall* and *will*, of which we have heard so much lately. Says Mr. Rees, of a certain photograph: "Mr. Forrest was so well pleased with it that he declared 'he would never

sit for another picture to mortal man.' It was, alas! too true; for his death followed shortly afterward."

Among the latest English author bibliographies is the little volume of 'Hints to Collectors of Original Editions of the Works of William Makepeace Thackeray' (London: Redway; New York: Scribner & Welford), which gives an exact copy of the title-page of every book, with a full collation of pages and illustrations, and notes of differences in editions. Prices obtained at recent sales are also appended. This innocent work has caused great tribulation, as it sets up a strict canon, tested by which many so-called first editions are found wanting and must fall from their high estate. A similar volume of 'Hints to Dickens's Collectors' is announced as in preparation.

Mr. Joseph Skipsey, who is now editing in London a series of "Canterbury Poets" in shilling volumes, has drawn freely from American authors. Volumes of selections from Longfellow and Poe have already appeared, and Whitman and Whittier are announced as ready to be issued in early volumes. The little books are intended to appear at monthly intervals.

Mr. Andrew Lang is engaged in preparing, for the Parchment Library, selections from Burns and from Scott. He has already given the same series an excellent edition of Poe's poems.

The Dunlap Society, of this city, has had itself duly incorporated that it may legally receive gifts of books about the stage (and especially about the American stage), portraits, prints, playbills, autographs, manuscripts, etc. The Treasurer is Mr. Thomas J. McKee, 338 Broome Street. The Society hopes to hold a loan exhibition at its annual meeting next January.

The list of private laws passed at the second session of the 48th Congress is the most striking feature of No. 3 of Mr. J. H. Hickcox's important monthly catalogue called *United States' Publications*. But piquant is the note under Senate Report No. 577, which nominally consisted of "questions propounded to the President of the Western Union Telegraph Company." "The 'questions' occupy 4 pp. The remainder of the 'report' [32 pp.] consists of 'Press comments on the action of the Associated Press in furnishing reports of the Presidential election, November, 1884.' The report has been suppressed for want of paternity."

From the Signal Service Bureau we have two "Notes," Nos. 16 and 18, 'The Aurora in its Relations to Metrology,' by Private Alexander McAdie, and 'The Effect of Wind-Currents on Rainfall,' by Private G. E. Curtis. Several maps accompany the former. One shows the relative frequency of auroras and thunder-storms and annual mean humidity and pressure in the United States for the years 1881, 1882.

From the Bureau of Education comes No. 1 of the Circulars of Information for 1885, a compendious account of the City School Systems of the United States, by Mr. John D. Philbrick; and a pamphlet on 'Planting Trees in School Grounds, and the Celebration of Arbor Day'—a sort of manual for this new festival, which has become epidemic, as well as a tract against forest devastation.

A little pamphlet, 'What Profession Shall I Choose? and How Shall I Fit Myself for It?' represents a "symposium" of professors at Cornell, and is meant to direct attention to that institution of learning. Its hints will be found more widely useful. That on the necessary preparation for journalism we can instance as sensible. Such a statement, however, as that "the editorial chairs established originally by men of uncultivated genius are now more and more occupied by successors who have been thoroughly educated" is disputable, especially if we lay stress on the word "thoroughly." If true, considering the present state of the press at large (which seems to us less hopeful than a dozen years ago), it suggests some painful reflections.

The Newton (Mass.) Civil-Service Reform Association has published a useful summary sketch, by its President, Rev. Henry Lambert, of 'The Progress of Civil-Service Reform in the United States.' We are glad to observe that Mr. Lambert does not overlook an essential link in the chain of events—a letter written to the *Nation* in August, 1880, which brought about the reorganization of the New York Association, and gave the signal for the final organization of the friends of pure and efficient administration throughout the country.

Mr. W. E. Foster's annual report of the Providence Library under his charge is a very encouraging document, though the new spirit which such an institution always awakens appears to have shown itself among donors rather than readers. Mr. Foster remarks that the Presidential campaign of 1880 coincided with a falling off in the use of the library, while that of last November seemed rather to stimulate it.

The twelfth number of Mr. Ponce de Leon's 'Technological English-Spanish Dictionary' carries the work well into the letter R, page 640 containing the compounds of the fertile word *rope*.

The etchings of *L'Art* for March 15 and April 1 include a very spirited marine, the "Tempest" of Franz von Pausinger, the "Resurrection" of Van Dyck, from the collection of the late Mr. Boesch, of Vienna, and a Wouverman military piece from the same source. Among the facsimile reproductions are drawings after Millet and particularly after Bastien-Lepage—all fine and interesting in a high degree. The literary quality of these numbers is also considerable, whether we name M. Badin's account of M. Maurice Sand's marionettes, or Mr. Charles Diehl's archæological discourse on Ravenna, the illustrations to which are the firm and broad work of a woman, Mlle. Herwegen.

Science for April 24 has a very clear map of the Saskatchewan region, the scene of the Riel rebellion; and for May 1, a map of Central Asia, including the whole of Afghanistan, reduced from one made from the Anglo-Russian surveys up to 1881. In fact, this latter number of *Science* is conspicuous for the attention it gives to the great dispute now pending in the Eastern hemisphere.

A curious illustration of the ignorance of geography of the English press has just been shown. On April 4th it was announced that the British flag had been hoisted the day before at Port Hamilton, which was to be occupied as a coaling and naval station. The *Times*, *Pall Mall Gazette*, and other papers, including *Nature*, to our surprise, described the new possession as consisting of the large Corean island of Quelpart. The fact is, as a glance at any recent map would have shown, that Port Hamilton is a harbor formed by three small islands lying about twenty miles south of the southern extremity of the Corean Peninsula, and about 170 miles northwest of Nagasaki, and nearly 400 miles northeast of Shanghai. The acquisition of this harbor was the last public act of Sir Harry Parkes, the late British Minister to China.

The Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society for April contain a translation of a paper by M. Paul Lessar descriptive of Kara-Kum, or desert of Tufkomania, in the south of which Merv is situated. M. Lessar is a civil engineer, who was sent by the Russian Government in February of this year to London with its proposals regarding the Afghan frontier. In 1883 he conducted a survey, of which this paper is a brief account, the principal aim of which was to explore the dry channel known as the Unguz with the view of ascertaining its adaptability for being utilized as a way for the Amu River to the Caspian Sea. The difficulties to be overcome in carrying out this scheme he pronounces unhesitatingly to be "practically insurmountable." Incidentally he refers to a similar scheme, which the Russian Government have for years been investigating, for utilizing the Uzboi, another dry channel, for connecting the Aral with the Caspian, saying that either a canal or a railroad "would cost immeasurably less than an artificial river."

The other papers in the Proceedings are a description of the beautiful "King Country" of New Zealand, and a brief account of the new "Free State of the Congo," by Mr. E. Delmar Morgan, accompanied by a map showing the boundaries as laid down by the Berlin Conference. The White Book just issued by the German Government, it may be noted here, contains a map of Central Africa, showing not only the boundaries of the various countries on the Congo, but those of the other territories recently acquired by the Germans in Africa.

A recent letter from Przhevalski, the Russian traveller, giving an account of his discovery of the sources of the river Hwang-ho, says that he came upon a party of Tanguts who were engaged in gold-washing. Though working in the most primitive way, they showed him "whole handfuls of gold in great pieces, none of which were smaller than a pea." He prophesies that Tibet will prove to be a second California.

A novel feature of the celebration of Bismarck's birthday at Berlin was the exhibition of a collection of more than one hundred and fifty separate works in different languages—biographies, poems, stories, political treatises, etc.—relating wholly to the Prince. The walls of the room containing this collection were hung with photographs of pictures and statues representing scenes in his life, together with various portraits of him and nearly fifty busts and medallions.

Mr. Christern sends us the prospectus of an important series of photographic reproductions of original drawings by the old masters contained in the Old Pinakothek at Munich ('Handzeichnungen alter Meister,' etc.) under the direction of Dr. W. Schmidt, Curator of the Kupferstich-cabinet at the Pinakothek. Letter-press of a technical descriptive character will accompany each *Lieferung*.

J. Rouam, 29 Cité d'Antin, Paris, is about to issue 'Médaillons Contemporains,' by the artist Ringel, of which *L'Art* has published several specimens. They are very spirited.

At the Cambridge (England) Observatory one of the observations of the nadir point was interrupted for a while by a singular circumstance. Professor Adams reports that on the morning of April 22, his assistant, Miss Walker, had prepared to make the observation, and was looking into the eye-piece, when she perceived that the image of the wire was making violent oscillations. She found it necessary to wait for several minutes before the image became sufficiently steady to allow the observation to be made. It was not till afterward that she was made aware that a slight earthquake shock had taken place at the exact time when she was attempting to make the observation.

Whoever watches history in the making will always be very suspicious of those theories which explain the origin of any important movement in the past by a single cause. Therefore it is a satisfaction to see Weingarten's 'Ursprung des Mönchtums' (1877), which traces monasticism to the devotees of Serapis, opposed. Bornemann, 'In investiganda monachatus origine quibus de causis ratio habenda sit Origenis' (Göttingen, 1885), points out that the monastic institution is very complex, that it took different forms in different places and at different times, and that

these forms imply a variety of originating causes, as, the practice of the precepts of the Gospel, penitence, repugnance toward a worldly life, a love of the marvellous, the customs of contemporary philosophical sects, the precarious state of society, and the expectation of a speedy end of the world.

On the 15th of last month the family of Goethe became extinct by the death, at Weimar, of Kammerherr Walther von Goethe, the poet's grandson. He was the elder son (born in 1818) of Julius August Walther von Goethe (1789-1830), the only one of the many children born to the poet by Christiane Vulpius who outlived the age of childhood. The younger, Wolfgang Maximilian, born in 1820, died a little more than two years ago, and their only sister, born in 1827, ended her short life in 1844. None of the three was married. The two brothers were endowed with respectable talents, and the younger was the author of several works, mainly poetical; but both were oppressed and depressed through life by the burden of the great name which they bore, spending their days in melancholy taciturnity at Weimar, as keepers of their grandfather's collections, which, in fact, they are said to have shown with reluctance. They were, however, treated with kindness and distinction by the court of Weimar. Their mother, born in 1796, died in the same city in 1872.

Holland has lost one of the most distinguished representatives of her liberal school of theology and Bible criticism in Johannes Henricus Scholten, who died in the early part of last month. He was born in 1811, and became Professor of Theology at the University of Leyden in 1843, a position which he held till the age of seventy. He was the author of numerous works, philosophico-religious, dogmatic, and critical, which have exercised a powerful influence upon the recent theological evolutions in the Protestant world. By his critical examinations of the Gospels and other New Testament writings he raised himself to a position analogous to that held by Baur in Tübingen. Among his most important productions are 'Het Evangelie naar Johannes,' (1864), 'De Evangelien naar Mattheus en Marcus' (1868), and 'Het Paulinisch Evangelie' (1870). He was one of the editors of the Leyden *Theologisch Tijdschrift*, of which Professor Kuenen is now the leading spirit.

—Mr. W. K. Sullivan sends us from Chicago the following: "The article on the proper use of shall and will, in a recent issue of the *Nation*, recalled to my mind a rhyme which was given in the grammar used in the National Schools in Ireland twenty-five years ago, as a rule to guide learners in the use of shall and will. For aught I know it is still printed in the National School grammar. I think it covers the ground. It is as follows:

> "'In the first person simply shall foretells,
> In will a threat or else a promise dwells;
> Shall in the second and third does threat,
> Will then simply foretells a future feat.'"

—The fifth volume of collections just published by the Minnesota Historical Society, an octavo of 535 pages, is a monograph concerning the Ojibway Indians. Three-fourths of the book is the production of a man whose maternal ancestors were Ojibways. Except Lewis H. Morgan's treatise on the Six Nations, scarcely any volume on our aborigines can be compared with this. The author, Mr. Warren, born in 1825 at La Pointe, on Lake Superior, the centre of the Ojibway country, passed his childhood there, and was afterward for five years at school in New York. At the age of sixteen he returned to the Indian country, and became Government interpreter and a member of the Minnesota Territorial Legislature. But for the next twelve years, until his death in 1853, his labor of love was searching out lodge-fires and listening to the lodge-stories and legends of his Indian grandfathers. He thus secured the testimony of contemporary witnesses regarding all tribal events in the present century. He makes a plausible claim that the traditions he gathered run back at least to the year 1500, and that they are trustworthy—worthy, indeed, of more credit than French adventurers and Jesuit Relations. In 1842, Mr. Warren saw at La Pointe the family register of the leading hereditary family among the Ojibways—the Cranes—and heard it explained by the first chief. This was a circular plate of virgin copper, with eight deeply marked indentations, denoting the number of generations that had passed away since the tribe had established their headquarters on that spot. Each generation was estimated at forty years.

—It is not generally understood how grand a tribe the Ojibways, still, perhaps, better known as Chippeways, were and are. They once encompassed Lake Superior as the Roman Empire did the Mediterranean, and their western frontier stretched more than a thousand miles from Lake Winnipeg to the mouth of the Wisconsin. In 1883 the United States and Canadian census-takers found their number to be 28,530. Is there any tribe now larger? There are also, according to Mr. Warren, about 5,000 Ojibways of French or American extraction, or mixed blood. This Minnesota contribution from an unhoped-for source must be welcome to every ethnological student. It ought to have been published thirty years ago. It throws a long desiderated light on the totemic system, on the origin of Western mounds, on the author's vernacular, on the myths of his tribe, on their confederations and disunions, on their faith, worship, and customs, on their architecture and other arts, on their cannibalism and island abodes, on their first impressions of the whites—indeed, on something upon every page. Mr. Warren laments that he wrote away from books. The truth is, his book is the better for that lack. Dr. Neill, the historian of Minnesota, drawing from official and other records, has added a hundred pages to Mr. Warren's details. He has doubtless corrected some dates and other figures; but his lucubrations are dry bones, while the narrative based on tradition has the unity of breathing life. Warren was a kinsman of his namesake who fell at Bunker Hill, and he died young, but not before he had reared a lasting monument of his nation.

—The *Century* now comes out on the first of the month of which it bears date—a fact which will do something to dispel the superstition that any magazine wishing to outstrip its contemporaries must be in the field ahead of them. Its hold upon the public (its first edition is now 250,000) has been established by the interest and excellence of its contents, and it now appears to find that there is, under these circumstances, no real danger in being two weeks behind its competitors. In the May number more than seventy pages are devoted to war articles, and some lucubrations on the subject of General Grant by General Badeau, and the rest is of such equal merit that it is hard to pick out what is most interesting. Mr. Howells contributes the seventh instalment of "The Rise of Silas Lapham," in which the women are drawn with just that combination of sympathy and irony which women best appreciate. Mr. Howells in this number solves the question propounded in the last, as to whether Silas on a certain occasion was or was not drunk, in the affirmative; and the scene between him and Corey in consequence is very good, though to our mind not so perfect as the subsequent scenes produced by Corey's declaration. This story, with its photographic reproductions of a certain side of American life, seems to be the best thing that Mr. Howells has recently done, and may serve a hundred years hence to help our descendants to understand our day and generation. Mr. E. V. Smalley has a good illustrated article on the New Orleans Exposition, which brings out clearly the energy and enterprise and even self-sacrifice of its promoters, but at the same time suggests the inquiry, When is this thing to stop? The truth of the matter is, that with all their energy, enterprise, and self-sacrifice, they could not have made the Exposition a success without Government aid—that is, without a tax upon the people of the whole country. If the cotton-growing section is to have a tax for its benefit, ought not each section in turn to have one; and if New York or Boston wants a loan from the Government, or San Francisco or Chicago, where are we to draw the line? Of course these expositions are money-making ventures for somebody—the exhibitors perhaps, the hotel-keepers and the railroads certainly. It would be worth the while of these two last interests to have an exposition somewhere every six months. Among the illustrations of the present number are noticeable some engravings of dogs, by Gaston Fay, that representing a St. Bernard being a conspicuous example of skill in woodcutting in the best vein of the art.

—*Harper's*, besides its serials and illustrated articles, still has for its best reading the Editor's Easy Chair, in which Mr. Curtis this month has something to say of "Manners, Old and New." This little essay is a model of its kind—suggestive, allusive, light, leaving in the reader's mind a very distinct impression of the view taken by the writer of the tendency of modern manners, although nowhere laying it down dogmatically. The truth is (if we may venture to translate what he says into plainer and grosser language) that the new breeding is that of stable-boys and barmaids; and as American manners were, a generation ago, proverbial for over-refinement, they now threaten to become, in the course of another, noted for the opposite. The effect of this will be, and we believe already is, to drive refined and cultivated people (for such there must always be) out of "society." Without attaching too much importance to the connection between good manners and morality, and admitting that true goodness does not produce as a necessary consequence good breeding, nor good breeding true goodness, it is certain that refinement and cultivation revolt against vulgarity, and ignorance, and insolence, and display, and boisterous egotism. Consequently, if society becomes, as Mr. Curtis suggests, a "sailors' boarding-house," a good many of the older tenants will seek more solitary quarters, and in the end there will be nothing like what used to be known as "society" at all. To be "in society" will merely mean that you have a quantity of money, a big house, and bad manners, and associate with persons whose room is generally considered among people of taste better than their company. In our effort at translation, we have perhaps outrun the original; but what we have said is at least implied in what the Easy Chair says.

—Mr. Richard A. Proctor, who appears to have taken all knowledge for his province, has an article in the May *Atlantic* on "The Misused H of England," in which he combats with vigor the position assumed by the late Mr. Richard Grant White as to this letter. A philologist no longer living is at the mercy of his enemies, if they make their attacks with wisdom, for there is no one to make reply, the *odium philologicum* being so great that there is no living student of words but has theories of his own which forbid him to come to the rescue of a deceased brother. In the interest of fair play, therefore, we desire to call attention to the fact that, whatever the merits or demerits

of Mr. White's theories about the letter H, Mr. Proctor's views must be accepted with a good deal of reserve. That a man may be great in astronomy, and know very little about whist, is the conclusion which has been forced upon many readers of Mr. Proctor's essays on the latter subject; that he may know a great deal about a great many things, and yet not have got to the bottom of the misuse of the letter H, is a conclusion which will be forced upon many readers of the present article. The question is, why the *h* is prefixed to words to which it does not belong, and left off words which are properly aspirated. Mr. Proctor suggests two explanations: First, that in all great cities (it is taken for granted that the disease is of London origin) men shorten their words as much as possible. Time is money, and therefore in Paris people say, instead of *cette femme, c'te f'me*, and *Voilà ce que c'est* becomes *V'là c'q'c'est;* while in London an *omnibus* is called a *'bus; conductor, 'uctor*, and so on. This will account for the *h* being dropped, though Mr. Proctor throws in another reason which would not have occurred to many people—that London fogs make it so disagreeable a task to open the mouth, that the avoidance of an aspirate conduces to the convenience of Cockneys. But then if this is so, why is the *h* put on where it does not belong? It is introduced for the sake of emphasis, Mr. Proctor thinks—the desire to be emphatic overcoming *ad hoc* the tendency to slur and elide. If all these things are true, they show that Mr. White's theory was entirely wrong, and his idea that the elision of the *h* was once a common practice among educated English people a delusion. We confess that we do not altogether follow Mr. Proctor. Is not the "*'umble*" of Uriah Heep much more emphatic than *humble* would have been? Is it conceivable that Paris slang such as he quotes is due to the hurried life of a great capital? And is there not a sufficient number of educated English who drop the *h* in some words to make us suspect that it was once much commoner than it is now? and does not the line quoted from Tennyson as an illustration of the "Northern" dialect—

"Wheer '*asta* beän saw long and meä liggin' '*ere* aloän"—

throw a good deal of doubt on the fundamental assumption that dropping the *h* is a disease peculiar to London?

— Mr. Philip G. Hubert, jr., has an interesting article in *Lippincott's* on "New York's Lyceum School for Actors." It seems that this school was not started by enthusiasts for the elevation of the drama, but had its origin in the system followed with great profit by the Madison Square Theatre, of keeping half a dozen travelling companies "on the road" acting the same play. To keep such a system going, it is obviously necessary that there shall be a supply of competent actors and actresses ready to be "laid on" in the various parts in the different provincial towns and cities, to take the place of members of the travelling companies who may die, or be taken ill, or for any reason compelled to cancel their engagements. For this purpose Mr. F. H. Sargent, then an instructor in elocution and dramatic reading at Harvard, was invited to come to New York and classify the applicants for admission. For the immediate purposes of the Madison Square Theatre it was apparently necessary at first only to teach people to act a very few parts, chiefly if not altogether those contained in "Hazel Kirke," a play which has been acted continuously in one or more parts of the United States for more than four years. At the height of the "Hazel Kirke" rage, the supply of Hazels was very considerable, and after proper training they were kept, to speak vulgarly, "on tap," so that if, for instance, the manager received a despatch from St. Louis, announcing the illness of the local Hazel, and asking for a substitute, all he had to do was to take down a ledger, turn to a page headed "Hazel," select the young woman who lived nearest St. Louis, and send her a despatch to report for orders to the local manager. "Gradually the theatre came to have several hundred persons of more or less experience, and living in all parts of the country, looking to it for employment and opportunities." Out of this came the idea of the Lyceum School, a school connected with the new Lyceum Theatre; the object of the manager, Mr. Mackaye, being mainly to have a competent corps from which his "road" companies could be drawn. Mr. Sargent is at the head of it, the applicants are numerous, and the teaching, from what we have observed of its effects, good. The curse of the American stage at present is the gross ignorance and want of proper training of its actors and actresses. Training in the rudiments of the art of acting, in enunciation, pronunciation, the carriage of the body, in the use of the voice—all this, to say nothing of the higher branches, is now to be had at the Lyceum School. The school is a standing warning to such as desire to study the dramatic art, that hereafter the prizes are only to be had by such as will abandon the stale delusion that acting comes by nature.

—Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton makes in a *North American* symposium a tremendous onslaught upon Christianity, which she insists is far from having "benefited woman." The elevation of woman is due, Mrs. Stanton says, not to Christianity, but to the deep affection for noble women early observed by Tacitus and other candid foreigners among the Germanic tribes. "It is only in countries where Germanic ideas have taken root that we see marks of any elevation of woman superior to that of Pagan antiquity; and as the condition of the German woman in her deepest Paganism was so striking as to challenge the attention of Tacitus and his contemporaries, it is highly unreasonable to claim it as an achievement of Christianity." The Christian side of the argument is taken up by Bishop J. L. Spaulding, who makes the point that Tacitus never himself crossed the Rhine; that he gives us very few facts about the position of women in ancient Germany; that really the lot of woman among the Teutonic tribes was what it has always been among barbarians. He cites in proof the fact that the fine for killing a young woman among the Germans, no matter how noble she was, nor how deep the affection felt for her, was only two dollars. We may add to this that among modern Germans the position of woman is not at all what Mrs. Stanton would like to derive from the "Teutonic idea." That Christianity has done much to elevate the position of the weak and defenceless in the world is generally conceded. Women are naturally weak and defenceless. Therefore the conclusion seems irresistible that Christianity *has* benefited woman. We pronounce judgment for Christianity and its defender, Bishop Spaulding.

—In the *Athenæum* of April 11, Mr. Sutherland Edwards calls attention to a pamphlet by J. B. Pérès, entitled 'Comme quoi Napoléon n'a jamais existé,' first published, as he says, in 1817, and asks if the originality of Whately's 'Historic Doubts relative to Napoleon,' which appeared in 1819, has ever been questioned. Though the similarity between the two lies rather in the conception than in the details, it is no doubt possible, if Pérès did publish his satire in 1817, that Whately may have obtained from it the idea which he so ingeniously develops. But it is by no means certain that the French pamphlet is the earlier of the two, for though Larousse and the 'Nouvelle Biographie Générale' give 1817 as the date of the first edition, Lorenz and 'La Littérature Française Contemporaine' give 1827, the 'Biographie Universelle' gives 1835, while, according to the third edition of Barbier's 'Dictionnaire des Ouvrages Anonymes,' perhaps the best authority on a question of this sort, the pamphlet was first published anonymously, with the title 'Grand erratum. Source d'un nombre infini d'errata à noter dans l'histoire du XIXe siècle' (Agen, Noubel imp., 1836). The second and third editions appeared at Paris in the same year, 1836; the title being changed with the third edition to 'Comme quoi Napoléon n'a jamais existé. Grand erratum,' etc. The fourth edition (Paris, Risler, 1838) bears the name of the author, and no further change seems to have been made in the title, though it ran through a number of editions (the tenth bearing the date 1864), and it was also reprinted in several collections, such as the 'Histoires drolatiques de l'Empereur Napoléon,' etc. If, as seems most probable, the dates given by Barbier are correct, it is clear that there can be no question as to the originality of Whately's 'Historic Doubts,' whatever may be said of Pérès. It is possible that Mr. Edwards may have in his possession such evidence in favor of the date 1817 as will prove Barbier to have been mistaken; but his evident ignorance of the history of the pamphlet, and the inaccuracy displayed in several instances by him, in this same letter, are not calculated to inspire confidence in his statements of facts. Thus he spells his author's name "Pérez" instead of Pérès, the correct form; he speaks of the fourth edition of Whately's 'Historic Doubts' as the last, though the tenth edition appeared so long ago as 1850; and his statement that this pamphlet by Pérès has never been published in English shows that he is unaware that a slightly abridged translation may be found in the first volume of 'Philobiblion.' This seems also to have escaped the notice of Mr. Garnett, who, in the *Athenæum* of April 18, corrects some of Mr. Edwards's mistakes, and takes occasion to announce that an English version is on the point of publication. Mr. Edwards also overlooks the fact that the reference made by Pérès to Delavigne as the author of the 'Nouvelles Messéniennes' (1822-24), unless he can show that it does not occur in the first edition, is conclusive internal evidence that the French pamphlet must have been written at least some four or five years after the appearance of the 'Historic Doubts.'

—The life of the late Dr. Karl Hillebrand, our lamented colaborer, has been sketched in extensive obituaries, or rather biographical essays, by eminent contributors to leading journals both of Germany, his native land, and of Italy, where he spent the latter years of his but too brief career. The latest sketch, that of O. Hartwig in the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* of April 9, 10, and 11, is alike appreciative and rich in characteristic traits, and embodies details drawn from Ludwig Bamberger's obituary in the *Deutsche Rundschau*, H. Homberger's in the Berlin *Nation*, F. Dernburg's "Recollections" of the deceased writer in the *Nationalzeitung*, and Prof. Giacomo Barzellotti's lecture on him published in the *Archivio Storico Italiano*. Want of room forbids us to make extensive excerpts from these tributes of friendship and admiration, but we cannot refrain from quoting a few lines from a letter of Hillebrand's penned in the shadow of slowly but surely approaching death—lines of retrospective contemplation worthy, we believe, to be engraved on monumental marble. Not to impair their exquisite flavor, we give them in the original:

"Je ne me plains pas. . . . J'ai eu ma belle part au banquet de la vie. Les dieux m'ont toujours voulu du bien: ils ont toujours tenu loin de moi le spectre du besoin, ils ont puni avec indulgence et *pede claudo* les fautes et les vices dont j'ai pu me rendre coupable dans ma jeunesse; avant tout ils m'ont donné et conservé un tem-

pérament heureux, qui fait que les blessures cicatrisent vite, et que la stérile réflexion sur le passé, l'inutile sondage de l'avenir, ne m'ont jamais gâté le présent ; j'ai pris un vif intérêt à la comédie de ce monde et j'en ai joui ; l'amour le plus noble et le plus constant a toujours étendu son aile sur moi comme un ange guardien ; les amitiés les plus sûres, vraies et voyantes m'ont soutenu dans tout le cours de ma vie; les hommes en général m'ont montré de la sympathie et les femmes m'ont choyé ; j'ai obtenu le genre de réputation discrète, circonscrite, mais de bon aloi, qui était ma seule ambition, et si les dieux m'accordent encore une fin calme et proprette, j'aurai mauvaise grâce dans une autre vie de me plaindre de celle-ci."

—Doctor Kleiber, of St. Petersburg, publishes in the *Astronomische Nachrichten* the results of investigations by himself and Doctor Keller on the amount by which the earth's mass is increased each hour by the meteors falling upon the globe from space. The original memoirs, which are printed in Russian, have not reached this country, but the summary referred to is extremely interesting. Observations by Professor Schmidt, of Athens, and others, have shown that on the average a single observer will see about ten meteors per hour. This is a number which depends upon experiment simply. A single observer does not command the whole sky above his horizon, but only some 23 per cent. of it. Professor Newton, of Yale College, has shown that about 10,460 times as many meteors fall on the whole earth in an hour as fall so as to be visible above any one horizon. Combining these separate deductions, it follows that $10 \times 100 \times 10{,}460 \div 23$ (or about 450,000) meteors fall on the surface of the whole earth *each hour*. It is to be remembered, too, that only such meteors as would be visible to the naked eye are included in this enumeration. Every astronomer knows that there are vast quantities of extremely minute telescopic meteors in the heavens. One can hardly work for two or three hours without seeing at least one meteor in the very small field of view of the telescope. The number given above, then, is clearly a minimum. Prof. Alexander Herschel has shown that the average weight of a meteor may be taken as 5 grams ; whence it follows that the earth receives *hourly* not less than 2,250 kilograms, or 4,950 pounds of foreign material, deposited upon it from the celestial spaces.

—The earth moves in its orbit with a velocity of about nineteen miles per second, and passes through an immense number of these meteorites. Doctor Kleiber's main object is to determine how many such bodies there are in space at the distance of the earth from the sun, or rather what is the *density* of the interstellar spaces, supposing these meteors to be uniformly distributed. 450,000 meteors fall on the earth, compelled by its attraction, every hour. He has shown that the earth's *attraction* is responsible for 20 per cent. of these, and that therefore 360,000 would be encountered in one hour by a globe the size of the earth provided such a globe had no attraction. As he says, "from this minimum value it may be seen how vast the number is of these small cosmical bodies; and that we must consider all of them together as a peculiar dust-like, interplanetary medium, which seems fit to play an important rôle in the economy of the solar system." By comparing the weight of these 360,000 meteors met in each hour with the space traversed by the earth in this time, it follows that the density of the interplanetary medium cannot be *less* than $\frac{1}{10{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000}$ of the density of water. A Russian memoir by Doctor Keller has shown that the density of the interplanetary medium at any distance from the sun is inversely proportional to the square root of the distance. From this law, and from what has gone before, it follows that the quantity of sunlight reflected from this cosmical dust cannot be less than $\frac{1}{5{,}000}$ of the light of the full moon. Observations of the light of the solar corona show that its brightness is not greater than that of the full moon. And hence the density of the interplanetary medium is not *greater* than $\frac{1}{1{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000}$ of the density of water. If it were greater we should have a solar corona brighter than the full moon, which is contrary to experience. It is an important step to have fixed such limits as these even approximately, and there are various interesting applications of these data to pending astronomical problems, such as the effect of a resisting medium on comets, etc.; and to these Doctor Kleiber intends to return in a later paper.

PARLIAMENTARY RULES.

A Practical Manual of Parliamentary Rules, compiled for the ready reference of Societies, Conventions, Public Meetings, and Deliberative and Legislative Assemblies. By Ainsworth R. Spofford, Librarian of Congress. Chicago: A. H. Andrews & Co. 1884. 16mo, pp. 207.

THIS latest addition to parliamentary manuals is of great value, although it will not fully meet the hopes of its author. His aim is "to make a book of practical utility in the conduct of business in voluntary societies and public meetings," but it must be said that Cushing's 'Manual,' for so many years the standard authority, is much better adapted for the use of the bodies named. As we propose to show, Mr. Spofford's book is defective on the essential points, just where Cushing's is most precise and ample, and in reality is distinctly inferior to it. On the other hand, this new Manual is of value as giving a very good idea of the parliamentary law of Congress, especially of the House of Representatives; and its comparisons of American practice with British and French methods are very instructive and novel.

Parliamentary law is the common law of assemblies, based primarily on common sense, and secondly on the experience of centuries. Like the common law, it yields to positive statutes, but it must be presumed to exist and to govern in all cases where no direct rule has been adopted. For example, it is an axiom of parliamentary law that the majority rules. Again, no one disputes the principle that the major part of any body is usually a quorum, and that the majority of that quorum can in regular sessions act with the authority of the full body. It will be conceded that there must be a presiding officer with power to maintain order, and a recording officer to preserve minutes of all official action. No assembly can meet without a few such principles being of necessity operative, because without them the gathering is but a mob.

But, after these few natural rules, come many others which experience has shown to be of nearly equal importance, and these are now considered to be accepted as parliamentary law. Such are the rules that members shall be courteous to each other and refrain from personalities; that only one member shall speak at a time; that a subject once disposed of shall not be revived; and that a continuing assembly shall have a definite and well-known order of business, so that every member may know his rights. By a further refinement it has been found that a few general motions include all the possible variations, and parliamentary law undertakes to specify these and to prescribe their effects.

Thus, a motion having been made, it may not be in the best form or of sufficient scope ; hence comes the idea of amending it. Again, the assembly may or may not be ready to act ; hence motions to table, to assign, or to vote at once. Debate may have continued sufficiently ; or a member may wish to have a subject rejected. It may be desirable to reconsider former action, or to send a matter to a committee ; and, lastly, the assembly may adjourn, either *sine die* or to its next meeting, without coming to any vote. Add to these the motion to suspend any formal rule of the body, and the motion of appeal from a decision of the chair, and the list will cover probably all parliamentary law of the highest force.

As a specimen of parliamentary law in its second stage, the motion for the previous question is of interest. It arose first as a motion to avoid putting the main subject to vote, and was as follows : "that the main question be put." If negatived, the main question was suppressed for the whole session of Parliament, without a vote on its merits. Sir Harry Vane is credited with the next form of the motion—"that the main question be *now* put"—which, if refused, suppressed that main question only for the day. The present form of the motion is the same, but it is used also to cut off other motions. Thus, A makes a motion, B moves an amendment, C moves to assign the matter or to commit it to a committee, D moves the previous question ; if this be voted, the effect is to come to a vote on A's motion, cutting off those of B and C. But, by long-continued custom, B's amendment is not cut off, and is considered first : an apparent contradiction, which, however, seems to work well. Herein we see a rule evolved from its first stage, which was to prevent any putting of the question, next applied to stopping debate, and lastly used to check dilatory motions already made, but which, *if put first*, might be favored by the majority. Experience had taught the leaders the advantage of having the affirmative side of any vote.

The next step of Parliamentarians was to state what of these standard motions could be applied to each other. It was soon agreed that an amendment could be amended ; but almost as soon it was decided that only one amendment to a pending amendment could be entertained. Then they required that an amendment should be germane to the subject matter. But it was ruled that a motion to lay on the table or take from the table could not be amended, postponed, or otherwise dealt with, because it was in itself a perfect, single act. A motion to postpone or assign to another hour or day, however, was obviously open to amendment to another date; but as these motions are applicable to the main subject, they cannot be applied to each other. If A makes a motion, and B moves to assign the consideration, and C moves to lay on the table, C's motion is to lay the whole subject there with the pending motions, all of which are of record. But C cannot move to lay B's motion on the table, because the latter is part of the main subject and applicable to it only.

One variation from the rule has been made quite recently. Under the law as above stated the previous question could not apply to any of the subsidiary motions : it affected only the main question. If an amendment was offered, no motion could be made to table, assign, commit, or reject the amendment alone, nor for the previous question on *it* alone. Yet an amendment often caused a long debate, and other members were afraid to move the previous question, as they had amendments to offer. Hence Congress (House of Representatives) has provided that the previous question may be called for, specially, on an amendment, so as to close debate and procure a vote at once on that amendment, leaving the main topic open for further amendment. So, again, recognizing possible varying shades

of opinion, some bodies, like the Massachusetts House of Representatives, have invented a motion to close debate at a fixed hour and minute, which motion ranks lower than that for the previous question, and does not order the *main* question to be put, free from pending motions to assign, commit, etc. It is of no tactical value, but simply stops debate.

It must be evident that all manuals must agree upon the main points of parliamentary law. The value of each treatise will therefore depend upon the clearness with which these principles are set forth, and the diligence with which difficult points are searched out and expounded. Since Cushing we have had "Warrington" (*i.e.*, W. S. Robinson, Clerk of Mass. House of Representatives), Robert (Major Henry M.), and Fish (George T., of Rochester), the latter offering a system of references and diagrams not without value to the expert. But we cannot discover that Mr. Spofford's Manual is any improvement on these in plan or execution. He seems to consider the national House of Representatives to be the highest authority; but in fact its rules are often entirely unfit for smaller bodies, and a recital of them obscures the subject. For example, his eighth chapter, pp. 79-158, is devoted to the topic of Questions, *i. e.*, Motions. Yet in no place does Mr. Spofford set forth a list of subsidiary or usual motions, such as Cushing's Manual gives on pp. 46-48. For popular use some such brief statement is of prime importance, for these are the first motions the presiding officer must decide.

Probably few errors will be found, though Spofford on p. 80 says, "It is a rule without exception that no one can address the chair or the meeting except to make a motion of some kind, or to speak upon a motion of some kind already before the body." This certainly avoids, if it does not negative, the point so often raised, that a member may speak before making his motion (see Cushing,' Law of Parliamentary Bodies,' secs. 1557, 1558). Mr. Spofford does not in terms explain the question of a quorum under the rules of the House. If a quorum be present but does not vote, what happens? The House must have a practice if not a rule on this point, but we do not find it in this book.

The comments on the custom of Parliament and the French Chamber of Deputies are new and interesting. They fail, however, to show that "they manage these things better abroad." In fact, the English House of Commons found its rules utterly inadequate a few years ago, and was obliged to reconstruct them. The practice of our State Legislatures is probably much nearer a proper standard, and even our large cities have councils or assemblies of a size sufficient to call for considerable knowledge of parliamentary law. As an illustration, Spofford says (p. 153): "The motion to lay upon the table is among the most frequently offered motions in public assemblies. It is not amendable nor debatable." This may be true at Washington, but the Massachusetts House allows ten minutes' debate, and it would seem that the general law must be like that custom. In fact, in many bodies the motion to table is of very infrequent occurrence. The order of business established by an assembly soon settles the question of the tactical value of motions, and this affects their frequency. For many obvious reasons the practice of Congress is not a good rule for other bodies. It is useful for comparison, but it does not establish parliamentary law even for this country. A philosophic treatise on the subject is still to be written, and until one shall appear in which the conclusions on doubtful points are well fortified by reasoning, there can be no standard authority. It is to be hoped that this country may yet have the credit of furnishing the model.

A BALTIC REALIST.

Im Gottesländchen. Erzählungen aus dem Kurländischen Leben. Von Theodor Hermann Pantenius. Mitau. 1880-'81. 2 vols., pp. 267 and 276.

THE countries to the south of the Baltic, the North German lowlands and the Baltic provinces of Russia, have a well-marked and peculiar character. The long-drawn-out landscape, with here a heath, there a marsh or lake, further on immense stretches of slightly rolling grain-fields, with few low hills and no rocks, has a colder and sterner character than that of the Low Countries bordering on the North Sea. It is the home of a strong race with ways of its own. The soil is so rebellious to culture, the climate so hostile, that the mere struggle for existence would have occupied all the energies of a race inferior to this; but this one, though slow-growing, has always had strength to spare: witness, for example, that style of Gothic architecture which begins to be seen already at Hanover and Lüneburg, and dies away on the façade of the Schwartzhäupterhaus at Riga; which produced the great castle of the Knights of the Teutonic Order at Marienburg, and cities so fair as Lübeck and Danzig. The style is in general severe and somewhat deficient in grace, like the land and its owners, and when it bursts out into an exuberance of ornament, the result is rather grotesque than beautiful; but its better examples have a dignity, an individuality, a picturesqueness that place them in the first rank of German monuments.

To the southwest of the Baltic these lands have been gradually subdued to something like softness. Nowhere can finer beechwoods be seen than in East Holstein; the neighborhood of Lübeck often reminds one of parts of England; the fields of Mecklenburg prompt the fat laugh of Fritz Reuter. But as one goes on toward the east, the ungrateful nature of the soil becomes more and more evident; strange types of people often and oftener uncouth in costume and increasingly doubtful in respect of cleanliness appear, until in the Baltic provinces of Russia it is only along the coast that one finds a narrow border of the civilization of Germany, a little dulled in its outer aspects, and back of that an immense stretch occupied by Finns, Esthonians, Letts, Lithuanians—peoples whose development is only beginning.

The traveller will remember seeing in this district towns in which are entire quarters where no one not born noble may build or live. The nobility and *bourgeoisie*, kept carefully apart from one another, are still equally of German origin; the peasants are separated from both, not only by barriers of caste, but also of race and language. The coast towns have the air and features of old-fashioned North German cities before the great Prussian machine had crushed the native individuality out of them; but one has only to take a short drive back into the country to find that, aside from a German *Hof* here and there, the houses and the people are utterly unlike anything in Western Europe. For ourselves, we have never been able to shape exactly in words the impression produced by these landscapes. There is no doubt that they are melancholy even when clothed in the tender green of early summer. Under the pale northern sky the thin vegetation stretches out for miles and miles in gentle undulations. The ragged edges of both roads and culture, the unkempt look of the farmsteadings, the meagre and antiquated utensils, the sad-colored, often squalid, costumes of the peasantry, have nothing of the hopeful rawness of our frontier settlements. They have rather the jaded look of centuries of bad management and poverty. An oppressed race, upon an unfriendly soil, and in a rude climate, has for ages fought a battle for existence, not quite a losing one, but one where the gains have been but slight for all the courage and perseverance displayed. There is, of course, better and worse among these provinces, and it may be that the picture we have drawn is not of the best portions. Oppression is everywhere a thing of the past. The peasants, who were freed about half a century ago, have lately been working into the position of land-owners, and there are many signs of a new life and a better future.

For the hurried traveller these lands may seem to present but slight attractions, but to a closer examination there is no such thing as an uninteresting country. We are therefore glad to find in the author cited as the pretext of this article the means of a real and thorough acquaintance with one, at least, of the Baltic provinces.

The world that Pantenius opens to us is that of country life in Courland. There are the nobles on their estates with their bailiffs, gamekeepers, and other dependents, the *bourgeois* proprietor, the country doctor, parson and lawyers—all these of German blood; and the peasants, tenants, and owners, and servants, all these Letts. We had been told long ago that the nobles of the Baltic provinces were full to absurdity of the pride of caste, and, on the whole, in spite of the amiable and liberal examples whom he presents to us, Pantenius strongly bears out the charge. His principal characters are generally charming people, but we find the baronial head, as a rule, furnished with obsolete prejudices, and his manners too often of that Prussian type which, when scratched, reveals the drill sergeant. There is no suggestion of caricature. These are simply Germans of the good old types; banished from the brand-new empire, they still linger beyond the imperial frontier: like the art of their race, there is always in them, with a hundred admirable and noble qualities, a side of quaintness, even grotesqueness. Where there is grotesqueness in the characters of Pantenius it is merely because they are living and true. The author, of course, does not see it as we do—for that he would need to be a foreigner; but he is evidently conscious that his native Courland is a rich mine of individuality, and he works it as one who takes pleasure in his work. A long residence in the neighborhood of the Baltic brings home to us in a peculiar manner the fidelity of his portraits. The faces, the little turns of manner, the style in conversation, all are known to us, and we recognize them in the pages of our author as in a photograph. It is, then, the first of his qualities that, even to the last *comparse*, his figures are alive. You feel that you have met every one of them. With them it is as if you had actually visited Courland, had been made at home in every circle, had even taken part in family affairs. In this way the local questions, political and social, the cultivation of the soil, the relations even of given landlords and tenants, assume for you a personal importance. Of course, in a way, any novel that is at all good takes you for a while into its world. We mean to assert here that in this respect the novels of Pantenius have a peculiar force. It is long since any fictitious world has so impressed us with a sense of its reality. At this writing we can scarcely persuade ourselves that we have not recently come back from Courland with a store of fresh memories and a new circle of friends and acquaintances.

If the first quality of Pantenius be that he sets before us a living Courland, his first defect is part and parcel of the same. He has sought to portray his province on all its sides at once, and as a consequence you are sometimes led to wish that the people would talk a little more about their love affairs and their small passions, the naughty ones as well as the excusable, and just a

trifle less about the relations of Germans to Letts, nobles to *roturiers*, Courlanders to Russia and Germany. We would not intimate that the author falls into the unpardonable sin of didacticism; given the serious nature of the German race, it is quite probable that we get in these stories an even smaller proportion of talk on such topics than we should get in a week spent at Mitau. We are really instructed and, what is more, interested, and the essence of our complaint, if it be one at all, is that the realism of these novels, being German, is perhaps a shade too conscientious—that in works of art we might have hoped to be spared altogether what would in real life have made the heavier moments of our week in Mitau. The personages, moreover, have in themselves an interest so great, so absorbing, that we could wish that the force of the writer had been exclusively occupied with their development. However, the book was written by a Courlander for Courlanders, and for Courlanders who seem still to need the agitation of questions that to us are somewhat elementary; and, as we have said these conversations really help one to a better, understanding of country and people, and so we may conclude that, if there be a defect at all, it is at worst but the exaggeration of an excellence.

Since we are on the chapter of defects we will make a clean breast of them. Our author has a way of giving a likeness in a few strokes that reminds one of Dickens, the more so that there is with it something of the Dickens tendency to mark individuality by catchwords. An easy extension of this *Schablonensystem* makes an irritating blot upon the surface of one story, "Im Banne der Vergangenheit." The central idea, the mainspring of the story, is the suffering of the present generation in consequence of the mistakes and misdeeds of its forefathers. The theme, handled with a force that is truly tragic is denaturalized, to a certain extent, by the manner in which, at stated intervals, each character, in words recurring like the refrain of a song, pronounces himself under the curse of the past. The dignity of tragedy, as well as the verisimilitude, is impaired by a touch borrowed from the vaudeville.

The worst fault of all is the catastrophe of "Im Banne der Vergangenheit." The hero, Werner, a young man cast in the Hamlet mould, with his melancholy, his irresolutions and contradictions, and the beautiful Therese, a person of great charm and distinction, ought, in the circumstances in which they were placed, to have brought about the catastrophe solely by the joint working of their characters. The germs of a noble tragedy were all there, and needed only development. To end such a situation by a *deus ex machina* was certainly a failure in invention, such as one must often put up with in the settlement of the affairs of this world, but which one cannot pardon in a work of art amenable to human reason in its composition.

But how nobly these faults are redeemed! In fact, they scarcely count at all in the general effect. The pleasure of knowing so intimately one's new acquaintances—of finding them all so full of life, so individual—makes one forget that on occasion they may, like other people, say too much about a given subject, or that their end is sometimes different from what one might have wished. We fear it will be long before we make the acquaintance in fiction of a person so charming as Tante Evchen. You learn to know her solely from her own sayings; there is no explanation of her, so that we misunderstood her in the beginning and then came to love her, just as we should have done in the every-day world. We love, too, Karl Johanson and Eberhard; we are fascinated with the Countess Westerberg; and we are sure that we ought to like the wise and wordy Senator, and are sorry that we cannot. But most of all we like the Count in "Unser Graf"—to our mind the most complete as a work of art of the four stories that make up the two slender volumes. One expects to find a man so universally praised full of faults, and so he is: very humanly faulty, however, so that one yields to the force of the charm that has subdued every one else. It is only when the author gives in to the temptation to create a personage to give utterance to his favorite principles, as in the case of the Senator, that he fails to touch our sympathy. The case, however, is of extreme rarity. The portraiture is generally of so impartial a realism, and yet, though the wrinkles are all drawn, the relief is so full, so vigorous, that the result is almost an illusion. It would not be easy in our English literature to find a parallel to so much impartiality. We might instance figures like Christina Light in 'Roderick Hudson,' but in general the novelists of our tongue show very plainly whether their sympathies are for or against the creatures of their art. Even Thackeray points the finger at Becky Sharpe, and George Eliot does not hide her conviction that Hetty is but a poor creature. But here are people, perhaps not on the same level as creations, who stand so alone by themselves that it would often be easy for two readers to take exactly opposite views of their characters. In judging them, we feel that we are judging, not words, or actions, or principles, but flesh and blood.

We have repeatedly asked ourselves with what group Pantenius might be classed—what were his nearest literary relationships. As chance would have it, we read his volumes between a novel of Zola and 'I Promessi Sposi' of Manzoni. The latter has nowadays (more's the pity!) no very near kin. It helps, however, to give largeness to our view of the things of to-day, if we put them into direct comparison with the things of the past; and Manzoni has served in this case very much the purpose that might be served by putting a landscape of Corot into the Square Room of the Louvre. All that makes the work of Corot distinctively modern and French would be thrown into relief by the contrast. To put Pantenius into relation with Manzoni would, however, at present lead us too far. With Zola a comparison would be more legitimate, as Pantenius seems to have studied contemporary "naturalism" in France, although, by the conventions of the society in which he lives, and the exigencies of his nature, he is not naturalist, but realist, like the writers of our tongue. The two classes have been confounded, but they are in fact far from being the same thing. A more serious Jane Austen, a somewhat profounder Anthony Trollope, a Thackeray who should take the wrongs and foibles of society in a spirit of hopeful philosophy, would all have more or less direct kindred with Pantenius. It is not a question of putting the one in the same rank with the others—it is merely a question of affinities. With all this, our author still remains always a German in qualities of race, while in all that gives local coloring he is—and this he would probably prefer to be considered—a true Courlander, and the most amiable and charming of *ciceroni* to that interesting country.

PERRY'S AMERICAN EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

The History of the American Episcopal Church. 1587-1883. By Wm. Stevens Perry, D.D., LL.D., Bishop of Iowa. [Projected by Clarence F. Jewett.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1885.

BISHOP PERRY'S history is conspicuous in the crowd of ecclesiastical histories that have lately issued from the press, and is the most ambitious of them all. It is in two superb quarto volumes of 665 and 696 pages, printed upon beautiful paper, in handsome, broad-faced type, with generous margins. There are many illustrations, some of them very interesting—faces of distinguished men and pictures of old churches. There are also hundreds of facsimile autographs and facsimiles of various important documents referred to in the text. The method of the work is similar to that of the monograph 'History of Boston.' But in the present case the body of the history is from a single hand, while the monographs are relegated to an appendix of about 200 pages, in the first volume, and a little more than 200 pages in the second.

Bishop Perry's 950 pages afford a capital illustration of Carlyle's distinction between artist and artisan history. The Bishop's work is conspicuously of the latter kind. Everywhere there is evidence of the utmost industry and patience and fidelity in the collection of materials and the interpretation of the various tendencies at work in the development of the Church. He can have found his place no sinecure, adding a task like this to his habitual cares, and he deserves the gratitude of his fellow-churchmen in full measure for its performance. But if he cherished the ambition of Macaulay, to make his history "as interesting as a novel," he certainly has not succeeded. He has made it generally dull. That he has not assimilated his materials is impressed upon us from the beginning to the end. Roxbury pudding-stone is not so full of pebbles as these chapters are full of quotations, and they make a constant friction for the reader's mind. The temper of the book is conciliatory in the main, so far as different parties in the Church are concerned. In the ritualistic controversy the author takes refuge in the barest and meagrest matter-of-fact statement. But his sympathy with Doctor Muhlenberg in the "Memorial Controversy" of 1853 is undisguised, and is not easily reconciled with the strictness of his churchmanship in general. The tone of advocacy and apology is dominant throughout, but of belligerency there is very little. The relations of the Churchmen and the Puritans is most trying to Bishop Perry's patience. He cannot love the Puritans, but his treatment of them is the milk of human kindness as compared with Doctor Coit's monograph on the same subject. It is not a little strange that Doctor Coit was chosen for this topic, as his temper had been already proved. His monograph is a screed, a diatribe, which can be profitably skipped. Its heat and passion come upon us all the more disagreeably after Mr. Robert C. Winthrop's dispassionate monograph, "The Relations of the Founders of the Massachusetts Colony to the Church of England." What Doctor Coit will have it was a vile apostasy, Mr. Winthrop is disposed to think a necessity of the general situation of the colonists in a new world, where bishops were remote and prayer-books were but few.

Bishop Perry's first volume brings his ecclesiastical annals to the conclusion of the Revolutionary War. His chapters on the relations of early discovery and settlement to the Church of England are merely curious. They may please a certain vanity, but the events so patiently unearthed had no appreciable influence upon the subsequent direction of ecclesiastical affairs. The succeeding chapters on the first Churchmen in New England, Virginia, and the Middle States are of much more importance. Bishop Perry is not disposed to allow that his own Church was without its earnest pioneers, willing, if need be, to suffer for their faith, and having frequent opportunity. Other interesting chapters in the first volume are those on "Governor Andros and the Building of King's Chapel, Boston"; "The Wesleys and George Whitefield, Missionaries of the Church in Georgia"; "The Struggle for the

Episcopate"; and "The Position of the Clergy at the Opening of the War for Independence." The last-named of these subjects has ever been unsavory to the American Episcopalian of more recent times. But Bishop Perry makes it plain that all the Episcopalians of the Revolutionary time were not Tories. In Pennsylvania the prevailing sentiment was revolutionary. In New York "the influence of the leading clergy was most patiently and perseveringly exercised in the interests of the crown. . . . These gifted, keen, intelligent men were untiring in their efforts to counteract the wild schemings for independence manifested by the people of Massachusetts." Samuel Seabury, the ablest of them all, was the "Westchester Farmer" of the celebrated pamphlet war in which Alexander Hamilton, then a boy of eighteen in King's College, first made his mark. He had been to Boston, and had come back a convert to the doctrines of the Sons of Liberty. Seabury remained a royalist all through the war; and the fact that he was the first bishop consecrated when the war was over, is significant of the average political state of mind of his coreligionists in New England and New York. It is evident that Provoost, the patriot rector of Trinity, New York, was the favorite of a much smaller party.

Bishop Perry begins his second volume with an account of the men and measures of the period of reorganization that was made necessary by the successful termination of the war for independence. The Church had lost its royal head, but it could now have the bishops it had so long desired in vain. Seabury, refused consecration in England, secured it in Scotland; but White of Pennsylvania and Provoost of New York were soon after consecrated at Lambeth. Provoost, who was by no means anxious to make the American Church an exact transcript of the English Church, is not a favorite with Bishop Perry. It is evident that the laxity of his theological opinions was a trait of many Churchmen of his time. Our historian describes the type as "a theology raised but a little above the level of morality in its human bearings, and barely exceeding the teachings of natural religion in its relations to God." In practice "the level of morality" was not always reached. Bishop Provoost's proposed prayer-book gave particular offence because it required the minister "to repel an evil liver from the holy table." This proposed prayer-book, which was finally rejected, is the subject of a chapter, and there are other chapters on the principles underlying the Church Constitution of 1789, on several of the earlier episcopates, on the different parties in the Church and its expansion South and West. Only a few pages are given to the influence of the Oxford Tractarian Movement on the American Church, and, in truth, it was but slight. The next chapter must have been a painful one to write, and a paragraph would have been sufficient for the ends of justice. It treats of "Troubles in Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey," the Onderdonk trials for drunkenness and lechery, and Bishop Doane's unfortunate financial management. The mantle of charity is made as broad as possible, but there is a margin which it does not cover.

"The Attitude of the Church during the Civil War" is disposed of in seven pages. Of its attitude on the questions leading up to it there is not a word. The hardest things that have been said against the Episcopal Church for its complaisance in the matter of slavery are less damaging than this dreadful silence. The word slavery does not occur. That there was such a thing in existence; that the country was distracted by it for thirty years—of this no sign. Words having come to blows, Bishop Perry is happy to record the general refusal of the Church to take any part in the great struggle. The only exceptions were a day of fasting with a collection for the Sanitary Commission, and "the pastoral of 1862," which "stands alone among our Church 'state papers' in respect to its declaration of opinion on matters of a civil nature." What the opinion was, we are not told. In the special prayers ordained for the day of "fasting and humiliation," it is noticeable that there is no reference to the matter of slavery, though Lincoln's first Emancipation Proclamation had been published only two weeks before. The chapter on "The Reunion of the North and South" is equally discreet in its avoidance of all expressions that might give offence to those whose sympathies were with slavery and secession. But in these respects Bishop Perry's chapters are in perfect keeping with the general attitude of his Church throughout the anti-slavery contest and the war. Like the spirits whom Dante encountered in the outer court of hell, it was "neither for God nor for his enemies."

There are eight monographs in the first volume and eleven in the second. They constitute the more interesting and valuable portion of the whole. Of Mr. Winthrop's and Doctor Coit's we have already spoken. Mr. DeCosta's, on "The Early Discoveries and Settlements of the New England Coast," is a polemical exaggeration of the function of Gorges and Hakluyt as compared with the Pilgrims and the Puritans. Prof. Moses Coit Tyler has a congenial subject in "Dean Berkeley's Sojourn in America," and treats it pleasantly. The seventh monograph, so called, is in reality a polygraph, for it is made up of fifteen brief monographs on "Historic Churches." The eighth also is composite; its subject being "The Church Charities of the Eighteenth Century." One of these was the Orphan House at Bethesda, Georgia, to which Whitefield contributed the proceeds of the slave-labor of a plantation which had been given him by his pious friends.

The monographs in the second volume are of unequal interest. To vary Mr. Lincoln's phrase a little, for those who like such a discussion as that on the "General Ecclesiastical Constitution of the American Church," it is just the sort of discussion they will like. It is good after its kind. Probably no other person could have done the thing so well. Mr. Wittmeyer's monograph on the Huguenots does not tell the story of Ribault and Menendez so well as Mr. Parkman's 'Pioneers of France in the New World,' but it demonstrates that the early Huguenots were in closer fellowship with the Episcopal Church than with the Dutch Reformed and Presbyterian. Bishop Provoost came of this stock, and Peter Faneuil of Boston. Mr. Phillips Brooks's monograph on "A Century of Church Growth in Boston" is not such impressive reading as his sermons, but it gives the facts and figures well enough, and is enriched with several pictures of his church. One, of the tower, is by all odds the most beautiful illustration in the two volumes. His closing sentence contains an expression of his own ideal, made that of many others by his genius and sincerity: "A lofty belief in man's spiritual possibilities, a large hope for man's eternal destinies, a desire for the careful and critical study of the Bible, and an earnest insistance upon the comprehensive character of the Church of Christ." There is a monograph of monographs on the educational institutions of the Church; one on "The Church in the Confederate States," written with less consideration for Northern than for Southern sentiments, and with none for General Butler's feelings. Mr. Henry Coppée writes of the literary Churchmen of the ante-Revolutionary period with an instructed air, and Mr. Julius H. Ward of "Church Literature since the Revolution," with the broadest sympathies. He reserves his final word of praise for Dr. A. V. G. Allen's 'Continuity of Christian Thought,' a book which Dean Stanley would have found encouraging and satisfactory. The concluding monograph, on "The Hymnology of the Church," is generally depressing. There is an excellent index. The proofs throughout have not been read so carefully as they should have been, especially in the matter of dates.

A Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Edited by Sir George Grove. Part 20. Macmillan.

THIS part of Grove's Dictionary, presumably the last but one, extends from "'Tis the Last Rose" to "(Die) Verschworenen." Tschaikowsky is very inadequately treated, so that "Verdi" is the only long biographical article (fifteen pages). Among the technical subjects, the following are of special importance: Toccata, Tonal Fugue, Tone, Tonic Sol-Fa, Touch, Transposition, Treatment of the Organ, Tremolo, Trio, Trombone, Trumpet, Tuning, Turn, United States, University Societies, Variations, Vaudeville. In Dr. C. H. H. Parry's contributions on "Variations" and "Trio," the reader will find, as usual, the clearest and most impartial treatment of the subject in hand; while Mr. W. H. Stone's contributions represent the other extreme of misstatement and prejudiced suppression of interesting facts. In the article on "Trio," Doctor Parry briefly characterizes the works of this class by the leading composers, but omits all mention of the most *poetic* trio ever written—namely, Chopin's. Mr. Stone makes the entirely original statements that Mozart "seems to have known the capabilities of every instrument better than any musician that ever lived"; that "no instrument has been so misused and *neglected* by modern composers as the trombone" (!), and that "the quiet, smooth, legato method of using it is almost a lost art." It is useless to refute such statements at length, for every tyro knows that it remained for Berlioz and Wagner to develop fully the capabilities of wind, and especially brass, instruments; but these composers are not mentioned either under "Trombone" or "Trumpet," whereas Handel and Mendelssohn, whom no one has ever accused of unusual powers in orchestrating, are of course duly considered.

How completely these two second-rate composers still dominate over English musical life, is shown in the article on that peculiar English system of notation called the Tonic Sol-Fa—the benefits of this system being naïvely summed up by referring to "the many hard-working people all over the world who have thus been taught, in a simple way, to enter into the enjoyment of the music of Handel or Mendelssohn." The statement is made that 39,000 copies of the "Messiah" have been sold printed in this notation; that one firm has printed in the same way 16,000 pages of music; and that 80 per cent. of the children in English primary schools, who are taught to sing by note at all, learn on this plan, which has also been introduced in the English colonies. Such a thing is only possible in a nation which cultivates the oratorio almost exclusively, and worships Handel and Mendelssohn as the highest gods. Nations not exclusively addicted to simple oratorio music will never accept this notation, because as soon as complicated music is used, which frequently changes its key, the advantages of this system are lost. To instrumental music it is not applicable, thus necessitating the learning of two systems. The Sol-Fa is, in fact, a modernized form of a mediæval system that was crowded out in the struggle for existence by the staff notation, which is infinitely superior to Sol-Fa because it gives to the eye a sensuous representation of the rising and falling of tones.

It appears as if Doctor Grove had been some-

what careless in editing the present part of his dictionary. In the article just named, C is referred to as "a certain white key lying between two black keys" on the piano. The word Nibelungen is repeatedly misspelt "Niebelungen." Regarding Doctor Tourgée, we are told that "he is at present in robust health, and it is to be hoped that his useful life may be spared for long"—a statement which hardly seems in place in a musical dictionary. The greatest surprise, however, is reserved for the reader in the article on Verdi. The writer, who seems to be an Italian, asserts with reference to Wagner that "Paris has notoriously shut her ears to him, and New York appears as yet not to have heard one of his operas"! Such ignorance may be pardonable in an Italian, but is not in the editor, for whose benefit we will state that "Tannhäuser" and "Lohengrin" were first heard in New York twenty-six and fifteen years ago respectively; that "Lohengrin" has since that date been given almost every year; that the "Flying Dutchman" and "Die Walküre" are also known here; and that at the past season of German opera at the Metropolitan Opera-house twenty-five performances out of fifty-eight were devoted to Wagner. The writer of the article in question chuckles through several columns over the fact that "amongst living composers Verdi is undoubtedly the most universally popular"—which is notoriously untrue, since in Paris Meyerbeer and Gounod are more often performed, and in Germany (the only country that has a large number of first-class opera-houses) Wagner, Meyerbeer, Mozart, Lortzing, and Weber outrank Verdi in popularity; while New York, as just shown, seems disposed to follow Paris and Germany.

Two of the most entertaining articles in Part 20 are on Touch and on Tourte. In the former it is clearly shown why "all the higher qualities of pianoforte technique, such as crispness, delicacy, expression, sonority, etc., depend entirely upon touch"; and the writer justly maintains, against Mr. Orlando Steed, that it is possible to vary even the quality or timbre by differences in touch, owing to differences produced in the intensity of certain partial tones of which any given note is composed. Regarding the organ, the writer says that: "Until recent times, touch was an impossibility upon large organs. Burney, in his tour, in 1772, speaks of a touch so heavy that 'each key requires a foot instead of a finger to press it down'; again, of a performance by a M. Binder at Dresden, who at the conclusion was in as violent a heat with fatigue and exertion as if he had run eight or ten miles full speed over ploughed fields in the dog days."

What a good touch is on a keyed instrument good bowing is on instruments of the violin family; and in this matter the world owes so much to the French bow-maker Tourte, that the three columns assigned to him here are no more than his due. He replaced the "fearful implement" in use before his day by a bow of Pernambuco wood, which was strong and elastic without being heavy. He regulated the length of the stick, determined the rule for making it taper gradually toward the point, and invented the method of spreading the hairs and attaching them by means of a movable metal fitting on a slide of mother-of-pearl. "A very fine Tourte has been recently sold for £30; common ones vary in price from £5 to £10. It is a singular fact that there is no difference of opinion among violinists as to Tourte's merits. His bows are universally preferred to all others; and they show no signs of wearing out."

Mind Reading and Beyond. By William A. Hovey. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

Extracts from the published Proceedings of the (English) Society for psychical Research, in the matter of thought transference, make up nine-tenths of this little book. The reprint is a convenient condensation of this part of that Society's published work, and is illustrated with reproductions of the facsimile drawings of the original. To those who would like to understand what has been done, with the precautions used against accidental errors or intentional deception, Mr. Hovey's compilation presents within easy compass all that is valuable. The "Beyond," in this case, is the last chapter, of twenty pages, which is the author's personal contribution to the general theme. It is in substance this argument: that the body in no true sense is the man—that the man is the soul; that the body certainly dies, and that the man probably lives after the body's death; that it is not incredible that the soul or spirit should project itself beyond its own body during life, as, indeed, he thinks the telepathic phenomena he has collected prove; and when disembodied at death, being thus freed from physical trammels, *a fortiori* it almost certainly possesses such power. We may very honestly hold that there are spirits, ministering or otherwise, not in the flesh. But it does not seem that Mr. Hovey's reasoning settles it; for it by no means follows that the human spirit has the power of communication after separation from the body, any more than that an arm can strike after its nervous trunks have been severed. It is probable that the union of the spirit with the flesh is essential for the manifestation of the former; and as, for instance, physical agents are necessary to demonstrate electricity, so brain substance is required for the operation of mind.

The book is well made, but in the decoration on the cover, interesting when understood, sarcastic sceptics might see a suggestion of expectant credulity.

The English School of Painting. By Ernest Chesneau. Translated by L. N. Etherington, with preface by Professor Ruskin. Cassell & Co.

Roadside Songs of Tuscany, translated and illustrated by Francesca Alexander, and edited by John Ruskin. Part 5. John Wiley & Sons.

We had occasion to review the original edition of Chesneau's study of English art, and have only to say of this translation of it into English that it is careful without being faithful, for it misses the spirit of the original and almost justifies what Ruskin said in one of his lectures, that the French language was that of criticism. It is, however, literal, and, in spite of an awkward rendering here and there, will, to those who cannot read the original, convey all the essential elements.

But what enhances the interest of this edition for English readers is the preface by Professor Ruskin, and two or three notes to the text, in which he introduces his French confrère to the English public in a generous and appreciative spirit, which is really characteristic of one side of the many-sided—and many-angled—English master. The chief point in this brief preface is curiously illustrative of Ruskin's general error in reference to art, lying in the assertion that "every nation is, in a certain sense, a judge of its own art, from whose decision there is no appeal: in the common sense of the phrase, it 'knows what it likes,' and is only capable of producing what it likes"—a dictum which can only be made plausible by putting the theme which is made the occasion of art before art itself; and, even so, it is of disputable justice. A nation chooses and rejoices in its own subjects of contemplation, taken, in the main, from its own social structure or history; but the art which is employed in portraying those subjects is the same for all nations, and liked or disliked, not according to nationality or individuality, but according to art education. It is this confusion between art and the material with which art deals that lies at the base of the apparent, and sometimes real, contradictions in Ruskin's teaching, and which in part accounts for his failure as an art teacher. This failure he himself sadly acknowledges, not appreciating, apparently, that when his pupils came to him for art instruction he only taught them drawing, and even that in a way which ignored the side by which art approaches it—*style*—to which he seems utterly indifferent.

One statement in reference to Turner in this preface we do not comprehend, coming from Professor Ruskin, or accept as a fact by whomever stated, viz., that "Turner is essentially a chiaroscurist." It seems to us, on the contrary, that though Turner had a singular and singularly artistic feeling for light and shade, he was essentially a colorist, and that in all his work the dictates of his color feeling absolutely ruled his color works. He was only a chiaroscurist when his picture was designed for white and black, as in the 'Liber Studiorum' and the pictures of the epoch which preceded the evolution of his system of color. In the pictures subsequent to that, he is essentially a colorist, and the proof of this lies in the fact that though he himself was able to translate this color into his own chiaroscuro, nobody else has ever been able to do so, and no engraving done since Turner's death has hit the secret of his translation. In all the drawings which Turner did expressly for the engraver, the color-feeling was necessarily subordinate; but in all that he did under the control of his fully developed powers, the white and black does not enter as a motive. Rembrandt was essentially a chiaroscurist, and his system of light and shade is ever dominant; and the comparison of the two will make it clear that Turner in his most developed work was essentially a colorist. To illustrate by an analogy in letters, we may say that Emerson, though a writer of verse, was essentially a prose writer, and Shelley as essentially a versifier; the basis of all literature—ideas—being a constant quantity and really the substantial frame of the whole work, whereas the designation of prose writer or versifier, as well as chiaroscurist or colorist, relates purely to the form in which the idea is clothed, and in this relation Turner is not so eminently distinguished as chiaroscurist as he is as colorist.

The want of perception of the value of style in drawing, which is a curious and perplexing trait of Ruskin's perceptions of art, accounts for his enthusiasm for Miss Alexander's work, of which one of the most justly eminent English artists has said, "We can excuse Ruskin's not believing in Michael Angelo, but not his believing in Miss Alexander." Miss Alexander's work has a most extraordinary precision and methodical quality of pen-line. It is like excellent Dutch engraving—patient, plodding, exact in outline and light and shade. Her drawing of flowers is altogether exquisite (for line work) as well as naïve and self-taught, and hence original as far as drawing can be original to a woman almost brought up in a studio, and familiar all her life with Italian art. But when it is a question of anything but flowers, it is artless in every sense of the word. She delights in compositions of the figure which certainly have the qualification of naïveté, but which are pure and even exaggerated *pose plastique*, without the slightest knowledge of human structure; for her figures are oftentimes heads, hands, and feet put on to sacks and bundles, the hands and heads drawn with the delicacy she gives her flowers, but with no other intention than the flowers. As for the composition and what most people who study art regard as its higher quali-

ties, the naïveté becomes simple childishness. Of these "lovely drawings," one of which is rendered in this number, Professor Ruskin says, they "are to my mind the most joyful, *because most credible*, sacred designs I ever yet saw"—in which statement we find again the repetition of the confusion before noticed between art and the verisimilitude of story-telling; a confusion which not only paralyzes all Ruskin's *art* teaching, but separates him in opinion and influence from the great body of artists and genuine *art*-teachers, to the injury of all concerned. It is worse than useless to link art to pietism; for however desirable it might be for the good of humanity to bind out art as the handmaid of religion, even the broadest, it could only succeed in diminishing the power for good of the one and the capacity for delight of the other. Even to science art has no obligation, nor, except incidentally, any relation; and its freedom and highest capabilities are instantly sacrificed when we insist on making it work on the lines of determined and absolute facts. The fact that Professor Ruskin finds his highest satisfaction in a work of art in the credibility of the design as an historical statement, demonstrates anew what we have always maintained, that in his view of things art is subordinated to, or confounded with, the moralities and naturalism. It may be that it would have been better for the world if it were so, but in fact the world was made a long time ago, and, we begin to find out, not on the same lines as the church; and while it may give a great shock to the sentiment of morality to learn that the most obscene art of Pompeii contains precisely the same æsthetic elements as the most devout art of the middle ages (and probably in much larger degree, on account of its entire freedom from any restraint of the schoolhouse), any study or teaching of art which does not recognize that it is so, will never operate from the fundamental principles of all art, on which alone a genuine school can be founded.

In admitting that morality is more important than art, and that science even has claims before it, we do not, therefore, accept any implication of its being in service to the one or the other. Art lends the faculties it has trained to the needs of education in any sphere of human thought—science, moral or social reform, as to hagiolatry or idolatry—as poetry might do and has done; but those faculties are merely the organs of expression, and the ideals which in art's supreme work are expressed by them are not those of morality or science any more than of idolatry or obscenity, but are its own, not to be confounded with any utilities, moralities, or immoralities. The end of art is the ideal—not nature, or history, or religion.

The Microscope in Botany: a Guide for the Microscopical Investigation of Vegetable Substances. From the German of Dr. Julius Wilhelm Behrens. Translated and edited by Rev. A. B. Hervey, A.M., assisted by R. H. Ward, M.D., F.R.M.S. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. Illustrated, 8vo, pp. xv, 466.

THIS translation of the well-known work of Doctor Behrens will be a very welcome handbook for students of microscopical botany. The principal American editor, Mr. Hervey, is known for his valuable contributions to the knowledge of the Algæ, while his assistant, Doctor Ward, is among the best-known experts in microscopical technique. They have been able, therefore, to make a division of labor which gives good results in both parts of the book. In the original, Doctor Behrens disclaims any purpose of making an exhaustive treatise upon the construction of the microscope, or of entering the proper domain of structural botany. He has given such a general description of the microscope and its accessories as will suffice for an intelligent command of its resources in actual investigation, and has made his strong point in a somewhat full treatment of the reagents most useful in the examination of vegetable substances, and of the tests for the principal substances themselves. When to this is added full instructions in the most approved methods of manipulation in this department of botanical work, the book becomes a really useful tool-book for the investigator.

The American edition differs most from the original in the first part, where very considerable changes and additions have been made. In the description of the microscope stand, Behrens naturally followed the Continental models. Doctor Ward, in adapting the work to American students, has substituted in his illustrations and descriptions the best of the simpler forms of American instruments, in which economy of cost has been successfully united with good workmanship, and with advantages generally found in European instruments of none but the more expensive class. He has added, also, a host of ingenious devices in accessories and in implements, which make the book one of the very best in this respect that have appeared. In the portions relating to the discrimination of substances by means of chemical reagents, there was less room for addition to the labors of Behrens, but Mr. Hervey has noted many of the suggestions of other recent experiments which bring the work down to date. The mechanical execution of the volume is excellent, and the illustrations are well drawn and engraved. Where the additions by the translator and his assistant editor have been incorporated into the text, they are marked by brackets and initials, so that no confusion between the original and the addenda is likely to arise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, W. L. The Adventures of Jimmy Brown. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Smith, Mary Stuart. Virginia Cookery Book. Harper & Brothers.
Stewart, Prof. B., and Gee, W. W. H. Lessons in Elementary Practical Physics. Vol. I. General Physical Processes. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Stoddard, Dr. J. T. Outline of Lecture Notes on General Chemistry. Boston: Harris, Rogers & Co. $1.
Taylor, H. His Autobiography. 1800—1875. In 2 vols Harper & Brothers.
The Book Annexed to the Report of the Joint Committee on the Book of Common Prayer, as Modified by the Action of the General Convention of 1883. E. & J. B. Young & Co. Also, James Pott & Co.
The Power and Authority of School Officers and Teachers, as Determined by the Courts of the Several States. Harper & Bros.
Thomann, G. Liquor Laws of the United States; their Spirit and Effect. United States Brewers' Association.
Towle, G. M. England and Russia in Asia. With Maps. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Trautmann, Prof. M. Die Sprachlaute im Allgemeinen, und die Laute des Englischen, Französischen und Deutschen im Besondern. Leipzig: Gustav Fock.
Treat, Mary. Home Studies in Nature. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Van Orden, W. H. Famous People of All Ages. A. L. Burt. 50 cents.
Vasili, Paul. Die Wiener Gesellschaft. Leipzig: H. Le Soudier; New York: Westermann. $1.90.
Waring, G. E., jr. How to Drain a House: Practical Information for Householders. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Walcker, K. Richard Cobden's Volkswirthschaftliche und Politische Ansichten. Hamburg: Nestler & Melle.
Wells, H. P. Fly-Rods and Fly-Tackle: Suggestions as to their Manufacture and Use. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.
Wendell, B. The Duchess Emilia: a Romance. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Williams, G. W. History of the Negro Race in America, from 1619 to 1880. Popular edition, two vols. in one. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.
Wilson, J. Thoughts on Science, Theology, and Ethics. Trübner & Co.

New Books.

MILITARY MANNERS AND Customs. By J. A. Farrer, author of 'Primitive Manners and Customs.' 12mo, $1.50.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 14, 1885.

The Week.

THERE is a growing uneasiness at the Treasury Department in view of the steady decline in the revenue, which has already overpassed the shrinkage estimated by ex-Secretary McCulloch. The unsatisfactory condition of trade is reflected in the lessened receipts from customs and internal revenue. Mr. McCulloch's estimate of $330,000,000 of revenue from all sources for the year ending June 30, 1885, is too large by $20,000,000, possibly by $25,000,000, while the estimate of expenditures ($290,000,000) was too small by the sum to be expended during the fiscal year for new cruisers authorized by Congress at the last session. The estimates of expenditures included $47,000,000 for the sinking fund, and showed a surplus over all disbursements of $39,000,000. According to present appearances there will be a surplus not exceeding $15,000,000, and it is likely to fall below this amount, since the shrinkage of receipts appears to be progressive. Of course the redemption of the public debt by bond calls must upon this showing cease. The operation of the sinking fund will reduce the actual liabilities of the Government, but we have come to a pause in the cancellation of the interest-bearing debt. This is perhaps not an unmixed evil, since, with the stoppage of bond calls, the whittling away of the security of the national banks ceases for the time, and opportunity is given for devising means for preserving that beneficent system, or providing a decent substitute for it. This incidental advantage is offset, however, by the growing menace of the silver coinage, which becomes more serious exactly in proportion as the surplus in the Treasury declines, and as the public expenditures encroach upon the public receipts.

Secretary Manning is fully alive to this danger. Orders have been issued to the sub-treasuries at the principal cities to pay out only such funds as the payees desire, and not to force silver or silver certificates upon unwilling creditors so long as other funds hold out. This is decidedly the most prudent and manly course to pursue, since it leaves nothing open to conjecture or suspicion. It is equivalent to a public proclamation that the policy of the Administration is to adhere to the gold standard as long as the means hold out, and to make no discrimination in favor of or against any locality. If failing revenues, or increasing expenditures, or any other compulsion, brings us to the use of a depreciated currency, the responsibility will rest upon Congress and not upon the Executive. An issue must be made up in plain terms, and the battle must be fought without disguise or subterfuge. It cannot be postponed longer than the next session. If the silver crisis can be put off till December by means of the narrow margin still remaining between the public income and outgo, that is undoubtedly the extreme limit of time left for debate and experiment. It must then be determined whether we are to have a financial break-down preparatory to a rebuilding on the silver basis, or not. One thing is quite certain, that when the crisis comes the "gold bugs" will be well prepared for it. They are employing the interval in getting their funds in such shape that the depreciation will do them the least possible harm. By investing their ready money in sterling exchange or in gold-bearing securities, they are putting themselves beyond the reach of serious injury, and preparing to speculate upon the necessities of less fortunate people. Only a limited number of persons can protect themselves in this way, but they happen to be the very class whom the silver fanatics imagine that they can reach and punish by lowering the standard of value.

The appointment of Mr. E. O. Graves as Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing in the Treasury Department, is one of the wisest and most useful selections that Secretary Manning has made or could possibly make. Mr. Graves has made a reputation for himself, in an unobtrusive way, as one of the very best class of public servants. His efficiency was early recognized by Secretary Sherman, who placed him at the head of the Commission appointed some years ago to investigate the Engraving Bureau. He found that this branch of the public service had been converted into a sort of general hospital for broken-down politicians. Appropriations had been voted from year to year by Congressmen for no other purpose than to make places for their henchmen, and this bureau had been selected for their retreat because it was less exposed to public observation, and was surrounded with more mystery, than any other. Shelves had been put up in obscure corners for the reception of this class of invalids, who had nothing to do but to draw their pay, and who were generally incapable of any more active employment. Mr. Graves gently but firmly drew them from their hiding places, and reduced the force 30 per cent., actually increasing the efficiency of the service by making elbow room for the real working force of the bureau.

The Administration is developing a commendable disposition to undo a blunder. Through too implicit reliance upon endorsers whose recommendations ought to mean something, the President was induced to appoint a brother of Senator Blackburn as Collector of Internal Revenue in Kentucky, and Secretary Bayard to promise the consulate at Nagasaki, Japan, to J. Ernest Meiere. The latter turned out to be not only an "unreconstructed Rebel," but a fellow of most disreputable character in his personal and domestic relations. Blackburn proves to be the typical Southern bully and braggart of the ante-war period, who celebrated his advent in the Confederate service by writing a letter, worthy of the average dime-novel hero, in which he declared his desire to "make the Union men of Kentucky feel the edge of my knife," invoked hell as his portion if he ever spared one of them, and expressed his hope to "see Union blood run deep enough for my horse to swim in." The appointments of both these ruffians have been revoked, and the lesson which such incidents teach will hardly be lost upon the appointing power. That lesson is the absolute worthlessness of the endorsements of office-seekers by professional politicians. Meiere was recommended for appointment not only by leading Democrats of Colorado, but by prominent Republicans, like Senator Bowen; and equally strong endorsements can be secured by almost any clever scamp. The Meiere and Blackburn cases furnish fresh arguments in favor of Assistant Secretary Fairchild's suggestion that the names of all applicants for office be made known some time before action is taken.

Senator Dawes, of Massachusetts, will get himself disliked by such Republicans as Senator Frye, of Maine, if he keeps on. Mr. Frye is the man who remarked the other day that everybody who had been appointed to office was either a Rebel or a Copperhead, and that he saw nothing at all to commend in the Administration. Senator Dawes is about starting for the Indian Territory with a committee appointed to investigate the system of leasing Indian lands. He tells a reporter that the trouble grows out of the fact that the Secretary of the Interior in the last Republican Administration was involved in a scheme to let the cattlemen get control of the Indian lands without being himself directly or technically responsible, and that it is this way of doing business which they now have to remedy. He has had several interviews with the new Secretary of the Interior and the new Commissioner of Indian Affairs, whose appointment he heartily endorsed, and he says that so far as he can see there is every reason to expect a good administration of Indian affairs. Moreover, a mention of President Cleveland's name called forth the remark that thus far he had no fault to find with the Administration. Mr. Dawes's attitude, as that of a Senator ambitious for reëlection next year, is much more creditable to the people of Massachusetts than is that of Mr. Frye, who has a similar ambition, to the voters of Maine.

The most industrious propagator of protectionism in public office during the past half dozen years has been Mr. Joseph Nimmo, jr., Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, whose removal was announced on Tuesday week. The greatest effort of his life was a report made two or three years ago to show that the internal commerce of the country was twenty-five times greater than the foreign commerce, The purpose and object of this essay was to enforce the idea that efforts to extend foreign commerce were of trifling importance and of questionable utility, as though a merchant who had twenty-five customers in his own town and one in a neighboring town should not trouble himself to get any more trade. The plain implication was that the twenty sixth customer was of doubtful advantage anyway, and that a few more of the same kind might break up the business altogether. In subsequent treatises Mr. Nimmo modified his statistics so far as to

acknowledge that the foreign commerce of the country was about one-seventh of the total volume of exchanges effected, but the protectionist doctrine that the part of a thing is greater or more valuable than the whole, was as plainly discernible in the later investigation as in the earlier. Mr. Nimmo added to his other disqualifications as a statistician those of "an offensive partisan," one of his latest productions being a compilation of figures showing how important it was that the Republican party should be continued in power. Such abilities as his must be in great demand in that numerous class of private undertakings where a great deal of figuring is required to puzzle the human understanding, and to befog the simplest questions of business and finance.

There is a remarkable contrast between the first important steps in Southern affairs taken by the Garfield and the Cleveland Administrations. Four years ago the Republican Executive sustained the course of the party in the Senate in making a coalition with the Virginia repudiationists, and carried out the bargain by turning over to Mahone for his personal use the control of the Federal offices in that State. This year a Democratic President takes early occasion, by the unmistakable character of his first important appointment in Louisiana, to indicate his purpose of making war upon the Democratic ring, based on the Louisiana lottery swindle, which has for years brought upon the latter State an odium scarcely inferior to that fixed upon Virginia by the Mahone gang. The attack upon this ring is to be continued by a series of prosecutions against the lottery company, which it is announced that Postmaster-General Vilas proposes to have brought before the Federal Courts in a number of States. Such action by the Post-office Department will deepen the resentment of the Louisiana Machine against the Administration, to which Senator Eustis has given voice, but it will in the same ratio strengthen Mr. Cleveland's hold upon the country. The favor shown by a Republican Administration to the Virginia repudiationists was a potent element in the demoralization and defeat of the Republican party, and the hostility of a Democratic President to the Louisiana lottery gang will be equally potent in the contrary direction.

The appointment of Mr. G. V. N. Lothrop, of Michigan, as Minister to Russia is one of the best selections made by President Cleveland for any branch of the public service. Mr. Lothrop is a man of the same type as Minister Phelps—a lawyer of eminence and character, if not the foremost at the Michigan bar, certainly in the foremost rank. Mr. Lothrop has always been a Democrat in politics, was a pronounced Union man during the war, and has never, we believe, been a candidate for office. Four of the five principal missions have now been filled in a highly creditable way, and one only by a questionable appointment. This is certainly as high an average of diplomatic strength and respectability as we are accustomed to. The appointment of Mr. Lothrop has also a special significance, entirely aside from the question of his fitness, because it is a clear and unmistakable declaration of independence on Mr. Cleveland's part. There is no State in the Union where the spoils-seeking Democrats have made such a "dead set" for the control of the patronage on the old basis as in Michigan. The Democratic Congressmen-elect and the Democratic candidates who were defeated last fall met in Detroit a few weeks ago, and arranged a complete slate of all the Federal offices in the State, which early this week they submitted to the President. Mr. Cleveland, whom they had coolly relegated to the place of a mere recording clerk, heard them through, and remarked with a smile: "Gentlemen, I will consider the names which you have presented, but please remember that I reserve the right to reject any or all bids." Not only was Mr. Lothrop's name not on the slate, but none of the delegation had ever thought of recommending the appointment of men of his grade.

The selection of an educated and accomplished colored man of the highest character as Minister to Hayti is a convincing answer to the charge that the State Department withheld the commission from George W. Williams because it was prejudiced against him on the ground that he is a negro. The treatment of Williams, whose nomination for this post by President Arthur just before his term expired was a discreditable use of his power, and the appointment of Dr. Thompson, alike show a commendable disposition on the part of the Administration to treat the black man exactly like the white man. Investigation of Williams's record showed that he was not fit to represent this Government in a foreign country, and his own conduct since the 4th of March has removed the last doubt in the matter. Dr. Thompson, on the other hand, is a gentleman of high standing, who has received a liberal education and appears to be well qualified in every respect for the place he is to fill. The fact that his race can present so excellent a candidate for a foreign mission is a striking evidence of the rapid progress which it is making; while the selection of a negro by a Democratic President for such an office is gratifying proof of the advance which the party has made since it was last in power.

The removal of Postmaster Palmer, of Chicago, and the appointment of Mr. S. Corning Judd in his place, is a change made in strict accord with the principles laid down by President Cleveland in his letter to the Civil-Service Reform League. Mr. Palmer falls within the definition of "an offensive partisan" in the sense that his office has been one of the working agencies of the Republican party from the time that he took possession of it, in the latter part of General Grant's term, till the end of the late campaign. The business of the Post-office has, nevertheless, been well managed, and it would be unjust to describe Mr. Palmer as "offensive" in any other than a partisan sense. He has simply adhered to the old party methods, and followed the fortunes of General Logan, to whose partiality he owed his appointment. His chief subordinate, Colonel Squier, is one of the best Postmasters in the United States, and, like Postmaster Pearson, a man wholly absorbed in the duties of his office. Under an ideal system of civil service, Mr. Squier would be entitled to the position of Postmaster upon the occurrence of any change in the head of the office. It is altogether probable that the new Postmaster, Mr. Judd, will retain the services of the trained employees, whether they are embraced in the Civil-Service Act or not. This policy may be looked for with the more confidence since Mr. Judd was not a candidate for the place, and consequently can have no outstanding pledges.

Students of hygiene will be greatly interested in some facts bearing upon that science which have recently been reported from Washington. It is the general opinion all over the country that the present spring, by reason of its backwardness, has been exceptionally trying, and this opinion is fully sustained by the unusually large mortality almost everywhere reported. The season has been unpropitious at the national capital as elsewhere, and it might be supposed that the number of cases of illness among persons employed in the Government service would have considerably exceeded the average. But the surprising discovery has been made that the cold, raw spring of 1885 has been the healthiest ever known among Government clerks. In the Sixth Auditor's Office, for example, where the same force is now employed as a year ago, the sick leaves have sunk from an average of 550 days per month to only about 200 in either March or April. It appears that this improvement in the health of employees became plainly visible immediately after the 4th of November last.

The Supreme Court has just rendered an important decision in what are known as the Tennessee bond cases, which have long been the subject of litigation. Under an act of the Legislature for the establishment of a system of internal improvements, passed in 1852, the State of Tennessee issued bonds to various railroad companies, the State retaining a lien to secure the payment of the interest. The interest was paid until the breaking out of the war, but the burden then fell upon the State, which at various periods after the Rebellion issued new bonds to fund the accrued interest and the matured bonds. In 1870 the Legislature passed an act permitting the railroads to discharge their indebtedness in the legally issued bonds of the State, and two years later nearly a dozen of the lines were sold under foreclosure of mortgage for $6,698,000, the greater part of which was paid in depreciated bonds and coupons. The question raised in the suits just decided was whether the lien with which the State was invested upon the issue of its original bonds to the companies, bound the property of the companies for the payment of the bonds and interest to the several holders or only to the State; and the Supreme Court holds, as the lower courts had done, that security to the State was the sole purpose of the lien, and that the provision for foreclosure was manifestly for the benefit of the State alone. The practical effect of this decision will apparently be that the holders of the bonds in litigation, who have delayed funding them in the hope of getting more out of the railroad companies, will now fund them, and it does not involve a reopening

of the State debt question, as the decision in the Virginia coupon cases does.

The killing of the Field Code does not do away with the necessity for reform in the law, and does not nullify the mandate of the State Constitution which directs the Legislature to appoint three commissioners to do something about codifying the law. It will be observed, however, that the Constitution does not call for "a written and systematic code of the whole body of the laws of this State." It leaves it to the discretion of the Commissioners to "codify so much and such parts thereof as they shall deem practicable and expedient." Consequently there is no need whatever for setting commissioners to do work which probably no one set of commissioners would be capable of accomplishing. The history of the Field enterprise is full of instruction on this point. The attempt to codify ought to be made piecemeal, and ought at the outset to be confined strictly to experiment. One subject should be taken up at a time, and the work submitted to the rigid scrutiny of the bar and the judges before any attempt is made to enact it; and the commissioners, having done their work, ought to be the very last men to urge its adoption before the Legislature. Mr. Field's own lobbying on behalf of his Code to induce laymen not to mind what his professional brethren thought about his work, has been from the first a discreditable spectacle.

All codes or parts of codes ought to come to the Legislature through the bar. To procure their adoption, the weight of professional testimony ought to be overwhelmingly in their favor. Lawyers have their weaknesses like other men, but their interests are all on the side of clearness in the law, because their business depends on their being able to advise confidently, and on being able to make it clear to their clients when they lose their cases why they lost them. Nothing makes men so unwilling to litigate as uncertainty as to whether their dispute will be tried on its merits. The amount of business withdrawn from lawyers in this city alone, and given to Arbitrating Boards, in order to secure a trial simply on the merits by a competent jury, is enormous and is increasing. Nothing will arrest this tendency but some such reform in the law as will make more clear to litigants beforehand the point on which their case will turn. At present this is shrouded in mystery. There is hardly any civilized community as well provided with judges as we are, and yet there is not one which suffers more from the law's delay. A speedy decision on the merits, that is, on the essential facts of the case, is what all laymen mean by justice. This, too, is what all real law reform aims at. What prevents our getting it in this State is not half as well known or as carefully examined as it ought to be. It would be well worth the while of some Bar Committee, or some member of the bar to whom the dull times give leisure, to give the public a report as to the nature of the points on which appeals have been taken and new trials ordered in this State during the last ten years. The proportion of them which had any relation to the merits would, we fear, be found very small; the proportion which had relation solely to matters which business arbitrators would set aside as wholly irrelevant, would be found very large.

The persistency with which General Grant's physicians adhere to their original diagnosis of his case is a sore trial to those of our esteemed contemporaries who are not able to agree with them. That physicians who are with the patient daily should overrule the decision of able editors who have not seen him at all, but who arrive at their conclusion after an investigation which is calmly and scientificaily conducted at a safe distance from the symptoms, is naturally very irritating. Wood-cuts of the offenders should be published in order that they may be held up to the ridicule of all mankind, and the publication ought to be accompanied by the views of the various "quacks" who applied for permission to cure the General and were refused. Suppose, by the way, that a quack had been allowed to try his treatment at the time when the General was so low. Suppose that he had tried the "mind cure" which is making such a commotion in New England. What would have been the result when this remarkable rally, which the General has made without their aid, took place? It would have been hailed as one of the most "miraculous cures" of modern times, and the impetus which would have been given to "quackery" of all kinds would have been immense.

Two remarkable illustrations of the apparently growing incapacity of legislators to draft bills which will hold water, are reported almost simultaneously. The Iowa Legislature at its last session passed a very important law to secure the enforcement of the prohibitory amendment forbidding the sale of liquor, which practically gave any citizen the power to close a rumshop by securing an injunction against its keeper—that is to say, the Legislature intended to pass such a law, and everybody supposed when it adjourned that it was as binding as any part of the statutes. But in a test case which came before the courts last week, counsel for a liquor-seller argued and apparently proved that the bill in question never became a law, because the journal of the lower branch of the Legislature contains no record of its passage, the original prohibitory amendment a few years ago having been annulled by the Supreme Court on this very ground. The Oregon Legislature at its recent session, after thorough discussion, passed a High License Bill, which the public accepted as a well-considered measure, likely to produce the same good results as similar laws in Illinois and other States. But the discovery has just been made that the statute is really of no effect, through its failure to provide a penalty for selling liquor without a license, and the saloon-keepers are preparing to continue their business without paying any fee. The loss to the State under two years of free rum will be so great that the Governor is urged to call a special session of the Legislature for the sole purpose of remedying this defect. These gross blunders reinforce the arguments which were already strong enough for the general adoption of some system, like the appointment of a lawyer as permanent legislative counsel, which Governor Hill recommended last January, to insure the detection of errors and the exposure of weaknesses before it is too late to mend the mischief.

The Prohibitionists have again come to grief through their disposition to secure the end which they have in view by disregarding individual rights. The Kansas Legislature, at its recent session, passed a new law to enforce the policy of prohibition, which its advocates urged would be effectual. This statute conferred upon the County Attorney dictatorial powers, authorizing him to institute a court of inquiry when complaint was made, to subpœna witnesses and administer oaths, and empowering him at his sole discretion to punish any witness for contempt, for disobedience of subpœna, or for refusal to be sworn or to answer questions. In short, the new law aimed to endow scores of prosecuting county officers throughout the State with judicial powers of the most sweeping character, and its practical effect would have been to set in operation a great number of star-chamber courts. The first test case was made at Leavenworth last week, and it resulted, as any reasonable person might have expected it would, in a judicial decision that no such power can be exercised in a free State. The County Attorney having committed a witness to jail for contempt, because he refused to answer an inquiry on the ground that he might criminate himself, the prisoner was taken on a writ of habeas corpus before a judge, who promptly ordered his discharge. The judge held that the power of summoning witnesses and committing them for contempt was a judicial prerogative which could not, under the Constitution, be conferred upon a county attorney, and that such a tribunal would not only be in violation of the Constitution, but, by virtue of its partial character, would violate every fundamental idea of the due administration of justice. The reasonableness and justice of this decision cannot be impugned.

Gladstone had another of his narrow escapes on Monday night. He got a majority of only thirty on the division, on the motion of censure made by Lord George Hamilton; but then the Parnellites, who number about twenty-five, voted with the minority, as usual, without any regard to the merits of the case, so that the Ministerial majority, as a test of the strength of the Cabinet with the English and Scotch members, may fairly be set down at fifty-five. This is not bad, considering that it followed on what was really a humiliating announcement of the abandonment of the expedition against Khartum, and on a refusal to say what are the terms of the understanding with Russia. The Tories put themselves, however, clearly and even ludicrously in the wrong by showing great dissatisfaction at hearing that any settlement with Russia had been made on any terms. The Ministerial plan with regard to the Sudan is, however, for the first time marked by sound sense. The attempt to take Khartum and smash the Mahdi is to be utterly abandoned. The Mahdis—for there now appear to be two—are to be left to their own devices. The Egyptian frontier is to be fixed at Wady Halfa. Suakim is to be held indefinitely, as it was the leading point for the export of slaves to Arabia proper.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 6, to TUESDAY, May 12, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Wednesday suspended Frank W. Palmer, Postmaster at Chicago, and appointed S. Corning Judd to succeed him. Palmer was, an active if not an "offensive partisan." The President has also appointed I. Parker Veazey, of Baltimore, to be Postmaster of that city, to succeed Postmaster Adreon, whose term expired on May 5. Mr. Veazey is a lawyer, the partner of ex-Judge Pinkney, the brother of ex-Senator Pinkney Whyte.

The President on Friday appointed George V. N. Lothrop, of Michigan, to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Russia; Boyd Winchester, of Kentucky, to be Minister Resident and Consul-General of the United States to Switzerland; John E. W. Thompson, of New York, to be Minister Resident and Consul-General of the United States to Hayti. Mr. Lothrop is said to be one of the ablest lawyers of the Michigan bar. He has been an active Democrat, but has not been connected with the factions of that State. He was graduated from Brown University in 1838, and was made LL.D. in 1873. He is sixty years of age. Dr. John E. W. Thompson, a young colored man, was born in Brooklyn and is a resident of New York city. He is a graduate of the Medical Department of Yale College. Later he pursued his medical studies in Paris, where he became proficient in the French language. He was highly recommended for the position by the Faculty of Yale, as well as by many leading citizens of his native State.

President Cleveland has revoked the appointment of James Blackburn, a brother of Senator Blackburn, to be Revenue Collector of the Lexington, Ky., district. He did this on being shown a letter written by J. Blackburn in 1861, in which he declared his purpose "to make every Union man in Tennessee feel the edge of my knife," etc.

The appointment of Dr. J. Ernest Meiere to be Consul at Nagasaki, Japan, will be revoked. The wife of Dr. Meiere recently obtained a divorce on the ground of neglect and cruelty.

Arthur D. Bissell has been appointed Collector of Customs for the District of Buffalo. It is Mr. Cleveland's first appointment for Buffalo. Mr. Bissell is a brother of Wilson S. Bissell, the President's former law partner. Particularly among lake and canal men is the appointment received with satisfaction.

A. P. Swineford, of Marquette, Mich., was on Friday appointed Governor of Alaska.

The resignation of Captain Burrill, Superintendent of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, was requested on Saturday morning, and Mr. E. O. Graves, Assistant Treasurer of the United States, has been tendered the position, to take effect June 1. The appointment of Mr. Graves will certainly be conceded to be a striking illustration of civil-service reform. He has worked his way up, on his own merits, from a subordinate clerkship to the position he now occupies. He was one of the original civil-service reformers, and was, perhaps, the first Government official to enter heartily into civil-service reform, under the Grant Administration. He has fought for civil-service reform through several administrations, and has had the respect and confidence even of the public men who differed from him in regard to the reform. He has not sought the position as Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. It has been tendered to him unsolicited by the Treasurer, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the President.

H. B. James has been removed from the position of Chief of the Customs Division of the Treasury Department. There are no charges against his efficiency or integrity.

The Second Battalion of United States Marines, numbering 400, embarked at Aspinwall on Thursday for New York, on the steamer *Colon*. The First Battalion still remains to guard the Isthmus. The court of inquiry recently ordered at Aspinwall by Admiral Jouett, to investigate the charges against Commander Kane, in its decision says: "The conduct of Commander Kane was in our opinion eminently proper. He acted with judgment, with discretion, with firmness, and in accordance with his orders. Had Commander Kane acted otherwise than as he did, there is no doubt that the lives of the American citizens imprisoned by Prestan would have been sacrificed, with no benefit to Americans or to other foreigners, either in the saving of life or property."

Governor Hill, of New York, on Friday vetoed various items of the Appropriation Bill, among them: (1) the salary of the Secretary of the Regents of the University, $5,000, an increase of $1,500. The point is urged that an appropriation bill should make provision only for fixed charges, and should not contain legislation. The Governor was unable to veto only the increase, and special provision will have to be made for the salary. (2) Item of $25,000 for the State survey to initiate making a topographical map. No definite plan has been laid out for this work, which will probably cost, before completion, half a million and possibly a million dollars. (3) Item of $25,000 for the Adirondack survey. No results have been obtained proportionate to the expense of over $75,000 which it has thus far cost. The work should be done under the direction of the State Engineer and Survey. (4) Item of $26,000 for Commissioners of Fisheries. The Commissioners are directed to expend $3,500 of this amount in stocking Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River, part of which are foreign waters. This direction is the subject of objection, the Commissioners having no option.

The Field Civil Code was finally defeated in the Assembly at Albany on Thursday by a vote of 52 to 67.

The Assembly on Monday night, by a vote of 84 to 24, passed the bill exempting soldiers from the Civil-Service Act. In the Senate on Tuesday an effort to make it a special order for the afternoon of that day was defeated, 8 to 19. It therefore went to the Judiciary Committee, and will probably not be favorably reported.

By the clever parliamentary tactics of Walter Howe the Assembly at Albany, on Tuesday, was forced to pass a bill limiting the price of gas in cities of more than 400,000 inhabitants to $1 50 a thousand feet. This applied to New York and Brooklyn. Later in the day, however, the bill was recalled from the Senate, to which it had already been sent, by a vote of 63 to 54.

In the Thirty-fourth Illinois Legislative District on Wednesday, the Republicans so successfully conducted a still hunt that they elected their candidate, Weaver, in place of a Democrat. The district is strongly Democratic. This stroke of political management gives the Republicans 103 votes on joint ballot in the Legislature (a majority of 2), and will enable them to elect a United States Senator to succeed John A. Logan.

The annual meeting of the Civil-Service Reform Association was held in this city on Thursday evening, with Mr. George William Curtis in the chair. Mr. Curtis commended the efforts of President Cleveland on behalf of civil-service reform, and severely criticised the Earl bill exempting veteran soldiers and sailors from the provisions of the State Civil-Service Law. Similar sentiments were expressed in the report of the Executive Committee. The report stated that all of the cities in this State have adopted regulations for admission to their service excepting Hudson, Watertown, Oswego, Rome, Elmira, Schenectady, Newburgh, and Lockport. It is estimated that the whole number of positions brought within the application of the civil-service rules as at present established in the State of New York is between 12,000 and 13,000, being in the State service, 3,600; in New York city, 5,540; in Brooklyn, 1,418; estimated elsewhere, 1,765.

The Association of the Army of the Potomac, which met at Baltimore on Wednesday, reëlected General Grant its President.

The Congress of American Churches was opened at Hartford, Conn., on Monday. The great Protestant denominations were represented by many of their leading clergymen.

The trial of Richard Short, for attempting to kill Captain Thomas Phelan, was ended on Wednesday evening in the Court of Oyer and Terminer, in this city. The jury returned a verdict of not guilty, which was received with loud applause by Short's friends. When silence was restored, Judge Van Brunt said he was astonished at the verdict, and discharged the jury from any further attendance on the court. Short was then released. One of the jurors was arrested on Friday for contempt of court in having been seen in Rossa's office during the trial.

A despatch was received from Auckland, New Zealand, on Wednesday, that Maxwell, the murderer of Preller, had been arrested there. He is held for a requisition from this country.

A fire in the lumber district of Chicago, on the southwestern outskirts of the city, on Friday afternoon, caused a loss of more than $800,000.

A committee of the exhibitors at the Prize Fund Exhibition, held at the galleries of the American Art Association in this city, has made the following allotment of the prize paintings to the cities named: "A Rough Day; Entrance to the Harbor of Honfleur," by Frank M. Boggs, to Boston; "The Last Sacrament," by Henry Mosler, to Louisville; "Near the Coast," by R. Swain Gifford, to the Metropolitan Museum, New York; "La Crépuscule," by Alexander Harrison, to St. Louis. The Association announces that the first Prize Fund Exhibition has been a gratifying success, and that a similar one will be held in March next.

FOREIGN.

The London *News* was authorized on Thursday to deny that Russia had stipulated that England should not occupy Port Hamilton. The *News* believes that Russia has offered England positive assurance that she has no intention of taking possession of Herat. She, however, refuses to make any treaty so binding herself.

Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice, in the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, said that General Ridgway, with Captain Yate and others, would remain in charge of the Afghan Boundary Commission. "The instructions sent to Sir Peter Lumsden," Lord Edmund continued, "do not cancel his appointment. He has not been summoned to London to advise the Government about the frontier."

The London *Morning Post* on Friday asserted that Lord Dufferin had resigned the Viceroyship of India. On the other hand, the *News* (Government organ) asserted that he approved the settlement that had been made of the Afghan dispute. In the House of Commons on Thursday night Mr. Gladstone refused to say whether or not Lord Dufferin approved the Government's course; but on Friday Government officials denied his reported resignation. Mr. Gladstone, in reply to questions, also said that subsequent information greatly affected his original statement that the Panjdeh affair was an act of unprovoked aggression. It is reported that the attitude of the British Government is partly due to the receipt of a report from General Sir Donald Stewart, the Commander-in-Chief of the Indian forces, that it would be imprudent to undertake an expedition to Herat until a railway has been completed to the Pisheen Valley, which will take three years.

In the House of Commons on Friday afternoon Sir Stafford Northcote gave notice that he would on Monday move that the House is entitled to the fullest knowledge of the Gov-

ernment's action in regard to the Afghan dispute, and the uses to which the $55,000,000 are to be put.

In London the statement of the *Official Messenger*, of St. Petersburg, that the Afghan dispute will be submitted to arbitration only in case of necessity, was declared semi-officially on Friday to be inaccurate. Earl Granville holds that Russia's acceptance of arbitration must be absolute. The dissatisfaction in London over the arbitration scheme grew very general by Saturday, and there were predictions that the agreement would not stand. Before arbitration is possible, it is necessary for both Cabinets to agree upon the specific details to be submitted to the arbitrator. This may consume considerable time.

At a plenary Cabinet council held on Saturday, the Admiralty was directed to cancel the orders issued to provide for the conveyance of 2,000 British troops to India. Three steamers had been chartered for this purpose and were ready to sail.

In the House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Gladstone announced that an arrangement had been concluded between England and Russia on the Afghan frontier dispute which was alike satisfactory to Her Majesty's Government and the Earl of Dufferin, Viceroy of India. He hoped that the arrangement would be made the subject of a convention with Russia. A similar announcement was made in the House of Lords. Lord Hartington, Secretary for War, stated that the decision reached by the Government in regard to the Sudan practically involved the abandonment of the advance to Khartum. The Government had resolved to make Wady Halfa the most advanced position as a permanent defence of Egypt. The British troops would be withdrawn as soon as the Nile rose. It is expected that the rising will occur about the end of May. The withdrawal of the troops involved the abandonment of the engagement to advance to Khartum. This statement was received with cheers from the Government benches.

As soon as Mr. Gladstone finished his statement in the House of Commons on Monday night on the Afghan agreement, the Conservatives began a bitter attack on the Government. Lord George Hamilton moved consideration of the amendment to the Consolidated Fund Bill, refusing assent to the bill "until informed of the present policy and purpose for which the money to be granted is to be applied." Lord George said: "The Secretary of State for War has just made the most extraordinary statement which ever fell from a Minister in this House. After announcing their intention of taking Khartum, the Government have announced the abandonment of the Sudan after having murdered 6,000 or 10,000 men. The great objection I have to the Premier's policy is that from the very day he assumed office until now, he has shown a readiness to sacrifice anybody and anything to save himself." After speeches by Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Stafford Northcote, Mr. Gladstone made a telling speech, in which he said that the Opposition had pressed the motion without waiting for the promised papers, and made up for their deficiency of knowledge by a variety of baseless suppositions. When the papers were presented it might appear that Sir Peter Lumsden had returned in full conformity with the Government's policy, and that a frontier had been secured through the friendly relations between Lord Dufferin and the Amir. Lord Randolph Churchill spoke in favor of the motion, but was less bitter than usual. He, with Sir Stafford Northcote, denied that the Conservatives were the war party. Lord George Hamilton's motion was defeated by a vote of 290 to 260. The majority consisted entirely of Liberals. The Parnellites voted with the minority.

On Tuesday the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced in the House of Commons that about $35,000,000 of the $55,000,000 vote of credit had already been absorbed. The Channel Tunnel Bill was defeated on Tuesday by 281 to 99, the Government opposing it. The motion of Sir Edward Massey Lopes, to insert a clause in the Registration Act, charging the expenses of registry on the general treasury, was then called up. After a strong speech against it by Mr. Gladstone it was rejected by a vote of 280 to 258. The Government's majority of 22 was obtained by threats of resignation if they were not sustained. The Parnellites voted against the Government.

It is reported that the British Government have decided to drop the question of renewing the Crimes Act for Ireland, and to revive the milder Peace Preservation Act which expired in 1880. The opposition of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain in the Cabinet is partly credited with this result.

An Irish Local Government Bill will probably be introduced in Parliament before the close of the present session. The new measure provides for popularly elected councils in each county, whose duty it shall be to conduct the administration of business hitherto relegated to grand juries. Provision is also made for a central council in Dublin, to be elected by the county councils. This council will discharge the functions of the Boards of Education and Public Works, etc. It is also meditated to abolish the Lord Lieutenancy and create a Secretary of State for Ireland, but this is still undecided.

Baron Fitzgerald, the London *Globe* understands, will be appointed Lord Chancellor of Ireland. Baron Fitzgerald is a Liberal, has been Solicitor-General and Attorney-General for Ireland, and Justice of the Queen's Bench. He is seventy years of age, and was appointed a Lord of Appeal-in-Ordinary in 1882, with a peerage for life.

Mr. Errington, the English representative at the Vatican, failing to persuade the Pope to appoint Dr. Walsh to the vacant Archbishopric of Dublin, has left for London for consultation with the British Government. The Pope, it is said, had to consult the wishes of the Irish clergy in the matter.

The Anglo-German International Commission appointed to arrange the terms of occupation of British and German colonies in the Pacific Ocean has concluded its labors. It is arranged that British subjects shall be on perfect equality with those of Germany in the territory recently seized by the latter Power, and that Germans shall be on perfect equality with British subjects in New Guinea. No differential duties are to be imposed. The importation of arms, powder, and alcohol is prohibited, and the Solomon, New Hebrides, Friendly, and Navigators' Islands are to remain open territory. The status of Samoa remains unsettled.

The corporation of Worcester, England, on Wednesday, presented Mr. Lowell with an illuminated address, expressing regret at his departure from the post of United States Minister to England, and eulogizing his literary aid to the Worcester Library. Mr. Lowell spoke in high terms of his successor, and said he was confident Mr. Phelps would do all in his power to maintain the cordial relations existing between England and the United States.

William Ward, the first Earl of Dudley, is dead. He was sixty-eight years of age, was a Liberal Conservative, was enormously wealthy, and eccentric to the point of insanity.

Mrs. Weldon was on Thursday awarded $50,000 damages by the Sheriff's Court in London, in her suit against M. Gounod, the composer, for libel, slander, breach of contract, and assault.

Reports reach Dongola that the Mahdi's forces have suffered fresh defeats at the hands of the insurgents in Kordofan, aided by the garrison at Senaar. The remnant of the Mahdi's forces has retreated to Abu Haraz. The Mahdi himself is at Umderman, near Khartum, but he has only a few troops with him and is unable to send reinforcements against the insurgents. The delay in the British evacuation of the Sudan is due to Lord Wolseley's opposition.

A large force of British and Indian troops and friendly natives under General Graham marched out from Suakim at midnight on May 5 to Takool, where they surprised and defeated 400 rebels, killing 150 of them and capturing twelve prisoners and 150 head of cattle. After burning the village they retired to Suakim, fighting continuing until they had passed Hasheen. The British loss was five wounded.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday adopted, by a vote of 308 to 57, the treaty concluded on August 21, 1883, between France and Anam. It has virtually been in force for eighteen months.

It is reported that China will dethrone the King of Anam for intriguing with Cambodia against France.

Signor Mancini, Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, has resigned. Prime Minister Depretis will assume the duties of the office.

Count Tolstoi, the Russian Minister of the Interior, is suffering from an attack of melancholia. It is believed that he will die.

Baron von Schaeffer, the Austro-Hungarian Minister at Washington, has, it is reported, been instructed by his Government to object to the appointment of Mr. Keiley as United States Minister to Vienna.

Ferdinand Hiller, the celebrated German composer and pianist, died on Monday at the age of seventy-four. He was the author of more than 200 musical compositions, including six operas.

The two rebel leaders, Portazal and Cocobolo, who advised and assisted Prestan in the burning of Colon and who have been held prisoners on the *Galena*, were delivered on Wednesday morning to General Reyes, commander-in chief of the Colombian forces, by Commander Kane of the *Galena*. They were immediately tried by court-martial and sentenced to death, and in the afternoon were hanged on the spot where the rebels had started the fire which destroyed the city. This action has already had a salutary effect on the rebels. Prestan is now besieging Carthagena.

General Middleton's forces engaged in a field fight with Riel's rebels all day Saturday, near Batoche. The list of killed and wounded among Riel's forces is believed to be very large. The attack was brought on soon after daylight on Saturday. The Grenadiers advanced as skirmishers, and Battery A supported them, pouring hot shot from a ridge down on the rebels. While they were doing so a number of rebels crept stealthily up through the bush, escaping observation until they were within twenty yards or less of the battery. When they were discovered they made a wild charge for the guns. At this point Captain Howard, of the Second Regiment, Connecticut National Guards, who is with the Canadians in charge of the Gatling Battery, saw the danger, and promptly took measures which saved the Canadian troops great loss of life, if not utter rout. With cool daring he ran a Gatling gun in front of the battery, and, opening a rapid, skilful fire, he sent a shower of bullets into the rebels. At 6 o'clock, after 12 hours' fighting, the Canadians camped for the night where they fought.

A political indignation meeting was held at Toronto on Friday night for the purpose of considering the Franchise Bill proposed to be passed by Sir John Macdonald, Premier of Canada. The bill was condemned in unmeasured terms, and it was stated that the province of Ontario would withdraw from the confederation before its people would submit to such despotism as was proposed by the bill.

Emma, Queen Dowager of the Sandwich Islands, died there on April 25, at the age of forty-nine. She was the wife of King Kamehameha IV., and was a candidate for the throne after the death of Lunalilo.

THE SHORT VERDICT.

THE jury in the Short case have been very severely criticised for acquitting him, by the judge, as well as by a portion of the press. They have, however, a very strong defence against all fault-finding. In the first place, they were a very intelligent and respectable body of men—three Germans and nine Americans—none of them having the smallest sympathy with the gang to which both the prisoner and prosecutor belonged. In fact, considering the way juries are made up under the existing law, it is a wonder that in a case like Short's so good a one was found. In the next place, the evidence that Phelan went to O'Donovan's office in a fighting temper and got into a fight there with Short, and was worsted—owing to Short's being too quick for him, getting hold of a knife on the table, and seizing Phelan's arm before he could draw his pistol—was overwhelming. Several witnesses gave it. Some of them had every appearance of being perfectly trustworthy men; but whether they were or not, no attempt whatever was made by the prosecution to impeach their testimony in a single particular. The only evidence on the other side was Phelan's, and this was fatally damaged in the eyes of the jury, both by the man's own air and by the positive testimony of the lieutenant of the Capitol police that he had been dismissed from that force owing to the badness of his character, and that he would under no circumstances believe him on his oath. There was nothing whatever to corroborate Phelan's story except his scars, which were exposed in court to the jury. These showed clearly, however, that he had received the blows of the knife in front, and in front only. Moreover, the prosecution produced nothing whatever against Short's character. Finally, the jury had no alternative but to convict the prisoner of assault with intent to kill or to acquit him. They were instructed, with great distinctness, that they must find him guilty or not guilty of the particular offence with which he was charged, and not of an offence less heinous. They could not convict him of fighting with murderous weapons, or anything of that sort. They therefore could not express their opinion of Short's conduct in any way. Their verdict simply contained their belief that he had not gone to O'Donovan Rossa's office and attacked Phelan, without provocation, with the design of assassinating him. He may have done so, but there was no proof of it. What called forth Judge Van Brunt's expression of condemnation of the verdict we do not know, but the unseemly yells with which the friends of the cutthroats who crowded the room received it, probably had something to do with ruffling his temper.

Judge Van Brunt writes to the *Times*, declaring that the case of the People against Short was "presented with the greatest care, skill, and courage, and that nothing was omitted by the prosecution which, in any degree, tended to prevent this gross miscarriage of justice." This is, of course, very high testimony to the efficiency of the prosecution, but unfortunately it is not the highest. The object of a criminal prosecution, under our system of jurisprudence, is not to win the approval of the judge for the prosecuting officer, but to convince the jury. If the prosecuting officer fails to accomplish this, his conduct of the case is simply so much rhetorical gymnastics. In the present instance the jury was not convinced, and we are therefore forced to conclude either that the prosecution was inefficient, or that the jury was unusually stupid, or very corrupt. This stupidity or corruption is what the Judge must mean when he describes the verdict as "a gross miscarriage of justice," and he ought to say it in plain terms. But he would have great difficulty in proving it. One of the jury, Mr. Woods, is a member of the Governing Committee of the Cotton Exchange, and tries nearly as many cases in the course of the year, probably, as Judge Van Brunt himself, and in point of integrity stands just as high in the community. He describes himself as having gone into court believing Short guilty, but he changed his mind on hearing the evidence. Moreover, if the jury had been divided, it would perhaps be easy to obtain credence for the theory that some of them had been corrupted or frightened. That the whole twelve were led astray in this way, however, is hard to swallow. As between such a jury as this one, and such a prosecuting officer as Colonel Fellows, Judge Van Brunt, with great respect be it said, would have acted with more decorum if he had refrained from writing to the newspapers to decide which was to blame, in a case tried before himself, for a miscarriage of justice. The character of the jurors for integrity and courage and perspicacity is just as dear to them, and ought to be an object of as much solicitude to the Court, as Colonel Fellows's character for care and skill. We may make the same criticism on District-Attorney Martine's outpourings to the reporters.

That the case was feebly pushed by the District Attorney's office was manifest to many who watched the trial. No attempt was made to break down the testimony of Short's witnesses, or to show Short's character. The cross-examination of them was not effective, and nothing was done to fortify Phelan's story or protect his reputation. Here is the real root of the difficulty in dealing with this sort of ruffians in this city. The trial is useful in one way, in showing us what would probably happen if an attempt were made to bring O'Donovan Rossa and Pat Ford to justice for collecting money to be used in procuring murder and arson. That they have both been doing this for a considerable time, there is no doubt. In fact, they have gloried in it. But an attempt to punish them for it would undoubtedly fail. In the first place, there would be great difficulty in procuring witnesses whom anybody would believe, or who would not be contradicted by the same number of other witnesses equally reliable. In the second place, there would be a want of vigor in the District Attorney's office in pushing any prosecution against Irishmen for offences even remotely connected with politics, and especially English politics, and in New York there is a touch of politics in every row or crime in which Irishmen are concerned. Every Irish criminal is more or less of a politician, and insists on the support of his party when he gets into "trouble." Moreover, this is an excellent period for Irish crime, inasmuch as both the leading political parties are more or less disposed to compete for the privilege of winking at it. The Irish vote was won over by the Blaineites last fall by barefaced flattery of the dynamiters and incendiaries and murderers, and by promises of support to the Catholic clergy in their efforts to get at least part possession of the public schools. The Democrats cannot make up their minds to write the Irish off as a dead loss, but still hanker after them, and are disposed to pardon their little eccentricities in the matter of cutting, shooting, and blowing up. The Irish, 'cutely enough, do not declare themselves, and prefer to remain an uncertain quantity between now and the fall election, so that the Phelans and Shorts and Rossas are literally in clover.

The proceedings in court bore every sign of an understanding of some sort with the dynamiters that they were not to be criticised, impeached, or their den unroofed, or, in other words, that nothing was to be said in court tending to expose or discredit them. That a gang of men should have been allowed to come into an American court-room to bear witness about a crime committed by one of their number, in the room in which they meet daily to plot murder and hire murderers, and raise money to pay the expenses of the murderers, and not one word should have been said to them or to the jury by the officers of the law, touching their designs or pursuits, is surely a national disgrace. That this should be followed by an apparent attempt to persuade the public that business men of high standing, who happened to serve on the jury, were in a league with the dynamiters to procure the escape of the criminal, is, however, something more than a disgrace. It is a piece of charlatanry which calls for punishment, and will receive it. Mr. Martine must not persuade himself that this little performance of his is not making a profound impression on that portion of the public to which he owed his election, or that it will be forgotten should he have the audacity to seek any other place of trust or emolument. We supported him last fall in the belief that he was a man of high professional as well as personal character. We felt, however, on his reappointing Colonel Fellows as his assistant that there was to be plenty of "politics" as well as law in the office, for Colonel Fellows is nothing if not a politician; and that if the office were by any accident brought into collision with the Irish dynamiters and assassins, there would be but little chance that justice would be done. Our anticipations have been fully realized, but Mr. Martine must not flatter himself that his tricks are performed under a bushel.

THE SUEZ CANAL CONFERENCE.

THE Suez Canal Conference has reached the interesting stage at which some decision must be had upon the neutrality, or otherwise, of the lands immediately adjoining its banks and of the waters in close vicinity to its approaches. These are questions of the deepest interest to ourselves, since the conclusions reached by the Conference will constitute the highest form of precedent in dealing with the Panama Canal, if it is ever finished, or with any other in-

teroceanic water way in Central America. Any such canal will, like the Suez, concern the commerce of the whole civilized world, and must have substantially the same place in the eye of public law. The object of the Conference is to define and prescribe what is meant by neutrality, as applied to an artificial water way of international character and importance: how neutrality is to be assured, and to what things it is to be restricted. Right here comes the inquiry whether any such canal can be really neutralized without the concerted action of the great Powers? Can the United States *alone* neutralize either the Panama or the Nicaragua Canals? Can we legislate on that matter for England, Germany, and France? We can promise to protect either canal, or the State of Panama or Nicaragua, if assailed by any nation; but how can we put another nation under the promise and duty not to assail, or carry on war, in the canal? We can *promise* that Panama as a State, and Nicaragua as a State, and either canal, shall be neutral, and we can keep the promise if we have the physical power. But what if we have not the power?

The Suez Canal is in a somewhat different situation from that in which the Panama Canal will be, since Panama, barring revolutions, is more under the control of her local government than Egypt is. The Panama concession is not international in the sense that the Suez concession is. Panama, as a State, has not been swept under the control of the European concert as Egypt has been. But the questions relating to the free navigation of each canal will be much the same. England has relations to Suez not unlike those which the United States would have to Panama, aside from the Clayton-Bulwer convention. How shall each be neutralized or internationalized? Will it be sufficient to neutralize the water way without making of a portion of Egypt alongside of it, and of the waters at either end, a sort of mimic Belgium or Switzerland, where, by the agreement of all the Powers, war shall never come? Shall the same be done in Panama and in Nicaragua?

In the end, and before these great questions can be finally and satisfactorily settled as to Panama and Nicaragua, there will be a very thorough overhauling of the principles and the policy that inspired the Clayton-Bulwer convention, its renunciation by the contracting parties of dominion in Central America, and its plan of neutralization. Was the plan good or was it bad? Was it statesmanlike or the opposite? Was it for the benefit or the injury of the United States? Was the maintenance of the "general principle" described therein to depend solely on carrying out the "particular object" of the treaty, which was the construction of a Nicaragua Canal under the concession of 1849? Were the two sets of obligation—one relating to the particular canal and the other to all future canals—separate, or were they mutually interdependent? Did not the contracting parties wish and really intend, in 1850, to accomplish both objects? General Cass again and again declared that what he and the Democratic party wished was "the security and *neutrality* of the interoceanic routes." Certainly the United States sought the coöperation of England in 1850. Again and again did American statesmen, from 1850 to 1861, repudiate the wish to put the control of the canals under any one Power. That suggestion was first formulated by Mr. Blaine. General Cass explicitly repudiated the idea in his note to Lord Napier of November 8, 1858. If the Clayton-Bulwer treaty be torn up, will not England recover its liberty of action in Panama and in Nicaragua? How can the United States alone, or England alone, guarantee and maintain "the *perfect* neutrality" of any interoceanic canal? What injury to the United States can come from the cooperation of England, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, Spain, and China, in the effort to neutralize a canal anywhere in Central America, together with enough of the territory on its sides and the approaches by water at either end?

Those questions are not simple ones; on the contrary, they are very complicated. But they must be soberly dealt with, and answered in our day. Neutralization, by the aid of Europe, of the Central American canals is the reverse of interference with the canals. It is a promise to abstain from interference with the owner of the canal and the collector of tolls thereon. It is not unlikely that Minister Phelps has received instructions to give immediate attention to these most interesting questions and come to a satisfactory understanding with England concerning them. Meanwhile, what is going on in Paris over the Suez Canal is of the highest importance, and it is to be hoped that Mr. McLane may be speedily at his post of observation.

GLADSTONE'S CRITICS.

One of the strangest episodes in the crisis through which the British Ministry is passing is the abuse which is being heaped on Mr. Gladstone just now. In his speech, when asking for the vote of $55,000,000, which won so much applause, he was most distinct and emphatic in his declarations that the Government was in "a state of preparation" simply; that in other words he was getting ready for war, not because the peace negotiations had failed, but lest they should fail. Nothing has since occurred to falsify this declaration. The negotiations have been going on ever since. Of their nature it is safe to say nothing is known. That the Ministry has surrendered any claim it ever made, or that it has failed to make any claim it was ever expected to make, are charges which rest on nothing but the vaporings of the Russian press. To reveal the various steps in the negotiations would, of course, work infinite mischief. They have, in the excited state of the public mind in both countries, to be kept secret in order to succeed at all. Consequently nobody outside the inner official circles knows anything about them to complain of.

What Gladstone's assailants, therefore, really mean to complain of is, that, having got the money to prepare for war, he does not use it to go to war at once. There seems, in fact, to be an insane delusion running through the public mind in England, that whatever is wrong in the present situation will be set right by the mere fact of fighting. People seem to think that if Russia be attacked by land and sea, all danger to India will be at once removed. Vámbéry is apparently fully possessed with this belief. He thinks the best time to fight is now; but the experience of all wars between adversaries of equal or nearly equal strength shows that the best time to fight is when you cannot help it—that is, when you are actually attacked. No belligerent has probably ever yet lost anything by waiting till the enemy drew the sword. Nothing is more dangerous in a war which has to be carried on by popular support than fighting without a distinct object. If England attacks Russia now, without a definite and tangible object in view, she may fight for years without making the war profit her anything in the eyes of the world. Suppose, for instance, she should fight because Russia will not promise to abstain from seizing Herat. Suppose that, at the end of a long and bloody struggle, Russia should make the desired promise, what greater value would it have than her promise not to seize Khiva or Merv? If on the other hand England should go to war to secure Herat for herself, what would be the value of position there, with the cunning Abdurrahman Khan and the ferocious and unfriendly Afghans lining her communications with India? The Russians would not be driven away from Sarakhs, or Merv, or the Caspian Sea. They would remain to threaten Herat continually, and to intrigue with the Persians and Afghans, and the war party in England would be continually calling on the Government to chastise them for some fresh menace or breach of faith.

On the other hand, if the Russians commit some overt act of attack about the nature and object of which there is no mistake, such, for instance, as an invasion of Afghanistan, or a march toward India, all that will be needed to make fighting fruitful in prestige, will be to defeat and stop them. The Powers are playing a game in which each seeks to impress the Asiatic populations with the idea that it is the greater of the two. In such a game, the aggressor undoubtedly runs the greater risk, for in war, even more distinctly than in law, the man in possession is the best off.

That Mr. Gladstone thus far has been working to make Russia plainly the aggressor, there is no reason, so far as the facts are known, to doubt. In negotiating, too, he probably has in mind not simply the state of English opinion now, but the probable state of English opinion after two or three years of bootless slaughter and devastation. It is this latter condition of the public mind which every statesman who is tempted to try war has to think most of. Nothing is more evanescent and unreliable than the mood in which a nation takes up arms. It is always passionate, unreasoning, vainglorious, and evanescent. When the sober second thought comes, nothing but sudden and overwhelming successes such as Bismarck achieved against Austria in 1866, and against France in 1870, can, in our day, save a minister who begins a war from unpopularity or discredit. It may be that the English Liberals are making a mess of the Russian complication, but the materials for a judgment about it do not yet exist.

ENGLAND: THE REDISTRIBUTION OF PARLIAMENTARY SEATS.

London, May 2.

While the thoughts of the English have been constantly occupied for the last three months by

the affairs of Sudan and Afghanistan, the time of Parliament has been chiefly spent on the bill for the redistribution of seats, a measure which, as the necessary complement of the extension of the franchise, has to be passed before the next general election can be held. As your readers will remember, it is based upon the scheme settled on by the leaders of both parties in secret conference last November, and therefore is not a controversial bill, but one to which the general support of both Tories and Liberals has been given. It has thus made far more rapid progress than an opposed measure could, under our Parliamentary rules, with their infinite opportunities for obstruction, hope to accomplish. Yet even with this advantage, it has not yet reached the stage of third reading in the House of Commons, although the Government have obtained for it the whole available time of the House, to the complete exclusion of private members, who, during this whole session, have been unable to bring forward either motions or bills. From such a fact it is easy to see how enormous would have been the expenditure of time had its details been fought over with our usual party acrimony. That its passing may be now confidently looked for is due to the compromise effected between Mr. Gladstone and Lord Salisbury; and this has reconciled people in Parliament, and still more out of Parliament, to a method of proceeding without precedent in our history, and open to the imputation of seriously trenching on the independence of the Legislature. It has also gone far to reconcile ardent reformers to the deficiencies in the present measure. They see that it marks an advance larger than could have been looked for by means of an ordinary party struggle, and they are content to put up with not getting everything when they perceive that they have got more than anybody, seven months ago, expected.

The debates on the bill have turned almost wholly on points of detail, not very interesting even to English politicians, and not worth the attention of people outside England. Much time has been consumed over the question of naming the new divisions of counties and boroughs. One set of persons wished to call these divisions by the points of the compass—north, northeast, southwest, and so forth. Others preferred to name them from the chief town lying within their area, or from some old local appellative. There was much to be said for both views; and in some places one was more convenient, in other places the other. The controversy has been temporarily settled, in a truly English fashion, by allowing both sorts of names to be used alternately. In Warwickshire, for instance, the divisions are to be called "The Northern or Tamworth Division," "The Northeastern or Nuneaton Division," "The Southwestern or Stratford-on-Avon Division,' "The Southeastern or Rugby Division." Here the four town names commemorate four eminent persons respectively, for Sir Robert Peel was member for Tamworth and lived near it; George Eliot is associated with Nuneaton; Stratford is a place of pilgrimage to all the world, while Dr. Arnold and his biographer Dean Stanley, have given some little share of fame to the quiet country town of Rugby. More sentiment than might have been expected from a usually prosaic nation has come out in the eagerness to get hold of historic names for the divisions—St. Augustine and Isle of Thanet, in Kent; Gower, in Glamorganshire, are instances—while in some cases amusingly warm contests have arisen between two towns, each of which sought to give its name to the division, and spared no pains in canvassing members by letters, and circulars, and interviews to procure their support for its claims. American readers may be surprised to hear that among the devices for naming that have been put forward, no one proposed to number the divisions. Names drawn from numbers are an abomination to the Briton. Streets are never so called, nor churches (except rarely in Scotland), nor local government areas. Even regiments in the army contrive to find some other title than merely that of their number, and now they are officially called from counties.

In another point, however, which has much occupied us in England, there has appeared a far greater coincidence between the views of Englishmen and Americans than might have been predicted. When the Redistribution Bill was presented in December last, its most novel feature was the general adoption of the plan of single-membered constituencies; a plan foreign to the old constitution of England, which gave two members to each borough and each county, and used, ever since the Reform Bill of 1832, only in the case of boroughs and counties obviously too small to have more than one representative. To cut up every county into districts, with one member each, and to destroy the Parliamentary unity of the great cities by splitting them up into ward divisions, each returning one member, seemed an innovation sure to provoke discontent and opposition. Nothing of the sort has happened. Some few persons here and there, mostly persons of a critical or philosophical turn of mind, have murmured their fears that an inferior set of men will get into Parliament through these ward constituencies, which will in many cases consist wholly of poor people. But the active local politicians, Tories and Liberals both, have welcomed a change which makes them more important in their several spheres. Moreover, the Tories have hoped to secure the county divisions by the influence of local landowners, and to win those parts of the great towns in which the wealthier classes reside, while the Liberals have concluded that the multiplication of town districts will increase their party strength. Local feeling, always a potent force, has rejoiced in the additional dignity which a local area receives when it has one member all to itself, instead of a share in two or three members. Thus the general voice of the country has approved, and there is small likelihood that we shall ever go back, as the French are doing now, from small to larger electoral districts.

One consequence of this unforeseen development of opinion was to "snuff out," to use a familiar phrase, the agitation for what is called proportional representation. Several persons of eminence, politicians of a speculative cast of mind, had taken up the old idea of Mr. J. S. Mill and Mr. Thomas Hare that a fairer representation of the nation would be obtained by permitting the voter, in voting for a number of candidates, to declare his wish to transfer his votes from his first candidates, if already elected, to some other candidates, than by the plan hitherto employed of voting simply for A and B (if there are two persons to be chosen), or A, B, and C (if there are three). They propounded a scheme which they deemed sufficiently plain and practical for common use, and stumped the country during the months of January and February on its behalf, winning, by their evident earnestness, much respect and even some little sympathy. Believing the nation to be averse to one-membered districts, they hoped to get their scheme adopted as the alternative to such districts, because it would enable large constituencies to be retained, and yet protect the minority in those constituencies. But as their belief proved to be groundless, their hopes were wrecked. People accepted the one-membered districts willingly, and found the proportionalist scheme—that of the transferable vote, as it was called—hard to understand, and liable to uncertainty in its working. One night was allowed them to expound their views to the House of Commons, but the debate was dull, and the support they obtained on a division too small to justify perseverance in the enterprise. For the present, the notion has been dropped, although some of its apostles profess to believe that before long the defects of the new one-membered system will recall attention to its claims, and give it a prospect of success.

The division of counties and boroughs into new electoral districts raised a large crop of very delicate questions, because it was in many cases plain that the political complexion of the new constituency would depend on the boundaries allotted to it—upon the particular streets or parishes which it was made to include. Here was matter for abundant and strenuous controversy between the parties. To avoid dispute it was arranged between the leaders of the Government and the Opposition that a body of boundary commissioners should be named—persons above suspicion of partisanship—who should determine the limits of the new electoral districts, following as much as possible existing limits, such as those of parishes, wards, sessional divisions, and other areas for the purposes of local government. These commissioners completed their work in little more than two months' time, and produced results which were received with general approbation. Here and there one political party, which thought that it suffered by the boundaries proposed, protested, not against the good faith, but against the suitableness of the division. But these cases have been extremely few in England or Scotland; and as the leaders of both parties now agree to abide by the decision of the Commissioners, the arrangements made by them have been embodied in the bill with very slight variations. In Ireland similar acquiescence could not be expected. The Orangemen complain that they will obtain scanty representation in that island, the Protestant minority in the southwest and centre being swamped in almost every constituency by the Roman Catholic majority, because, large as it is collectively, it is a minority in each locality. The Nationalists, on the other hand, accuse the Commissioners of having gerrymandered several districts so as to secure to the Protestants more than their fair share of members. England and Scotland look on quietly, and suppose that the Commissioners must have behaved pretty honestly since they are assailed with equal warmth from opposite quarters. In point of fact, the proportion of Protestants to Catholics in the population of Ireland is likely to be fairly represented by the proportion which Protestants will bear to Catholics in the new Parliament. Considering the extreme delicacy of the operation, and the keenness with which parties are wont to contest every possible electoral gain, it is much to the credit of Great Britain that the bill has gone so smoothly through, and in particular that this question of boundaries has been so peaceably disposed of. If English statesmen on both sides were as skilful in our foreign as they have latterly been in our domestic affairs, we should deserve the envy of Europe.

Y.

Correspondence.

HOMER'S COLOR PERCEPTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your contributor's review of my book is so cordial and appreciative that it would appear

ungrateful in me to reply to any part of it in a controversial spirit, and I have no wish to do so; but I should like to point out that the difference of opinion between your critic and myself on the subject of Homer's perception of color is not so great as he seems to believe. Toward the close of my chapter on "Land and Sea in the Odyssey" I have been careful to observe that the limitation of Homer's color vocabulary may have been due to the narrowness of that vocabulary in his time, and that when such a vocabulary was very narrow, "a man of genius might be unable to express the variety of his own sensations." My conclusion was that Homer's perceptions of color were primitive and often indeterminate, but that "the exact degree of a poet's sensitiveness can hardly be ascertained when we have only his writings, and he himself had no terms at his disposal outside the meagre nomenclature of his time." This, I think, is much nearer to your reviewer's own opinion than to the theory of Magnus. When I say that Homer's perceptions were primitive and often indeterminate, I mean no more than that they may have resembled the perceptions of people in our own time who have not been trained to distinguish tints by the practice of some color-art. I imagine him to have been very much in the position of some Gaelic bard in the Highlands of Scotland, using the word "black" for any dark shade of anything, but still probably able to distinguish better if he were put to it, without, however, approaching the delicate distinctions of painters. I myself had instanced, as examples of inadequately distinctive language, the use of "black wine" for red wine by the Italians, and of "white wine" for sherry by the English. Undoubtedly the Italians and English are able to see that these wines are not black like coal, and white as milk is white. In a word, I am not conscious of any important difference of opinion between me and your reviewer on the subject.

May I say a word in defence of the binder? Your reviewer thinks that the binding of the large-paper copies is "rather flimsy," and suggests that purchasers will probably have it removed. The binding in question is of strong, sound, real vellum, and is very durable. As I had nothing to do with the design, I may say that it is at least in simple and severe taste. The only objection to white vellum bindings that I am aware of is that they are easily soiled.

Sincerely yours,

P. G. HAMERTON.

AUTUN, April 27, 1885.

A STILL MORE YOUTHFUL JUDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is odd that the *Nation*, in instancing youthful judges, should have overlooked so conspicuous a case as that of Joseph Story, who was younger even than Johnson when appointed to the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States. His son says, in his biography of the Judge, that, with the exception of Buller, who was made an associate of Mansfield at the same age, Story was the youngest man who ever took so high a place in England or America. Like Johnson, he had been three terms in the State Legislature, and he had served, besides, for part of a term in Congress. Story, to be sure, was only nine days younger than Johnson was at the date of his appointment, but that is enough to give Massachusetts the lead of South Carolina.

BOSTON.

May 6, 1885.

THE MISUSED H.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some remarks in the last number of the *Nation*, criticising Mr. Proctor's article on "The Misused H of England," suggest the following lines from Catullus:

"Chommoda dicebat, si quando commoda vellet
Dicere, et hinsidias Arrius insidias;
Et tum mirifice sperabat se esse locutum,
Cum, *quantum poterat*, dixerat hinsidias.
. . . . . .
Hoc misso in Syriam, requierant omnibus aures,
Audiebant eadem haec leniter et leviter.
Nec sibi postilla metuebant talia verba,
Cum subito affertur nuntius horribilis,
Ionios fluctus, postquam illuc Arrius isset,
Jam non Ionios esse, sed Hionios."

—*Carmen lxxxiv.*

The words "*quantum poterat*," 'with all his might,' would certainly seem to indicate that the H in question may have come about by way of emphasis. As for "'umble" and "humble," if we find the former more emphatic, is it not simply because any peculiarity of speech has for us an emphasis which we do not find in the more usual form? M. D.

ROXBURY, MASS., May 11, 1885.

THE POPULAR VIEW OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, "J. H.," has brought out so forcibly one element of the political situation that I cannot refrain from noticing it. He says that in Washington the office-seeker will tell you that there is a suppressed murmur rising up from the people which will shortly break into a terrible yell or howl, and this because the President is moving too slowly in the matter of distribution of offices, and the people will not stand it. On the other hand, he says that the people are more than satisfied with the Administration; that they care as little about the supposed grievances of the office-seekers as do the office-seekers about the real welfare and good of the country.

The truth is, that the people do not understand the simply *awful* situation in which the President is placed. It is not merely that he has to resist the pressure from his own party. It is admitted that where Republican officials have been unfaithful he has a right to displace them, and in filling the vacancies it is almost impossible that he should not consider party claims. Thus all over the United States he has to balance the evidence for turning one man out and then the evidence for putting another man in, and all this under the most tremendous pressure. If he makes a mistake and puts in a Pillsbury or a Higgins, not merely the Republicans, but the Independents, whom he is naturally anxious to please, turn upon him, as witness the letter of "B." immediately following that of "J. H.," in your last issue. And he has to bear it all in silence, being unable to utter a word publicly, either of himself or by his Cabinet officers, in his own defence. It is no wonder that we hear that his health is not as good as it was, or that when he goes to Gettysburg he seems weary and depressed and declines to make a speech. I watch such reports with intense anxiety, believing that the strain is more than mortal strength can bear. And then to have the papers attribute his failure of interest at Gettysburg to want of patriotism! Verily the bed at the White House is not one of roses.

The only effective remedy in this case, also, is to be found in Cabinet responsibility. I would not detract from the credit of the civil-service reformers. They have done a great work in arousing public sentiment and in establishing the Commission. But I think they would themselves admit that their strength at this juncture is in the character of the President. Had he been other than what he is, their fabric would have been swept to the winds. The responsibility for every appointment now comes back upon the defenceless President. If the Cabinet officers had to stand up at intervals in Congress, and were subject to question upon notice by any individual member, each Secretary would have to explain any doubtful appointments in his own department; and the liability to this in the case of bad appointments would be so disagreeable that it would soon become easier to refuse than to yield. In fact, the Cabinet would soon become the most earnest and efficient apostles of civil-service reform, as relieving them from a burdensome responsibility. It was precisely in this way and for this reason that the Ministry of Lord Aberdeen, in 1853, forced civil-service reform upon a reluctant Parliament.

I can fancy some of your readers exclaiming that if the President had the toothache, "G. B." would say that it was because the Cabinet officers were not in Congress. After joining heartily in the laughter, I beg to point out the limits of my position. The reform proposed applies to all, and only all, which is included in the comprehensive word "administration." The curse and the danger of this country is that there is too much hap-hazard legislation and too little administration, the case being far worse with the local governments than with that of the United States. The public and individual responsibility of the chief executive officers being held to be the means of reforming administration, its advantages can be illustrated by everything which has to do with administration—that is, by every phase of the political side of society. It seems almost impossible to make people understand the nature of such a reform in the States and cities, but the chain of administration in the Federal Government is otherwise so admirable, that if this one connecting link can be made to bring legislation and administration into harmonious action, there will be a passion for similar local reforms; and if they can be successfully effected, our popular Government, which is staggering under the burden of defective administration, will start on a fresh career of prosperity and success. G. B.

BOSTON, May 9, 1885.

THE WEST-POINT OATH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A letter recently appeared in the Fayetteville (Tenn.) *Observer*, written by Mr. J. W. Newman, a lawyer of that town, from which the following extract is taken:

"In 1870 Col. J. H. Holman, who had been an officer in the old army and had resigned, and in 1861 went into the rebellion as Lieutenant-Colonel of the First Tennessee (Confederate) Regiment, was elected Attorney-General of the Sixth Judicial Circuit of Tennessee. Soon thereafter, and after entering upon his duties as Attorney-General, he was indicted in the Federal Court at Nashville for holding office in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment. He plead in abatement of the writ (ex-Governor Marks, of Tennessee, being his attorney) the fact that he had never taken an oath as officer in the United States army 'to support the Constitution of the United States,' that the only oath he had taken was the oath copied above from Dunlop. The War Department at Washington furnished him an exemplified copy of his oath and he went to trial upon it. The Court sustained Col. Holman's plea and quashed the indictment. The District-Attorney-General, Mr. McPhail Smith, appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, from which court it was *dismissed* by the Attorney-General of the United States *without a hearing*. So it will be seen the question is *res adjudicata*, and Mr. Garland need not have pleaded the eligibility of Mr. Lawton on the ground of 'pardon,' but might have put it with equal force upon the ground of his not being amenable to the penalties of the Fourteenth Amendment."

The oath referred to is the following, and it is the one which was prescribed for officers and soldiers before the late war:

"I, *A. B.*, do solemnly swear, or affirm (as the

case may be), that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the United States of America, and that I will serve them honestly and faithfully against their enemies or opposers whomsoever; and that I will observe and obey the orders of the President of the United States, and the orders of the officers appointed over me, according to the Rules and Articles of War."

At the time General Lawton entered the Military Academy in 1835, *cadets* were not required to take an oath, but they, "in the presence of the Superintendent or some one deputed by him," subscribed to an engagement of the following form:

"I, Cadet ——, of the State of ——, aged —— years and —— months, do hereby engage, with the consent of my guardian, to serve in the army of the United States for eight years, unless sooner discharged by the proper authority. And I, Cadet ——, do hereby pledge my word of honor as a gentleman that I will faithfully observe the Rules and Articles of War, the Regulations for the Army, and the Regulations for the Military Academy, and that I will in like manner observe and obey the orders of the President of the United States, and the orders of the officers appointed over me, according to the rules and discipline of war."

In 1842 the above engagement and oath were combined into a single form, and thereafter the cadets *subscribed* and *swore* to the new form.

From the nature of the various comments made upon General Lawton's appointment, it would seem that the above decision and facts are not generally known. S. E. Tillman.

West Point, N. Y., May 11.

THE PERSONALITY OF GEORGE ELIOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reviews of Mr. Cross's 'Life of George Eliot' have been nearly as interesting a study as the 'Life' itself. Without undertaking to review the reviewers, one may call attention to a special point in Lord Acton's paper in the *Nineteenth Century* for March as very suggestive.

However straitly a critic may hold himself to the consideration of George Eliot's purely literary genius, or to the question of the moral effect of her writings as such, it is impossible for him to avoid a general view of her based on a very special fact, viz., that George Eliot, being a woman of immense talent and of undoubted moral purpose, deliberately defied or opposed the customs and beliefs of her generation in respect of marriage. The emphasis is unconsciously laid on the words woman, talents, morals, customs, beliefs, as the fact comes before the mind. No man can escape this general color and background. His mental retina responds to the vivid sensation in a degree and manner which depend on the sum of his own experiences and judgments.

These reviews are, then, especially interesting as truly and unconsciously representing certain typical points of view. Lord Acton's is:

"To deny herself to old friends, to earn with her pen an income for her whose place she took, to pass among strangers by a name which was not her due—all this did not seem too high a price for the happiness of a home. She urged with pathetic gravity that she knew what she was losing. She did not know it. Ostensibly she was resigning a small group of friends and an obscure position in literature. What she really sacrificed was liberty of speech and a tomb in Westminster Abbey."

It seems worth while to take this out of its general setting and to let it stand by itself as one conclusion. Is this conclusion satisfying? Is not the fault in Lord Acton's final estimate one which may have come to him by studying his author too well? Has he not entirely left out of view in his memoir, as she often did in her work, that element of the possible, the unforeseen, the unexpected which may lie just back of all that can be determined by careful, minute, and exquisite dissection of a mind and motives? Do we not need more synthesis and more imagination here? Almost any human being will surprise us at some time with a revelation of an unexpected divinity within. We are mysteries or no mysteries according to the standard of our human judges. This view, which may seem complete on Piccadilly, might be found lacking in a desert solitude where conclusions did not press. It seems that some underlying element has been left out, and that to accept this judgment as final is slothfully to avoid the vital centre of the question which every man will ask himself, and which, so far, is left unanswered.

The one thing that the world would inwardly accept, though it would outwardly disapprove, would be the conviction that this great genius was matched by an overmastering passion as great. If this were true, the decision not to barter a present and perfect joy for a future tomb, however glorious, might not seem so irrational. The obvious meaning of the 'Life,' however, does not seem to point this way. The first, as well as the last, marriage is made to appear as if it were based on an affectionate longing for companionship and gentle daily care and love; for comfort of the mind and the affections. It is idle to deny that the vital question of George Eliot's place as a *personality* is here. If this place is to be called in question at all, it seems well in all respects that it should be settled on high grounds, both human and divine, and not decided by a reference to a local distinction, however marked. X.

Notes.

C. A. Nichols & Co., Springfield, Mass., have in press 'Descriptive Portraiture of Europe in Storm and Calm: Twenty Years' Experiences and Reminiscences of an American Journalist,' by Edward King. The illustrations for this book will be numerous and have been designed by Félix Régamey, the well-known Paris artist.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, will control the American edition of an exhaustive monograph on Sappho, prepared by Henry J. Wharton, with the assistance of J. Addington Symonds. It will be issued in large and small-paper copies.

It is to be hoped that the recent regrettable failure of James R. Osgood & Co. will not materially delay the appearance of their promised 'Life, Letters, and Journals of Henry W. Longfellow,' edited by his brother, the Rev. Samuel Longfellow.

The firm of Ginn, Heath & Co. has been changed to Ginn & Co., Mr. Heath retiring. Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspere,' minus "Measure for Measure," and somewhat simplified verbally, has been added by these publishers to their 'Classics for Children.' They will issue in the same series during the present week 'Tales of a Grandfather' and the 'Swiss Family Robinson.'

The new and promising translation of 'Don Quixote,' of which the first volume has just been published by Macmillan & Co., will consist of four volumes, to appear monthly. We shall reserve comment till the work is complete in our hands.

Wisconsin is at some pains not only to preserve but to popularize its history. More than thirty years ago two volumes on that subject were compiled and published at the expense of the State by W. R. Smith, one of its prominent pioneers. But this work may be said to have ended before it began. Smith's politics were not those of the legislative majority, and so the State, which could not be sued, broke its contract with him when his narrative had only reached 1836, or the beginning of the Wisconsin territorial period. Last month, however, commissioners were appointed by the Legislature to examine a volume embracing that period of twelve years from 1836 to 1848, written by Moses M. Strong, who has resided in Wisconsin from the outset of its territorial existence, and was from the first conspicuous among its politicians. The commissioners report that Mr. Strong's manuscript, though by no means their ideal of what such a history should be, covers ground hitherto unoccupied and so is a work of merit. Two thousand copies of an octavo in 700 pages will be printed at the public charge, and Mr. Strong's labors will be fully compensated, though he does not belong to the dominant party. The State volumes will be distributed among all libraries, institutions of higher education, and other public establishments, and preëminently through the State Historical Society in exchange with similar associations.

A trip in a boat fifteen feet long by thirty-one inches broad from Lake George to the western coast of Florida, by the way of our inland waters, was a feat requiring no little courage, skill, and endurance. Dr. C. A. Neidé and one companion started on their adventurous voyage in August, 1883, and, after considerable danger from rapids in the Ohio, the sudden and violent storms of the Mississippi, and the fogs and tremendous surf of the Gulf of Mexico, safely reached Pensacola in the following February. The story is told simply in 'The Canoe *Aurora*' (*Forest and Stream* Publishing Company), and gives us glimpses of river life hidden from the eyes of the ordinary traveller.

The semi-centennial improved edition of Dr. John Todd's 'Index Rerum' was issued two years ago (New York: Baker & Taylor). It is now freshly put out again by these publishers. Mr. James M. Hubbard, who has had the bettering of it, points out Dr. Todd's imperfect employment of his own tool when, in his illustrative examples, he made "references to writings upon slavery, probation, Christianity, and infidelity," and placed them not under these words but under "'eloquent,' 'difficulties,' 'importance,' and 'reflections.'" Mr. Hubbard's examples unconsciously show the change in the times; he instances "Bible, Biography, Capital and labor, Christ, Civil-service reform, History, Novels, Poetry, Science, Socialism, Travels, Tariff."

The title-page of the most recent issue in the series of "Simplified Grammars" has a typically cosmopolitan look; it reads thus: 'A Compendious Sanskrit Grammar, with a brief sketch of Scenic Prākrit. By Hjalmar Edgren, Ph.D., Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Nebraska, U. S. A., formerly Lecturer on Sanskrit in the University of Lund, Sweden. London: Trübner & Co.' That is, the exposition of a language of ancient India by a Swedish professor in Nebraska is published by a famous German firm in London. The little book is designed for the use of beginners before they proceed to the full and elaborate grammar of Whitney, whose authority and system Edgren—himself a pupil of Whitney—has naturally followed.

We have received a copy of the catalogue, in two quarto volumes, of the library of Mr. George Gordon King, of Newport. This work, privately printed "regardless of expense," but with commendable good taste and accuracy of impression, is in some sort designed as a monument of the founder of the library, the uncle and namesake of the present owner. The elder Mr. King was, if we may judge from the list of his acquisitions, hardly to be called a collector. It is not easy to discover leading lines in what is essentially a "gentleman's library." Books of travel were perhaps most sought after for their own sake, yet with little system. The library, too, is chiefly English. Apart from the classics, books in foreign languages are generally curiosities of early

printing. Mr. King was, however, very fond of prints, of which he had amassed a great number in books and in portfolios, and to these last the whole of volume ii is devoted. The cataloguer, Mr. Joseph Allan Nolan, has imitated the example of our best public-library catalogues in analyzing the contents of comprehensive works; though he outstrips them when he performs this service for Serjeant Ballantine's 'Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life' not less than for Emerson's 'Miscellanies,' or Burke's Works.

The ordinary book catalogue abridges the titles of books freely. It is thought to be extravagant when it copies a title in full, and sometimes, as a rare luxury, is allowed to indicate the end of lines in the title-page which it is copying by interrupting its own lines with a vertical dash. The Florentine ex-banker, M. Horace de Landau, however, in the catalogue of his private library, regards this luxury as a meanness, only condescends to use it for a few modern books, and for the bulk of his collection indicates each line of a title-page by a separate line of his catalogue, so that in some cases a single title occupies a whole page. He is a pupil and imitator of the Rothschilds, and can afford the cry, "Hang the expense." Unfortunately, he has printed only one hundred copies of his catalogue, and we fear few will reach this country.

In 1869 Dr. James Rush left his estate, appraised at over a million, for erecting a fire-proof library building in Philadelphia. The will contained various foolish provisions, in consequence of which the clumsy building cost much more than it ought to have done for its storage capacity, and very little money was left for running the library and for the purchase of books. But the most fatal provision placed the library in an out-of-the-way quarter of the city. The result is shown in the last report of the Philadelphia Library Company, to which the building and the relics of the bequest have come. Last year an average of twenty-one persons a week-day visited the "Ridgway Branch," as it is called, and 6,014 volumes were used. The $1,000,000, if well invested, would be producing at least $40,000; instead of that, it circulated 6,014 volumes, or, in other words, the use of each volume cost $6 50. Girard, Rush, and Stewart have not, perhaps, made the most objectionable wills ever received to probate in this country; but in their college, library, and cathedral they have left the most conspicuous monuments of unwisdom. Yet two of them were shrewd men of business, "practical men."

Our readers should not fail to study one of the best results of Mr. Galton's "composite photography," as shown in *Science* for May 8. Professor Pumpelly describes the mode of taking and the component parts of four typical portraits engraved by "process," and representing the identical elements in the physiognomy of twelve mathematicians, sixteen naturalists, thirty-one members of the National Academy of Sciences, and twenty-six field-geologists.

Dr. Benjamin Ward Richardson's quarterly *Asclepiad* (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.) seldom fails to contain agreeable reading for laymen as well as for the medical practitioner. In the number for April will be found a very interesting account of Vesalius and the birth of anatomy, together with a portrait of the great Belgian, after John Stephan de Calcar, who was most probably the designer and perhaps the engraver of the plates to 'De Humani Corporis Fabrica' (1543). These receive superlative praise from Dr. Richardson, who copies a large number of them (the copying, he says, has been going on for three centuries), and has put them to the test in his lectures by throwing them upon the screen enlarged to their natural size.

Mr. Fletcher, in a lecture at the Parkes Museum, March 26, claimed to have solved the problem of smokeless house and factory by the use of gas. For two years he has provided in his house for fires, washing, cooking, and bathing with gas at about the same cost as with coal, and with a great saving in servants, dirt, and inconvenience. In his factory, employing 130 hands, he has attained the same end by the use of coke, getting nearly as much work from a pound of coke as from a pound of coal, which costs more and smokes. Great as is, however, the corruption of the atmosphere, which is so acid as to give a plain reaction with litmus-paper, no manufacturer and hardly any householder will take measures to consume his smoke, except so far as the chimney-inspectors compel him. If, however, it can be shown to be distinctly cheaper, England's skies will be soon cleared, and Ruskin will be happy.

The Paris letter in our last number, in which the fall of Ferry was traced to the same cause that produced the fall of Gambetta—the dislike of the place mongering politicians toward a minister who had tried, by establishing the *scrutin de liste*, to free the Ministry from their importunity—could not have surprised any one who had read Gaston Bergeret's 'Dans le Monde Officiel.' In that clever collection of stories, and particularly in the one entitled "Trois Mois de Pouvoir," the extent to which the minister is under the control of the deputy and the deputy is subject to his constituent is very evident, though to show it is not the main object of the narrative. But if statesmen of undoubted ability can be displaced by such causes, the conservative may ask: How is a republic better than the government in which wars were made by the Queen's waiting-woman, and peace by placating the favorite's pug-dog?

Two recent volumes of French short stories help to show that in this department of fiction the French are ahead of the English, and not far behind the Americans. These are the 'Contes du Jour et de la Nuit,' by M. Guy de Maupassant, and the 'Contes de *Figaro*.' In this latter are collected nine short stories originally contributed to the *Figaro* by nine different authors; "Les Pommes Cuites," a tale of theatrical life by M. François Coppée, being easily the best. M. de Maupassant has not put his best work into his last volume. Only two or three of the tales are remarkable or interesting. Both books are injured by rough and feeble illustrations.

One of our correspondents who illustrated the inexactitude of translations from a Boston version of Daudet's 'Rois en Exil,' did not add the true meaning to the false rendering. A reader of *Le Français* (Boston) has asked the editor to help him out, for the passages were difficult, and M. Lévy does so in his May number. He confirms our correspondent's general high opinion of the translations in which, nevertheless, the extraordinary aberrations cited occurred.

As usual the first of the French theatrical annuals to arrive and the most beautiful to behold is the 'Almanach des Spectacles' (Paris: Jouaust; New York: F. W. Christern), now in its eleventh year, and for the first time without an etching. The dramatic data are, as always, given accurately and concisely. We see, for example, that thirteen plays of Molière have furnished forth in all ninety-five performances by the Comédie-Française, and that the operas—exclusive of the novelties of the year—most frequently performed at the Opéra were "Faust," twenty-four times, and "Favorita," twenty-three times. The brief dramatic biography is useful.

The French Geographical Society gave a grand reception on April 7 to M. Victor Giraud, who has just returned from a two years' exploration of the lower African Lake region. He left Zanzibar in December, 1882, with a force of 120 porters, carrying with him a steel canoe. After great hardships and considerable opposition from the natives, he was able to launch his boat on Lake Bangweolo in the following July. A chief, in giving him permission to pass through his country, added that he would surely die, like Livingstone, whose wanderings ceased, it will be remembered, on the southern shore of this lake. By means of his canoe M. Giraud was able to determine the true outlet of the River Luapula, the upper Congo, and to follow its course for three days in a southwesterly direction until further progress was checked by some rapids and a hostile army of natives. After a three days' combat he was taken prisoner. He soon made his escape, however, though with the loss of his canoe, and, after skirting the eastern shore of Lake Moero, reached a missionary station on Lake Tanganyika. His efforts to get to Stanley Pool, on the Congo, were defeated by the desertion of his men, and he was obliged to return, reaching the coast at the mouth of the Zambesi in November last. His account of this adventurous journey is given, with a map, in the last *Compte rendu* of the Société de Géographie.

Dr. Koner's customary classified list of geographical publications for November 1, 1883-84, is printed in No. 114 of the Berlin Society's Journal. In the Proceedings of the same society (vol. xiii, No. 3) a map of the Aaru Archipelago accompanies Herr Riedel's paper on this region and its inhabitants.

Except an article on coast defences, there is little that pertains to the burning questions of the day in Parts 146-150 of 'Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexicon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt). We must mention, however, a useful chart showing the colonial possessions of European nations, the world over. To Leipzig is given the most considerable article, which is accompanied by a fine map of the city and its environs. Welcome, too, is a map of Chili, Patagonia, and the Argentine Republic; and very pretty is the colored plate containing specimens of ceramics.

Bismarck's seventieth birthday furnished an occasion for fresh portraiture and other personal illustration to the German periodicals. *Schorer's Familienblatt* (vol. vi, No. 13) accompanies a number of sketches of the great Chancellor with a pen design, "Bismarck reading the proclamation of Emperor at Versailles," by the painter, Anton von Werner, and sundry less important scenes from his career, not omitting one symbolical presentation of him as a nightmare astride of Napoleon III., and another as opening the mouse-trap of Metz, and finally his desperate autograph. *Vom Fels zum Meer* (F. W. Christern) for May, on the other hand, serves up the hero's career in "five life stations," illustrated at every point of his environment in Varzin, and crowned with a superb folded wood-engraving of Bismarck (well worth framing), after Lenbach's painting. This being in civilian dress, a fine soldier-portrait is added, with separate likenesses also of his wife, his two sons, and his daughter.

—The War papers in the May *Century* are six in number. General Imboden's sketch of the Battle of Manassas, or First Bull Run, is a lively account of incidents in his personal experience as an artillery captain on the Confederate side, and is a worthy companion-piece for Goss's "Recollections of a Private." Gen. Gustavus W. Smith, also from the Confederate standpoint, gives his version of the second day of the battle of Seven Pines or Fair Oaks, in which he commanded the Confederate army after the disabling of General Johnston, and until General Lee assumed control. He seeks to correct the impression given by some historians, that the Confederate movements lacked in vigor and unity of purpose after Johnston fell. General Johnston contributes a series of notes specifically meeting assertions made by Jefferson Davis, in the 'Rise and Fall

of the Confederacy,' relating to the period of Johnston's command of the Army of Northern Virginia, from Manassas to Seven Pines. He also contends that the statement of Beauregard, that in the battle of Manassas the responsible command and direction of the battle was not assumed by Johnston, is an error, and that he was as really the controlling and guiding mind as any commanding officer could be. The paper is avowedly controversial, and is an important contribution to the discussion of the campaign of 1861-62.

—General McClellan's paper has great interest from the fact that it gives us the grounds upon which, after the long debate, he is willing to rest the defence of the military policy pursued by him in 1861, and the strategy of his Peninsular campaign in 1862. We have no room for criticism of this, and can only indicate his points. He attributes to Mr. Stanton, as Secretary of War, a hostile attitude toward his plans, and insincerity in conduct as the means of communication between the President and the General. He intimates that to this influence was due the interference with his plans both before and after the Peninsular campaign began, which he argues was the fatal cause of all the disasters that occurred. The sketch of his purposes, with the reasons for them, is clear and simple, and future discussion must in great measure turn upon it, and upon its accord with the official records and correspondence. Upon the point regarded by most critics as a vital one, viz., the actual strength of the opposing forces in the field at the beginning of the campaign, his silence will be deemed significant by many. General Badeau's sketch of Grant is a warmly eulogistic estimate of his character and achievements. With their abundant illustrations, the articles in this number alone would make a valuable and attractive volume of contributions to War history.

—The construction of the Lick Observatory on the summit of Mount Hamilton, California, has advanced so rapidly during the past two years, under the direction of the Board of Trustees, that the establishment is now practically complete, with the exception of the great telescope. In so far as the Trustees and their work is concerned, the entire institution, great telescope and all, would have been completed at the close of the present year and given over to the management of the Regents of the University of California, had not the opticians been defeated in the prompt fulfilment of their contract by the unfortunate failure of the glass-makers to produce a piece of crown glass of the size and perfection required for the objective of the telescope. It is now reported that the new management of the firm of Feil, of Paris, has already overcome the difficulties incident to the making of the great disc; and if no accident shall happen, it is to be expected that the Clarks of Cambridgeport will have begun their work of figuring it before the end of the coming summer. The length of time which this operation will consume is uncertain, but two years is a reasonable allowance. The dome, meantime, will be built seventy-six feet in exterior diameter, a size certainly large enough to cover the thirty-six-inch telescope. The excavations for this structure in the solid rock of the mountain are already under way, and the director of works expects to complete its main walls during the coming summer, while the season of 1886 will suffice for the addition of the superstructure, or dome proper. Simultaneously with the optician's work upon the glass discs the equally important problem of the most suitable mounting for the telescope will be attacked, and all the intricate mechanism required for its convenient use will be constructed and put in place underneath the dome, so as to receive the great glass and make its use possible as soon as the optician's work is complete. It may confidently be expected that this important event in the history of astronomy, marking the completion of the first mountain observatory, will not be delayed beyond the autumn of 1887.

—In the May number of *Nord und Süd* Carl Vogt has an article on the German universities. He has little to say about the students, but makes one important point, which is new to us, viz.: that their great increase since 1866 is due to the universal introduction of the every-man-must-be-a-soldier system. Formerly, middle-class families devoted their savings to buying substitutes, and the youths whose debt to their country was thus compounded began their careers as tradesmen, or what not, at an early age. Now, every one must "serve," but those who can pass an examination equivalent to that required for admission to the universities, are let off with a single year. The result is, not only that nearly all those who formerly would have had substitutes protract their school time by several years, but the majority of those who thus reach the threshold of the university—impelled partly by fixed habits and partly by social ambition—succeed in inducing their parents to let them pass it. But most of Professor Vogt's remarks are addressed to the professors, who, it is needless to say, come off at his hands rather badly. Their organization is bad alike for themselves, for the students, and for the towns in which they live. To begin with, the whole arrangement is a survival of the mediæval guild, one feature being that the professor is always hoping for preferment, not from within, but from without. In consequence of this, he never regards any place as his home till he is past his prime; has no common associations or sympathies with the townsfolk among whom he lives; has no companions but his students and fellow-professors—association with whom only strengthens professional or corporate prejudices. The second great defect of the system is, that under it a professor's capacity as a teacher is almost never considered. Outside his own university he is known only by his writings, so that a man of extraordinary aptitude for imparting knowledge may remain in obscurity, while one physically and morally entirely incompetent to teach is advanced, because the one publishes a book every year or two and the other does not. The third defect grows out of that feature of the system which makes an able professor depend upon the fees paid by students more than upon his salary. This under-payment has the advantage that it stimulates to greater exertion those who might be content with routine work; but the professor who has once enjoyed a considerable extra income is, of course, unwilling to part with it, so that even when permitted to retire on a full salary he declines the honor with thanks, since, in the majority of cases, the fame of past achievements is certain to secure him "a paying public." The highest places in the universities are consequently filled with these worn-out celebrities, who keep down rising talent by the mere fact of their existence.

—A clever article in the *Revue de Belgique* for April 15 purports to be a translation from the great work of the renowned historian "Dimitri Panslavitch," written in 1985. It seems that after the Afghans had occupied Panjdeh, and the Russians, to neutralize this move, had seized other passes leading to Herat, the British took alarm and made the most extensive preparations for war. But as the Ministry wished for peace, they made an offer to negotiate "on the basis of the *status quo*," which the Russians eagerly accepted. Negotiations dragged on through the winter of 1885-86, during which time, knowing that operations in Asia would not be possible before spring, the British made a final campaign in Egypt, which resulted in the capture of Khartum. But while their attention was engrossed by Egypt and by reforms at home, the Russians had assembled on the frontier an army of 90,000 men, and had built railways, so that while Herat was two months from London, it was only a fortnight from St. Petersburg. At this point the Russians, in consequence of an "accidental" skirmish with the Afghans, seized the last defile before Herat, a proceeding which caused passionate excitement in England, and with it the fall of Gladstone. The most vigorous measures were taken by his successor, but by the time Lord Wolseley had passed Gibraltar the Russian cavalry had entered Herat. Of the subsequent military operations, suffice it to say that General Slowork, though consistently supported by the Amir and, at first, by the natives, was eventually defeated through the treachery of the Amir's chief minister and general, who, in the midst of a battle, joined the Russians. The retreat of the British, pursued by the combined Russian and Afghan forces, resulted in a repetition of the rising of 1857; so that in a short time there was not a Briton beyond the range of the guns of the various fleets. The Ministry now resolved on a heroic remedy—to reconquer India in Europe. Enormous reinforcements were already half way to India, but they were stopped, and Europe was electrified by the news of the British occupation of southern Russia. To arrest their progress, Poland had to be stripped of its garrisons, and at once rose, while the Russian fleet was annihilated, and all the troops which could be gathered were defeated, successively, at Kiev and Smolensk. The only hope of the Russians was now in the intervention of Germany; but when they made proposals to this effect, Bismarck told them that Great Britain had got ahead of them by offering the Baltic provinces. Bismarck added that he had indignantly refused the offer, but that if it should become known in Germany—which, in view of the habitual indiscretion of English diplomacy, was very likely to happen—the popular feeling would not allow him to neglect the opportunity to recover a long-lost branch of the German family. In view of this, he suggested that the popular demand should be anticipated by a temporary occupation. Though Bismarck's intentions were obvious, Russia could not refuse these terms—Germany, in its turn, engaging to offer its mediation. If this were refused by Great Britain, Germany was to send an army to the aid of Russia, as a guarantee for whose expenses it was to retain the Baltic provinces. Great Britain, flushed with victory, did refuse Bismarck's mediation, of course greatly to the grief and surprise of that simple-minded statesman. The British force occupying the Baltic provinces was instantly overwhelmed, and in a short time Ireland was occupied by a Bavarian army. The British fleets being elsewhere engaged, a descent upon the English coast was easily made, and London occupied without difficulty. The Government retired to Edinburgh, whence peace was made, the treaty being signed at Windsor on October 7, 1887, and one condition being that England was to be occupied by the allies until an enormous indemnity had been paid.

—The history of Israel as unfolded in the Hebrew Scriptures, owing to the unique character both of the events and the narratives, admirably lends itself to the pen of the popular writer. The literature of every Christian country abounds in compends of this kind. The Jewish history of the earlier post-Biblical periods, too—the almost exclusive sources of which are the books of Maccabees and the annals of Josephus—is so full of heroic, thrilling, and tragic events that it requires little skill to make a summary of it popu-

larly attractive, or even fascinating. But with the destruction of Jewish independence by the Romans, and the suppression of the last attempts to recover it, the history of the people changes suddenly and completely. It becomes dark, painful, almost forbidding—a bewildering picture of harrowing oppression, attempts at extermination, and passive invincibility. To depict this life of the Jewish people in the dispersion in a connected sketch of moderate dimensions, not a mere maze of names—Talmudical, rabbinical, Gentile—penetrable only to the student, nor a work devoid of unity, chronological order, and symmetry, is a task demanding great literary ability. It has, however, been admirably executed by a young French writer, M. Théodore Reinach, in his 'Histoire des Israélites depuis l'époque de leur dispersion jusqu'à nos jours' (Paris, 1885). With uncommon tact and true historical insight, he has selected out of the mass of matter worked up by Basnage, Jost, Graetz, and some minor writers, all that is most characteristic and salient in the social, religious, and literary life of the Jews, and—braving the reproach of incompleteness—has made the chosen portions intelligible, harmonious, and, despite the intrinsic gloominess of the whole, attractive. His main guide is, of course, Graetz, but he borrows freely from Derenbourg and other French writers. He displays less familiarity with Hebrew literature than with the general history of the eighteen centuries through which he leads his reader, but the whole tenor of the book evinces Israelitish sentiments, which give warmth and color to its pages without noticeably impairing their objective truthfulness.

—The controversy about the authorship of the 'De Imitatione Christi' still rages. Last August a monument was raised at Verceil in honor of Jean Gersen, with great rejoicings. On the other hand, Father Denifle, a learned Dominican employed in the Archives of the Vatican, has, according to the Abbé Delvigne, "completely demolished the legend of Gersen, the mythical abbot of Saint-Étienne at Verceil." Father Santini, general of the regular canons of the Lateran, has published a volume of some 500 pages in favor of the claim of Thomas à Kempis; and one of the canons, Father Lolli, has written two pamphlets to the same effect. Finally, the Abbé Delvigne has protested, in a little pamphlet published at Brussels, against the monument at Verceil. It is now a contest of paper against stone. Future generations can see whether the pen is mightier than the chisel. In England the doubt as to the authorship of another famous piece of practical theology, 'The Whole Duty of Man,' is not indeed removed, but diminished. The question has come so far toward an answer as this, that a great library, the Bodleian, by admitting the book to its catalogue under a definite name, shows that Bodley's librarian at least is convinced by the arguments of Mr. C. E. Doble, who advocated the claims of Doctor Richard Allestree.

—Scotchmen and Chinamen are not commonly associated in our thoughts, yet they have one thing in common—the pentatonic scale in their music, in which are omitted the fourth and seventh notes of the diatonic scale on which the music we listen to every day is based. In all other respects, however, Scotch music appears to us normal and pleasing, while Chinese music is described by Occidental tourists as noisy, monotonous, discordant, and chaotic. In a brochure published at Shanghai (London: P. S. King & Son), Mr. J. A. Van Aalst, of the Chinese Imperial Customs Service, attempts to explain the mysteries of the divine art in the Celestial Kingdom. The explanations given are concise and intelligible, and there are numerous illustrations of musical groups and curious instruments, of dancers and temples, and examples of songs both in Chinese and European notation. The chief reasons, we are told, why Chinese music makes a disagreeable impression on foreigners are that their intervals are not tempered; the intonation is often faulty; the melodies are neither definitely major nor minor, and are always in unison and unchangeable in key, loudness, and movement, which produces a sense of monotony. But the Chinese like this music, as is proved by "the numerous bands parading the streets and offering their services; by the strict attention with which they listen to the ballad singers—now exhibiting emotion at an affecting picture of suffering, now breaking into hearty laughter when the subject is of an amusing kind; and finally by the large variety of instruments, which, although often played without taste and feeling, are nevertheless remarkable for their beautiful simp icity of form, and their extreme cheapness." Harmony, as we understand it, is unknown to them. In singing, "the sounds seem to proceed from the nose; the tongue, the teeth, and the lips have very little to do, except for the enunciation of some labial words." The singing is always in unison, and generally accompanied on the guitar. A delightful effect must be produced in the Buddhistic service, where we are told that, although all the chanters utter the same words and follow the same rhythm, still each sings in the key most convenient to his own voice. The Chinese are not unacquainted with our method of dividing an octave into twelve semitones, and transposing, yet this method is rarely applied in their melodies. In æsthetics, it seems, the Chinese hold to the old notion, combated by Hanslick, that music is the expression of the feelings.

SELECT ORATIONS.

Representative American Orations, to Illustrate American Political History. Edited, with Introductions, by Alexander Johnston, Professor of Jurisprudence and Political Economy in the College of New Jersey. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Representative British Orations, with Introductions and Explanatory Notes. By Charles Kendall Adams, Professor of History in the University of Michigan. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THESE companion sets of volumes are designed to bring together, within easy reach, a number of the most important political speeches, English and American, for use in historical study. The idea was a decidedly happy one. It would be difficult to overrate the value of a good political speech as a source of history for later generations. The more fully it answers its immediate purpose of gaining the support of the people, the more valuable it becomes for later study, as evidence of the public thought and prevailing sentiment at the date of its delivery. Unfortunately, good reporting is a very recent accomplishment. It was only when political oratory was far gone in decline that it became possible to preserve more than a bald outline of a speech. What passes as a "full report" was usually, as is well known, the product of some fertile brain in Grub Street.

The speeches before us are mainly confined to the present century; and they have been selected from the great mass rather with a view to their historical value than for oratorical excellence. The American set comprises fifty-five speeches, more or less complete. They are grouped under seven different heads: Colonialism, Constitutional Government, the Rise of Democracy, the Rise of Nationality, the Anti-Slavery Struggle, Secession and Reconstruction, and Free Trade and Protection. These divisions, except the last, correspond to periods in the history of the nation. The speeches of each group are prefaced by a sketch of the period to which they belong, and a statement of the questions to which they relate. These sketches are admirably clear and effective. The selections also seem to have been made with skill and good judgment. Of course it was not possible to give more than a small part of what was said on each side of every question. We think Professor Johnston may be congratulated on having selected from the whole mass those speeches and parts of speeches that were most characteristic and influential. The anti-slavery struggle and the questions that grew out of it having occupied so large a place in the national life, it was natural that they should furnish the most numerous and striking selections. Accordingly, the whole of the second volume and almost the whole of the third are occupied with speeches relating to slavery and the troubles between North and South to which slavery gave rise. Calhoun, Webster, Phillips, Sumner, Clay, Douglas, Lincoln, Seward, Toombs, Vallandigham, Breckinridge, Davis, Stephens, Schurz, Sherman, Beecher, Garfield, and a number of others are represented by at least one speech, some of them by two or three. It may safely be maintained that the student who peruses these speeches with care, will obtain a clearer and more adequate conception of the "irrepressible conflict" than any set narrative can possibly convey. For the earlier periods the speeches selected are: under Colonialism, two by Patrick Henry, one by Hamilton, and Washington's inaugural address; under Constitutional Government, Ames on the Jay treaty, and John Nicholas on the Sedition Law; under the Rise of Democracy, Jefferson's inaugural address, Nott on the death of Hamilton, Randolph on the Militia Bill (1811), Josiah Quincy on the admission of Louisiana, and Henry Clay on the War of 1812; under the Rise of Nationality, Calhoun, Hayne, and Webster on nullification and the questions connected with it. On Free Trade and Protection, a speech by Henry Clay in 1832 and one by Frank H. Hurd in 1881 are the only selections given.

In the 'British Orations' there is less of an attempt to cover the whole ground by topics and periods. The selections are longer, and consequently fewer in number—only sixteen in all. At the beginning are placed a speech by Sir John Eliot, against the Duke of Buckingham, and one by Pym, on the misgovernment of Charles I. Then there is a long gap to the days of the Stamp Act. Four speeches are given relating to the troubles with the Colonies, two by Chatham, one by Mansfield, and one by Burke. These occupy the first volume. In the second volume are given Pitt's defence of his refusal to negotiate with Napoleon, and Fox's reply; Sir James Mackintosh's defence of Peltier, and Erskine's address in prosecuting the publisher of Paine's 'Age of Reason.' The third volume contains Canning's defence of his aid to Portugal, Macaulay on the Reform Bill, Cobden on the Corn Laws, Bright on England's foreign policy, Beaconsfield on the Conservative party, and one of Gladstone's Midlothian speeches. A short biographical sketch is prefixed to each speech, and illustrative notes are appended to each volume.

The selections seem to be, on the whole, less happy and effective than in the American set. The difficulty may no doubt be due to the nature of the materials. England's history is more complicated, her interests more multifarious, than ours. The rule adopted by Professor Adams, of giving speeches entire, made it impossible to offer a wide range of selections. The result is, that many questions which have agitated England deeply, and many men whose speeches and personality have had a powerful influence on English history, are not represented at all. We need only mention Wilberforce, Lord Grenville,

Romilly, Grattan, Castlereagh, Brougham, Wellington, Peel, O'Connell, Earl Grey, Stanley, Russell, and Palmerston, in order to suggest the extent and importance of the omissions. We cannot but believe that the collection would have gained in interest and value if the editor had cut out the less important parts of the longest speeches, and had omitted entirely Mackintosh's hopeless defence of Peltier and Erskine's uncharacteristic prosecution of Williams, and had used the space so gained to insert some speeches or parts of speeches on the slave trade, the abolition of slavery, the Catholic disabilities, the Chartist agitation, the disestablishment of the Irish Church, the Irish land question, the Factory Acts, or the reform of the criminal laws, or some other of the characteristic reforms of the last fifty years.

The introductions and illustrative notes are copious and instructive. The editor turns his wide acquaintance with historical literature to good account for his readers. It is a pity that he should have allowed a considerable number of misprints and some erroneous statements to mar somewhat the quality of his work. Sir John Eliot is represented as suffering his long imprisonment on account of the speech against Buckingham in 1628; whereas the immediate cause was his action in the session of 1629, and the same penalty was inflicted on eight others, two of whom remained in prison till 1640. It is stated (i, 29) that the revival of monopolies by Charles I. was "in direct and open violation of the Petition of Right"; also (i, 306), that the Petition of Right forbade interference with the erection of buildings in London. The Petition of Right says nothing about monopolies and nothing about the erection of buildings. The Dean of Edinburgh is stated (i, p. 31) to have been felled to the ground by a stool flung by one of the congregation in the "Service Book" troubles of 1637; but the story of Jenny Geddes and her stool is now regarded as mythical. At p. 269, vol. ii, we are told that "when, in 1806, Grenville and Fox came into power, Erskine received the highest award to which an English attorney can aspire. But he had not long to enjoy his new honors as Lord Chancellor, for Pitt soon came once more into power." This passage contains two errors. Pitt was dead even before Erskine became Lord Chancellor; secondly, no English attorney ever held the office of Lord Chancellor, or dreamed of aspiring to it. Professor Adams has overlooked the important distinction between the attorney and the barrister in England. At p. 10, vol. iii, it is stated that the Test Act excluded the Catholics from seats in Parliament and from the privilege of voting at elections. The Test Act did not touch on either of these matters. At p. 282, vol. iii, it is stated that Mr. Gladstone secured the passage in 1871 of the "Abolition of Purchase in the Army Act"; but no such act was ever passed —the purchase system was abolished by a royal warrant.

These and some other slips can easily be remedied in a new edition. We shall be glad if it shall be found possible at the same time to extend somewhat the range and variety of the selections. The work, even as it stands, will be found very helpful and inspiring for classes in English history. But the vein is a rich one, and will repay a second and more comprehensive working.

RECENT NOVELS.

The What-To-Do Club. By Helen Campbell. Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Open Door. The Portrait. Two Stories of the Seen and the Unseen. By the author of 'A Little Pilgrim.' Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Wane of an Ideal. By La Marchesa Colombi. From the Italian, by Clara Bell. William S. Gottsberger.

Serapis. Von Georg Ebers. Stuttgart and Leipzig: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt.

The Same. Translated by Clara Bell. William S. Gottsberger.

Miss Bretherton. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co.

Mark Rutherford's Deliverance: being the Second Part of his Autobiography. Edited by his friend, Reuben Shapcott. London: Trübner & Co.

'THE WHAT-TO-DO CLUB' is a work of collaboration by Mrs. Campbell and Mrs. Poole, the former telling a pleasant, if not very original, story of New England life, the latter writing the letters in which the doings of the "Busy-Bodies," a New Jersey club, are related for the instruction of the "What-To-Do's." Both clubs are in search of employment that shall be at once interesting and profitable. The assurance of the writers that each experiment is an actual one, truthfully described, makes the book a valuable storehouse of information. The tone of it is admirable, sweet, and healthful, making gentle household things and home affections of the first importance, and then trying to show what occupations are not incompatible with them, either in fact or in spirit. Indeed, the most novel suggestion of the whole is found in the work of the girl who takes up the cabinet-making which failing health compels her father to leave. Mrs. Campbell might have laid more stress than she has done on the advantage gained by making the most of the opportunity nearest at hand. Women who are suddenly compelled to earn their own living are too apt to try to save their pride by going among strangers. All that is little as compared with the help, even if it be only the moral support, of a few tried friends, to say nothing of the advantage of not having to establish a character. There is no need of reminding us of unhonored prophets. The question here is how, in a serious emergency, to make the most of what has already been gained from life. Not a little of that is invested in one's surroundings.

The two short stories 'The Open Door' and 'The Portrait,' which Roberts Brothers have put into a dainty volume, are very like 'Old Lady Mary.' They have the same quiet tone, the same completeness of setting; but Mrs. Oliphant has somehow contrived that they take a stronger hold of the imagination, and that they come closer to our hearts. Mother love—despair for the wilful loss of it, the yearning for it as a blessing never known—makes the turning-point of each story, though in so different a way that the contrast cannot have been in the author's intention. There is an exquisite finish about the work, while some of it is very strong. Mrs. Oliphant has nowhere written anything more dramatic than the scene of the prayer of the old Scotch minister. Any reader who cares to keep himself sensitive to the unseen will wish for no explanation of the first story, while frequent experience will verify the last, so far as concerns the effect of a sudden coincidence upon excited nerves and an awakened conscience.

We have not examined the original of 'The Wane of an Ideal,' but the translation is either roughly done, with not a little cutting out from the sentences, or the author herself has not been at the pains to give fine shading to her picture. Any addition, however, to the scant knowledge of modern Italian life is welcome, even were it less interesting than this vigorous sketch. Agreeable it cannot be called. The history of the rise of a very poor village boy to a brilliant position at the bar shows many phases of society and many types of character, in rather a conventional manner. The hero grows selfish, and the heroine, once far above him, grows homely with home-keeping. His ideal fades completely as he sinks to lower moral levels, so that the lady's fidelity and the devotion of an old servant present the only ennobling sentiments in the whole book.

Ebers is at a disadvantage before an English public with his present subject, for it must come after 'Hypatia' to every one old enough to have read that book. To less thoughtful minds he will be supposed to present a clearer picture than Kingsley, but this is only an apparent superiority, not a real one. Ebers almost never goes below the surface. He deals with things, with a few well-defined incidents. Kingsley deals with souls and with their innermost struggles. Moreover, a single generation has been enough to render intricate and perplexing, thought and doctrine which seemed simple enough when concentrated in the one alternative—heathen or Christian. Ebers has chosen for illustration perhaps the most portentous event in the history of the official establishment of Christianity, the destruction of the splendid temple of Serapis at Alexandria by the order of the Emperor Theodosius. His story is confined within the limits of a few days before and after this event. He has introduced, with fine dramatic force and contrast, the different elements of that extraordinary life, not, as we have already said, with the intimacy, the passionate enthusiasm of Kingsley, but still with a scholar's learning so infused and illumined with human sympathy that his characters seem real.

It is not needful to say that Ebers is an acknowledged master in his own tongue and among his own people, but it is needful to say with emphasis that no writer ever had greater injustice done him than he has suffered in the present translation. His own style is so clear, so free and flowing, as to give him marked preëminence among his countrymen. His short, direct sentence is as crisp and pointed as French in comparison with the long, tortuous labyrinth through which Spielhagen so deftly winds his thought. His descriptions are at once accurate and poetic. He is sparing of adjective or epithet, and has that happy faculty of so choosing and grouping his nouns and verbs that they carry full force without need of help, and the picture is given by the effect of the whole paragraph, not by the filling up of modifying words. In conversation the rapid give and take is heightened by his preference for short words.

The faults of the translation are so general and so uniform throughout the book as to give the impression of a manner of its own which the reader, unwarned, might well mistake for the author's style. The original is at once inflated and weakened, exaggerated and degraded by meaningless expansion. The simple *Er liebt uns!* becomes "He is fondly attached to us." *Du bist ein braves Ding! Treu zu den Seinen halten, das lieben die Götter*, is rendered: "You are a good, brave girl. Fidelity to your friends is pleasing in the sight of the gods." Adjectives are put in or left out almost at discretion, and there seems not the smallest attempt at exactness. Opening the book, we find, without turning a leaf: *in die Hände schlug*, "clasping his hands in horror"; *kurz und streng*, "severely"; *vornehmer Würde*, "supreme dignity"; *widriges Thier*, "horrible animal." Two more taken at random are: *feurig*, "with fervid enthusiasm"; *das Mutterherz* (mourning for an only son), "the poor soul." In the descriptions there are gross mistakes in matters so obvious as architectural terms of the most general kind. It will hardly be believed that, in what is above all else a story of Christian faith, the passages from the Bible are not only not given as from our version, but are not faithful to the German. How could any one make *seines Vaters Hause*, "his Father's kingdom"? Fortunately such a rendering as "The Lord has no

joy in the strength of a horse, neither taketh he pleasure in any man's legs," is only laughable; but there are places where one shrinks as at the sight of careless feet on holy ground. We turn with pleasure for a last word concerning the original, which the publishers have made unusually attractive in form and type. It is to be strongly recommended not exactly to beginners in German, but to those seeking something for rapid sight reading. Except for a few pages of philosophy, it reads itself.

Mrs. Ward's book was sure of a kind of early popularity based on the personal element, so to speak, which the public would read into it, whether the author intended it or no. Miss Bretherton is said to be Miss So-and-so. The American man of letters is such an one; the hero, another veritable personage. The world of fashion will thus be content; but this first wave of success will meanwhile have carried the book within reach of eyes that will see the inadequacy of this surface comment, and will appreciate its depth and its fineness. Though the heroine is an actress, it is not in the least a story of the stage. The *motif* underlying the plot and action is the insufficiency of natural gifts, and the mistake of the world's easy acceptance of them. True of all the arts, it is most true, most evident, in that of the stage; above all, if the actor be a woman. In a few incidents so briefly told as sometimes to be broken, we have a concrete presentation of the problem, How shall an exceptional natural endowment of physical perfection, with no inheritance of cultivation from the past, no accumulation of personal thought and experience, reach the heights of artistic excellence? Will Undine find a soul?

The heroine is first presented to us in the flush of a great London triumph. All the world is at her feet, and nightly crowds the theatre where she is like some beautiful, high-spirited child playing a game she only half understands. Little the audiences care for the play in which she appears, except as the opportunity for a display of her grace and loveliness. She is herself a romance, and should always be acting a kind of glorified and poetical pantomime. Action and movement are her natural forms of expression, while in all the arts of speech she is a mere crude novice. Flattered by a public that cares only for her beauty and her personal prestige, popularity can only stereotype her faults; and if she be only what she seems, the attempt at training as imposed from outside would be fatal. Then comes the facile argument, Why ask for more? What does art or cultivation or training matter so long as Nature will only condescend once in a hundred years to produce for us a creature so perfect, so finely fashioned to all beautiful uses? Beauty and charm and sex have in all ages been too much for the clever people who try to reckon without them. But then comes the other side, which will assert itself to those whom wider experience has made critical. Are the men and women who have labored and struggled and died in the effort to reach a higher and higher perfection in one single art, to be outdone, eclipsed in one moment, by something which is a mere freak of nature, something which, like the lilies of the field, has neither toiled nor spun? Beauty has power enough; let us defend against her that store of human sympathy which is the proper reward of labor and intelligence, of all that is complex and tenacious in the workings of the human spirit.

There is no room in this short sketch, for which we have borrowed somewhat Mrs. Ward's own words, to trace the steps of Miss Bretherton's development. Sometimes they are given rather by hints or in flashes than in full detail, but the story affords manifold suggestions as to training in art, not for the stage only, but in any perfected skill. The love of Eustace Kendal for Isabel makes no part of her artist life, though he is most vitally connected with it. To her, till the very last, he is only a judge, an authority, an embodied standard. In the relation between them Mrs. Ward has attempted, and, it seems to us, worked out with rare and delicate insight, a situation of great difficulty. Blankly put, it is, How can a man, with only himself and a moderate fortune to offer, address a woman on the very heights of fame? Over and over again novelists have evaded the question by bringing the man to help or to rescue at the moment of failure. In that guise comes Kendal's first vision of his hitherto unsuspected love—a dying fame, a forsaken and discrowned beauty, finding in his affection a fresh glory and an all-sufficient consolation. Her triumph leaves him no hope. He watches her on the night of her reappearance in London, conscious that the moment is so vital, so desperate, that life on the other side will bear the mark of it forever. When it is over, he knows that in the halo of her great success she stands afar off from him, divided by an impassable gulf from the love which cries to her, unheard and hopeless, across the darkness. Yet by chances of life so simple, so inevitable, as to seem only daily human experience, these two, so wide apart, are brought to the common ground where neither wealth nor fame can separate, where only the heart's need and the heart's love can ask and give.

It is many a long day since we have had so beautiful a book. The descriptions of society are rather glimpses than formal pictures, given with the ease and grace that come only from being thoroughly at home. The French side of the book, with its high-mindedness, its refined ideals, its distinction, will be nothing short of a revelation to those whose knowledge of French literature and life is drawn only from novels, even though they are of the best.

No reader of the 'Autobiography of Mark Rutherford' (see the *Nation*, Vol. xxxii, No. 831), can have forgotten the last words of the editor: "I can only hope that it may be my good fortune to find the materials which will present him in a somewhat different light to that in which he appears now." So strong is the abiding sense that the life was an actual one that we open the sequel, 'Mark Rutherford's Deliverance,' with the involuntary exclamation—"The hope has been realized!" But we are no better able than before to settle the question whether the book is a purely imaginative creation, or a fearlessly candid and exact self-portraiture. The writer has not lost one bit of his skill, whether it comes from an elaborate training or is a gift of inspiration. The brief story is resumed at the point where Mark finds a slender occupation as correspondent for a country paper. The one fortunate chance of his life throws in his way again the lady to whom he was early engaged, and from his marriage to her come the few happy hours of his life. "If a man wants to know what the potency of love is, he must be a menial; he must be despised. . . . I cannot write poetry, but if I could, no theme would tempt me like that of love to such a person as I was—not love, as I say again, to the hero, but love to the Helot." He had called himself commonplace, truly enough, so far as education, opportunities, circumstances go; but the impulse of honesty, the clear-sightedness, and the fidelity to awakened conscience which nerved him to close against himself the one narrow opening offered him to the world's comforts, are above commonplace. Call it motive, fibre of nature, or grace from above—whatever one may—the same superiority of nature which carried him out of the darkness of his early Dissenting surroundings, survived in the hard, joyless round in which the remainder of his life was spent. It manifested itself in the effort of which not one in a thousand of his class among working people would have been capable, to do good to the suffering souls about him. His own personal problem was no longer how to escape from a false position, from insincerity, but how to keep for his own soul some vision of the invisible, while toiling to utter weariness for bare existence. Mark Rutherford kept it by trying to bring some knowledge of it to his fellow-men. For this reason the later part of the life will appeal to the sympathy of a wider circle of readers than the first. However much the opinions of some of our sects may resemble those of the English Dissenters of forty years ago, their homes and their ways are very remote from us. On the other hand, the poor—not the starving, but the poor who have only the narrowest bit of the day for living their own lives when work is done—these offer the most urgent problem of the moment. Their hearts Mark Rutherford knew, for he was one of them. The history of his efforts to reach and comfort those worse off than himself ought to be closely and humbly studied by all those who are now thinking about help for the working classes.

There is no more place for a set moral in this sequel than in the earlier book. For himself, to the last, he had only to endure. Every faithful life, however, speaks its word. Commonplace to abjectness it may be, but the eye that never loses sight of the truth, the unselfishness that will share the faintest hope, will lead to deliverance at last. The volume also contains some remarkable pages, ostensibly from the pen of Rutherford. The notes on the book of Job form a lucid and eloquent exposition of the whole argument:

"Inexpressibly touching is the last verse but one. It is a revelation of the inmost heart striving to be at peace with death. Not one grain of comfort is sought outside, and it is this which makes it so precious. There is not even a hint of a hope. All is drawn from within, and is solid and real. To this we can come when religion, dreams, metaphysics, all fail. The clods of the valley shall be sweet even to us. Why should we complain? Why should we be in mortal fear? We do but go the path which the poorest, the weakest, the most timid have all trodden; which the poorest, the weakest, the most timid for millions of years will still tread. Every man draws after us, and innumerable have drawn thither before us. None who have passed have ever rebelled or repented, nor shall we. Job, in building on rest and on community, has struck the adamant which cannot be shaken."

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Philemon Bliss is a teacher of jurisprudence in the University of Missouri, and is also known to lawyers as the author of a work on 'Code Pleading.' His present work, 'Of Sovereignty' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is dedicated to the President of the University, and seems to have grown out of a difference of opinion between them as to the "nature of the American Union." The volume is, however, a treatise on sovereignty in general, in which the author combats vigorously the views of Austin as to law, gives his own, and deduces from these some general considerations as to the Federal system of the United States which, we are glad to see, are fatal to the right of secession. When we find that abstract views lead to correct results we are always prone to believe the foundations well laid; but in this case there is a certain vagueness in Mr. Bliss's views of law which renders it difficult to be certain that he "floors" Austin as completely as he evidently feels that he does. He denies, in the first place, that all law is a command and is the expressed will of the sovereign. He says, on the contrary, that law originates in notions of right, and has an "ethical source." He seems to be a believer in the law of reason, or of nature, the law "coming directly from our Maker," which is founded upon "our family, so-

cial, and property instincts, as well as upon our moral sense." "Concrete rules spring from them and form the law proper; and, whether shown in legislation or in judicial holding, their object is to secure justice, to prevent wrong. . . . That rule is declared to be legal which best secures honesty and fidelity, and which protects from fraud." The last part of this would seem to confound law with morality, the first with morality supplemented by a sort of divinely inspired legal instinct. It is curious that the author, who has certainly devoted a great deal of pains to his subject, does not see that what Austin undertook to do was merely to analyze what the metaphysicians call the content of the idea Law. In it he insisted that the notion of command was always to be found, and that behind the command was force. The fact that law is founded on reason, or guided by a perception of justice, or has its origin in custom, does not affect this at all. Nor can there be much doubt that in all consciously made law the idea of command is to be found. Most of what Mr. Bliss says with regard to this, so far as it is accurate, seems to be irrelevant. The book will, however, be found of considerable interest, especially in the South and Southwest, to the student of the Federal system.

Mr. Charles Howard Shinn's 'Mining Camps: A Study in Frontier Government' (Scribners, 1885), is one of the interesting results of the impulse given to the study of political and social phenomena at the Johns Hopkins University. The advanced students and young instructors at that institution are encouraged to publish the results of their investigations; and a good deal of very suggestive material has thus been made accessible. If it is sometimes a little crude, or heralded with a little too lofty a note of the trumpet, yet these are venial faults where the interest is so hearty, and the results so useful, and the promise so excellent. Mr. Shinn modestly and justly calls his book 'A Study in American Frontier Government'; it is exactly that—a "study"; and, so regarded, it is one of the best of the class of books to which we have just referred. The free, instinctive methods which the early Californian miners followed are illustrated by graphic accounts of their proceedings; and they are connected with the mining usages of earlier times by a thread of information which, although slight, is enough to make these later usages significant, and to stimulate the reader's curiosity to know more. We heartily commend this book as having much curious material for students of early institutions, collected and illustrated by a fresh, enthusiastic, and highly intelligent mind. Indeed, for almost any thoughtful reader it will be full of interest.

The subject of 'Communication by Telegraph' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), as Mr. Morris Gray says in his preface, "fully justifies, in its importance and in the unsettled condition of its law," the publication of a text-book. The only other treatise, we believe, dealing exclusively with this subject is that of Messrs. Scott and Jarnagin, published in 1868. In the seventeen years which have since elapsed, the courts have rendered numerous decisions settling many points then in dispute, and adding a great volume of cases to those then in existence. That telegraph companies are not common carriers—that is, that they are not insurers against loss, but are only responsible for due care—and that telegraphic messages are not privileged communications, but stand on the same footing in courts of justice as other written documents, Mr. Gray is able to lay down positively. His résumé of the discussion of the latter point is very valuable, and his views agree substantially with those heretofore expressed in these columns. Inasmuch as the administration of justice is supposed to make it necessary that all private writings shall be producible in court as testimony when relevant (except, of course, in the case of certain privileged relations, like that of husband and wife), a copy of a telegraphic message in the hands of the company stands on the same footing with a copy of a letter retained by the sender himself. If the letter has any bearing on a question at issue in a court of justice, no one ever imagined that, the original not being producible, the copy was privileged. The courts in the United States have almost universally taken this view of telegrams. The inviolability of the mails means the inviolability of private letters while in process of transmission by the Government which undertakes to transport them. A letter once received is no more sacred, where the interests of justice between man and man, or of the criminal law, are concerned, than a book of account. The feeling which has been aroused on this subject has been caused by a dread of the abuse of the power, which, as Mr. Gray points out, may be made the instrument of tyranny as great as that to which general search-warrants once led.

There is only one point that Mr. Gray does not touch upon. The danger of abuse in the case of telegraph companies may be so much greater than in any other case (owing to the enormous mass of information contained in their records, and the consequent temptation to unscrupulous judges, or legislative committees carrying on investigations), that it may prove wiser in the end to make despatches privileged even against judicial writs. The question will become more important still if the Government should assume the functions of the telegraph companies. Mr. Gray's work is fully and conscientiously done, and he has had the assistance in some portions of it of one of the most learned lawyers and lucid writers in Massachusetts, Mr. J. C. Gray.

Mr. Henry F. Buswell's treatise on 'The Law of Insanity' (Little, Brown & Co.) is embraced in thirteen chapters (followed by an appendix containing the English Lunacy Acts), treating of legal definitions of insanity; jurisdictions over insane persons and their estates; inquisitions; guardians; management of estates of insane persons; suits by or against the insane or their guardians; rules applied in deciding the issue of insanity; evidence to prove insanity; capacity of the insane to do valid civil acts, to testify, etc.; testamentary capacity; conveyances by the insane; and their criminal liability. As a collection of cases and rules, the work is well done. In another edition we shall hope to find more definite expressions of the author's own views on the many curious questions which are presented in the course of litigation by the issue of insanity. The presumption of sanity and innocence in criminal cases, and the presumption of sanity in will cases, have led to the production of a variety of conflicting theories by the courts, all of which are fully and fairly stated by the author, as if to pave the way for such further discussion. The modern law of insanity is a most interesting branch of jurisprudence, and has kept pace with the development of the knowledge of mental disease. From the barbarous period when the mind was regarded as what the author calls "an integer," and when even so enlightened a judge as Sir Matthew Hale laid down the rule that the test of criminal capacity was having an understanding such as that of a child of fourteen, we have made an immense stride. The law at the present day recognizes the general principle to be that capacity or responsibility is a question dependent on circumstances, and that persons may be responsible in some directions and not in others; that when the doer of the act is able to reasonably comprehend the nature, relations, effects, and legal consequences of the act, he is not as a matter of law insane, no matter how strange or eccentric his actions and the operations of his mind in other respects.

Mr. Willis Paine first came prominently before the public in this State some half-dozen years since as receiver of several of the savings banks ruined by the panic of 1873. The period of speculation which preceded that crisis had produced a most curious effect upon the minds of trustees of savings institutions. Although bound by their charters to invest money intrusted to them only in specified classes of securities, they wantonly violated the law, and placed their funds in all sorts of loans insufficiently secured and illegal in their character. Crazed with the speculative fever, many of them almost ceased to act as trustees, and managed their banks much as if they had been stock firms carried on for private profit. The result was the collapse and insolvency of the banks, and the first question which presented itself to the receivers charged with the duty of collecting and returning to the depositors the assets of these ruined institutions was, whether they could not force the trustees to pay damages for their negligence and waste of the property intrusted to them. Acting under the advice of skilful counsel, Mr. Paine and other receivers resorted to the courts, and insisted on their right to hold the trustees for damages. The right was sustained, and heavy verdicts were rendered in some of the lower courts, and we believe the cases were in most instances compromised by the payment of large sums of money to the receivers. Mr. Paine, at least, by these means succeeded in recovering a large amount of misappropriated funds for one of the banks, and was enabled to wind up that institution in a manner which must have been an agreeable surprise to most of the depositors.

It was owing to his services in connection with these cases that he was afterward appointed one of the Commission to revise and compile the laws affecting banks, banking, and trust companies, and subsequently placed in charge of the Banking Department at Albany. His work on 'The Laws of New York relating to Banks, Banking, and Trust Companies' (Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.) contains not only the banking laws, but a great quantity of decided cases which have arisen under them, and will be found to be of value to lawyers quite as much as to bankers. A novel subject, which the title-page hardly suggests, is also embraced, viz., the Laws relating to Safe Deposit Companies. Very few cases appear to have arisen under these. Indeed, the only one of general interest cited is a decision that a safe of the Mercantile Trust Company, and a tin box containing property and securities on deposit, are not within the protection which the law affords to a debtor's dwelling house against an officer acting under civil process. Why it should have been supposed that they were is rather hard to see, but it may be of interest to failing debtors to know that there is a decision of the Supreme Court which will effectually prevent them from turning all their property into stocks and bonds, putting them in a tin box in a safe-deposit vault, and defying their creditors (U. S. v. Graff, 67 Barb., 304, 310). A point of some interest to deposit companies was also decided in the same case—that should it become necessary to open one of these safes in the presence of the Sheriff, to ascertain what property of the debtor it contains, an order directing the exclusion of the counsel and agents of each party is a proper exercise of the discretion of the court.

Judge Drake's treatise on 'Attachment' (Little, Brown & Co.) is so well known to the profession that it is hardly necessary to do more than call attention to the fact that a new edition of it has appeared. The learned author has been, ever since the appearance of the first edition, thirty years ago, the authority on this important

branch of law. In the sixth edition, although five hundred and fifty new cases have been added, several passages rewritten, and new topics introduced and treated, the total number of pages is only eighteen more than those of the fifth edition—a specimen of condensation as rare in new editions of legal text-books as it is creditable to the author. The title-page of the book, by the way, has never seemed to us to give a fair idea of the contents, as the book includes trustee and garnishee process, as well as ordinary attachment suits.

Studies, Literary and Historical, on the Odes of Horace. By A. W. Verrall, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Macmillan & Co.

Mr. Verrall is one of the most enthusiastic and accomplished classical scholars among the younger members of King Henry VIII.'s glorious college. He has made for us, out of his college lectures, a delightful book. It has brought back days of boyhood, days of college, days at Mr. Verrall's own Trinity, days of teaching, through every one of which Horace's odes rang as the very music to whose tunes "day was pushed on by day, and the new moons hastened to perish." It consists of a series of essays on individual points, some historical and some purely philological: difficulties which can be solved only by studying Horace's odes as a whole—or rather as two wholes, the first consisting of Odes I, II, III, the second of Ode IV—and not as a series of comparatively detached songs. All of these essays are extremely interesting and acute, though of very different degrees of merit. The one on Lamia is perhaps too subtle. The vindication of Horace as a friend and respecter of lawful matrimonial love, instead of the impudent and untiring eulogist of immoral connections, is excellent, and well deserves to be studied. The essay on the structure of Horace's Odes (called "Euterpe") is also acute; but we protest against accepting the curious mosaic from Bergk's 'Poetæ Lyrici' as a correct exhibition of Sappho's immortal Aphrodite.

The main force of Mr. Verrall's scholarship is seen in the essays entitled "Melpomene" and "Murena." In the first he discusses the question why Horace selects the Muse of Tragedy as the patroness of his Odes; and he answers it in the second by saying that the first three books have really running through them a common thread of interest, which makes a great part of them a connected threnody, a kind of *In Memoriam*, on the rise and fall of Murena, the senatorial conspirator against Augustus in B. C. 23. He has worked out this thesis with Teutonic subtlety, yet at the same time with English common sense. He lays down one proposition which is very often lost sight of in the study of Latin and Greek poetry, viz.: that we must read between the lines; that countless allusions to persons and events are absolutely unknown to us, which to the poet's contemporaries made his works tingle and ring. This is most singularly true; and if we would begin to understand the real meaning of scores of passages in all the ancient writers from Pindar down, we must be prepared to read Olympus and Arcadia directly into Athens and Rome. Sometimes this fact is neglected even when our scholiasts explicitly inform us of it, and we fail to make the proper use of the allusions revealed to us. Thus the reading δίκαιος is defended in Æschylus, 'Sept.' 592, on the ground that Plutarch tells us the audience interpreted it of Aristides the Just. It is strange commentators do not see that this very fact requires ἄριστος, in order that Ἀριστείδης may be read in δοκεῖν ἄριστος. The utterly uncertain date of Sophocles's 'Electra' may almost be fixed to B. C. 406, if we consider that lines 62-64 refer to the triumphant return of Alcibiades at the Plynteria of 407. In Cicero, 'De Senectute' xii, there is a probable allusion to Alcibiades as far as Archytas's speech goes, with a deeper one to Catiline and Cicero in Cicero's own times.

Mr. Verrall, we do not hesitate to say, has had amazing success in detecting hidden political and social allusions in the Odes. That *lunæ novæ* in ii, 18, and in iii, 21, can bear the meanings he would have them, is, as he confesses, a strong demand on faith. But his view that the attack of the Titans on Olympus, as mentioned in iii, 4, means Murena's conspiracy, is excellent, the gods being the royal household. But then who is the Bacchus of ii, 19? Who is the demi-god who, more fit for jests and dances, developed an equal (or intermediate) excellence for peace or war, and hurled back Rhætus with the claws and dreadful maw of the lion? Can it be Mæcenas, who is directly addressed in ii, 17, and ii, 20? Or is this theory inconsistent with the idea that the only connection of Mæcenas with the conspiracy was to divulge it to his wife? That Murena was the heir of the great scholar, Varro, is Mr. Verrall's theory; and it is confirmed by the allusions to Romulus and Cato in ii, 15, which are exactly the names that would be suggested by the perusal of Varro's 'Origines,' a book whose subject was Romulus, and whose name was first used by Cato.

It does not seem to us that Mr. Verrall has done justice to the poetical inspiration of Book IV. It may be very true that it was written to order; but, intimate as Horace and Augustus were, it is eminently likely that the wish outran the order. Mr. Verrall, we think, fails to understand, what his Merivale should have taught him, that the peace established by Augustus was in itself an inspiration to poetry. It was the direct answer to the prayer which opens the 'De Rerum Natura'; and Horace bursts into an ecstasy of rejoicing over it worthy of him who called on the "renowned lady to beg peace for the Romans from the god who sways the fierce concerns of warfare." Since Tiberius Gracchus was murdered, the streets of Rome had not seen twenty continuous years free from civil bloodshed in a period of more than five times twenty years. Augustus had achieved what had been beyond his uncle's power or Pompey's, or Cicero's, or Sulla's, or that of Drusus or Marius, not to name all the other statesmen, second-rates in Rome in that age, but first-rates in almost any other age or place. No wonder he was held a present deity. No wonder he was ranked with Hercules and Castor. Shall we provoke Mr. Verrall's undying contempt when we say, in the teeth of his essay "Euterpe," that the metres of Book IV show us a freer touch and a more truly Melic ring than those of I to III? that we believe the Sapphics of "Dive quem proles" and the "Carmen Sæculare" may outrank even his favorite "Mercuri nam te"? that "Ne forte credas" surpasses "Justum ac tenacem," and that "Descende cælo" may not be named in the same day with "Qualem ministrum"?

We would renew the thanks of American scholars to Mr. Verrall for his charming contribution to Horatian literature.

Pictures from Pennsylvania German History [Bilder aus der Deutsch-Pennsylvanischen Geschichte]. By Prof. Oswald Seidensticker. E. Steiger.

This is the second volume of a series of local histories, edited by Mr. Carl Schurz. The first volume is a reprint, with some revision, of the earlier editions of the 'History of the Germans in New York in the 18th Century,' a work which appeared originally in 1867 and 1868, and which has taken its proper place with the other useful contributions of the late Dr. Friedrich Kapp to German-American history. The Germans in Pennsylvania made their settlement under much more favorable auspices than did those of New York, and the result (whether for good or not is still an open question) naturally showed itself in the longer and more persistent maintenance of their nationality—if the Germans of the eighteenth century can be said to have been a nation—of their language, their customs, their religious faiths and forms of worship, and of some special characteristics. At one time there was a strong disposition to speak contemptuously of the "Pennsylvania Dutch," and among their English-speaking neighbors it was hard to think well of a people who persisted in their own language and their own literature, in their frugal habits, their successful industry, their strong local attachments, their indifference to political agitation, and their hostility to universal education. Now, thanks to the pious labors of some of their own number and of some Germans like Seidensticker, with a real love of antiquarian research, it is clear that the early German immigrants were men of a fair amount of culture; the leader, Pastorius, being much more of a scholar than was often found at the head of a colony of settlers in a new country, and writing poetry in Latin, English, German, French, Dutch, and Italian. Even among the Mystics, the Pietists, the Hermits, the Ascetics, and the other curious relics of mediæval Germany transferred to Pennsylvania, there was a good deal of literary activity worth preserving. William Penn himself, in his early missions on the Continent, had made acquaintance with the Germans, dissenters from the churches recognized by the state, Lutherans, Calvinists, and Catholics, who shared and sympathized in his religious tenets and practices, and his visits to Germany undoubtedly led finally to the large emigration which contributed so much to the success of his infant colony. The freedom, too, from all hostile constraint that marked their settlement no doubt made its rapid growth uneventful. Pastorius governed his little colony at Germantown with a strict but kindly hand, and the record of his literary, political, and religious life is still preserved in the voluminous original MS.

Among those, however, who disliked even the mild discipline of the little community, there were some whose peculiar religious theories led them to still more secluded lives. John Kelpius, the Hermit of the Wissahickon, was a typical example, and the story of his life is well told in the volume before us. Of more general interest is the account of the early Germantown printers, the Saurs, whose imprints have recently acquired a greatly increased money value, from the growing interest in American typography and bibliography. The founder of the family was at once printer, apothecary, surgeon, botanist, watch and clock-maker, cabinet-maker, bookbinder, type-founder, paper-maker, editor, author. He was thus eminently fitted to be the first newspaper publisher of the little German community, the printer of the first Bible printed in this country (the German Bible of 1743), and of the long series of works that give his name a place of honor in our early bibliographical history. It is somewhat curious to find that Saur himself contended stoutly for the very simplest elements of education for the people, joining the Dunkers and other German inner-light religious sects in their declaration that the highest Christian virtues were rather lessened than heightened by any great amount of school learning: morality, piety, fear of God, were the only requirements for life here and hereafter. The younger Saur printed the second and third editions of the Germantown Bible, established his own type foundry and paper mill, and helped in

1760 to found the Germantown Academy, still in active existence; but, being a Non-Resistant, he was unjustly charged with taking the side of the Crown in the Revolution, saw his property swept away by confiscation, and spent his last years in poverty, preaching, however, to the Dunkers. One of his sons established the German press in Baltimore, but other sons and grandsons carried on the hereditary business in and near Philadelphia, and the name is found on title-pages published recently.

Still more curious is the story of the Ephrata Cloisters, the monkish life established by some of the early German religious zealots, whose buildings still stand, in use for the every-day needs of the little community that represents the original settlers. Dr. Seidensticker traces their history down from the German Mystics in their native country, through Beissel, the founder of the Ephrata settlement, and on to the end of its strangely checkered career. The books printed by these pious and industrious recluses still remain an evidence of their zeal, not only in number, but in point of size, for the 'Märtyrer-Spiegel' of 1748 is a folio which, for weight and excellence of the home-made paper and hand-press typography, still excites admiration. The Seventh-Day Dunkers, who now own the Ephrata Cloisters, use them as homes for poor men and women, but the mysticism that once ruled within their walls has long since ceased to have any place in their religious faith.

The rest of Professor Seidensticker's book is devoted to an account of the part taken by the Pennsylvania Germans in the colonial struggles, in the wars with the French, and in the successful establishment of American independence. Some of the representative Germans of Pennsylvania were the very men who had been driven out of New York, notably Weiser in colonial days, and Muhlenberg at the time of the British occupation of New York during the Revolutionary war; and to-day both names are honorably represented in a long succession of soldiers, preachers, and legislators, and fairly typify the best elements of the Germans in Pennsylvania. Though moulded and modified by long years of training, they exhibit many characteristics of their original nationality, not the least among them being a strong love for their ancestry, and a pious reverence for all they did and said and wrote.

Passages in the Early Military Life of General Sir George T. Napier, K.C.B. Written by himself. Edited by his son, Gen. W. C. E. Napier. London: Murray. 1884.

THIS story was not written for publication. It was drawn up by Sir George Napier, after he had left the army, because his children desired to know the part which he personally had taken in the great struggle with Napoleon, with which the present century opened. It is written in simple, unstudied language, such as a father would naturally employ when speaking to his children. There is no attempt at book-making, no effort after "style"; and perhaps on this account the narrative becomes a kind of transparent medium through which we clearly discover the character of the writer.

The three Napier brothers were, as all the world knows, a remarkable trio. George did not attain to the same intellectual eminence as his brothers Charles and William, but in courage, in high-mindedness, in chivalrous feeling, he was their equal; and it is quite possible that he was not so subject to the blind and passionate prejudices which caused his more distinguished brothers to do such cruel wrong to a man like Sir James Outram, cast in their own heroic mould. But what renders this book especially interesting is the fact that it is not merely a picture of Sir George Napier—it represents a type of character which was to be found in remarkable abundance in the British army and navy at the beginning of this century. Whether or not it was the magnitude of the struggle in which the nation was involved that evoked a corresponding spirit of patriotism and heroism, there can be no question about the fact itself. The soldiers and sailors of that day appear to have realized their country as a living and personal being, for whom it was a glory and a delight to sacrifice themselves, with an intensity not inferior to the feelings with which an antique Roman regarded the "Sacred City." And this feeling nerved them to feats of courage and endurance, without the knowledge that what they did was anything remarkable at all.

Like so many of the most distinguished of Wellington's officers, Sir George Napier gained his lofty ideal of the soldier's character under the command and from the example of Sir John Moore. Lord Lynedoch, Sir John Colborne, the Napiers, and others were men whose excellence Moore was the first to discover. George Napier was General Moore's aide-de-camp in the campaign of Corunna, and the following passage reveals the feelings with which the general had inspired the young soldier. He had been searching fruitlessly for the body of his brother Charles, who was said to have been killed in the battle:

"With a heavy heart I turned my sorrowful steps to the headquarter house. On entering I saw no light; I heard no sound, no movement—all was silent as the grave. A cold dread chill struck upon my heart as I ascended the gloomy stairs and opened the opposite door from whence I imagined I heard the half-stifled sob of grief. Oh God! what was my horror, my misery, my agony! Sir John Moore lay stretched on a mattress; a dreadful wound bared the cavity of his chest; he had just breathed his last. The lofty spirit which so lately animated that beautiful, though now cold and bleeding form, had taken its flight to the regions of the great and good.

. . . . . .

"Never shall I forget the scene that room displayed on that fatal night. Colonel Anderson, who had been from youth the tried friend and companion of his general, was kneeling, with his arm supporting Sir John Moore's head, with blanched cheeks, half-parted colorless lips, and his eyes intently fixed on that face whose smile of approbation and affection had been his pride and delight for years; but the look of keen anguish that Anderson's countenance expressed is far beyond my powers of description. Next in this group stood Colborne, whose firm and manly countenance was relaxed and overcast with thoughtful grief, as though he pondered more on his country's than on private sorrow, for he felt and deeply mourned the amount of England's loss; keen, high-spirited, guileless Harry Percy, pouring forth in convulsive sobs the overflowings of his warm and generous heart; and poor James Stanhope, completely struck down and overwhelmed by the double loss of his brother and his friend. . . . Such was the scene which presented itself to my view on entering that sorrowful chamber of death. And although now twenty years have passed, the whole is perfectly fresh in my memory, and I do not think I have forgotten one of the melancholy and heart-rending circumstances that accompanied Sir John Moore's death."

Very real and picturesque are the descriptions which General Napier gives of the perilous, romantic, and amusing incidents in his experience during the Peninsular campaigns. He belonged to the celebrated Light Brigade, commanded by Crawford, and took an active part in the retreat to the lines of Torres Vedras, the battle of Busaco, and the pursuit of Massena. During the last series of operations he was severely wounded. He commanded the storming party when Ciudad Rodrigo was taken, and had his arm shattered by a grape shot. He was sent to England to recover his strength—the wounded arm having been amputated—but returned in time to accompany Wellington in his victorious advance through the Pyrenees, being present at the battle of Orthes, and commanding a regiment in the crowning victory at Toulouse. About this last battle he relates a little anecdote which shows with what respect for their fighting qualities the British infantry had by this time inspired the French commanders. Two British divisions had crossed the Garonne, and the rest of the army was intending to follow them, when a sudden storm carried away the pontoon bridge, and for three days these two divisions were left isolated and might have been destroyed by the French army.

"All (Soult's) generals begged and prayed him to attack, and, as they said, annihilate this small force; but he would not run the risk, and (as I have understood from many French officers) said: 'You do not know what stuff two British divisions are made of; they would not be conquered so long as there was a man of them left to stand, and I cannot afford to lose men now.'"

Librarianship as a Profession: a Paper Read at the Cambridge Meeting of the Library Association, September, 1882. By Henry R. Tedder, F.S.A., Librarian of the Athenæum. London: Chiswick Press. 1884. Pp. 30, 16mo.

MR. TEDDER, who has done much to win for his occupation in England the respect which it deserves, would have the librarian "a man of refinement, of liberal education, and especially endowed with sympathy with books and reading." The old writers on this subject used to amuse themselves and their readers with long lists of various things a librarian must know—all languages, of course, and everything else so far as that is possible to man. Mr. Tedder contents himself with demanding general culture and extensive knowledge of ancient and modern literatures, for the unprofessional qualifications, and a knowledge of bibliography, including palæography, and the theory and practice of library management, for the professional accomplishments. It is always best that the work should be learned by experience, but, wanting that, the librarian needs a decided faculty of learning by others' experience. Good business habits and a knack of administration are indispensable. Thus provided, he is to give his whole strength to his work. Parodying Mr. Winter Jones, Mr. Tedder declares that "the librarian who *writes* is lost"; he cannot know too much, but he should leave it for others to bring his knowledge before the public. This will be a hard saying for those who were first writers by inclination and afterward librarians by accident. Perhaps the precept would have more chance of attention if librarians were oftener, as Mr. Tedder wishes them to be, trained for the office. Mr. Tedder has been the chief advocate of this training, and the leading mover in instituting the examinations of library assistants which are proposed to be held under the auspices of the Library Association. We have already expressed our opinion of this matter and of the School of Librarians which Columbia College is to give us next year. Theoretically, the project is promising; what the ultimate result will be must depend in large measure on the encouragement which is given to the pupils of the school by those who are choosing assistants, or, in England, on the commercial value of the examiners' certificate. No occupation will long find people willing to give much time and labor to preparation for it if it does not offer a reasonable remuneration.

Mr. Tedder thinks that librarians' salaries are higher in America than in England. Nominally they are; but we doubt if practically there is much difference, when account is taken of the cost of living in the two countries. Rents, for instance, are little more than half as much in London as in some of our American cities. But perhaps the chief reason for doubt in regard to the success of examinations and schools is not so

much the low salaries as the hopelessness of promotion, arising from the absence of any attention to the leading ideas of civil-service reform. There is no encouragement to a man to enter the lower grades and work hard to learn the duties of an occupation in which there are few prizes, and no certainty or even likelihood that what prizes there are will be given within the profession. Libraries are administered—necessarily—by boards of men who, when chosen, know nothing of libraries in general, and little of the institutions which they are to govern (except how to read some of the books). One would suppose that in this ignorance they would choose for librarian a man who could enlighten them. Not always. They often do not know enough to be aware that there is anything to be known. They take, half the time, a man who has made his reputation, if he has any, as an author, a clergyman, a lawyer, a bookkeeper, a clerk. We are not now asserting that this is a poor way of selecting chief librarians; but there can be no doubt that it has a bad effect upon the inferior branches of the profession. It perhaps keeps out some who might choose that career; it certainly discourages those who are in, and either makes them indifferent or turns their attention to other occupations. This is not at all a satisfactory state of affairs, but it is a state which is likely to last. We must confess that we do not see any remedy for it, unless, indeed, in addition to the proposed School of Librarians there could be established a School for Library Trustees.

La Chanson de Roland, translated from the seventh edition of Léon Gauthier, Professor at the École des Chartes, Paris, by Léonce Rabillon, Licencié en droit, Paris University, French Lecturer at Johns Hopkins University. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

The general reading public is little familiar with that wonderful composition of an unknown Norman bard of the eleventh century—'La Chanson de Roland.' Time, which works so great a change in the ideas of man, changes also the words in which those ideas were wont to find expression. Hence it is more difficult to reproduce faithfully thoughts that were expressed in a now forgotten dialect than to translate from one modern language into another. Especially must it be so if the work is poetry. Regarded from the modern standpoint, the old language is incomplete, and to understand the beauty of the composition the translator must put himself in the place of the original writer, and retain of his own modern vocabulary only what will serve him to render truthfully the latter's ideas in all their simplicity, terseness, or force. Any attempt to improve upon the text is sure to disfigure.

None better than Mr. Rabillon was fitted for this task, which must have been to him a labor of love. A Frenchman, acquainted with all the resources of the English language, a lecturer who had made this very poem the subject of a series of interesting discourses, and was, therefore, thoroughly imbued with it, he had advantages seldom possessed by a translator. Avoiding the temptation to paraphrase, he has closely followed the original, and has succeeded admirably in rendering its quaint turns and naïve expressions, thereby marring none of its beauties, but, on the contrary, making them more evident even to one acquainted with the old Norman dialect. The rhythm of his blank verse lends itself marvellously to the description of the legendary prowess of the ill-fated knight and his companions. It caresses the ear with a martial cadence that echoes the tramp of the war-steed, the defiant challenges of the combatants, the cries of woe and rage of the vanquished. Certain passages in 'Roland's Song' are even more inspiriting than the famous *Marseillaise* whose strains so often led the French armies to victory, seven centuries later. Roland and his brother-in-arms, Olivier, bold Archbishop Turpin and their peers, teach Frenchmen not only how to fight for glory, but how to die for "sweet France"—to die as patriots, as heroes, as Christians. The field is strewn with the dead bodies of Roland's companions; he alone survives, bleeding from many wounds, but the Saracens are in flight, for Charlemagne is coming to the rescue:

> "The Count Rolland feels through his limbs the grasp
> Of death, and from his head ev'n to his heart
> A mortal chill descends. Unto a pine
> He hastens, and falls stretched upon the grass.
> Beneath him lie his sword and olifant,
> And toward the Heathen land he turns his head,
> That Carle and all his knightly host may say:
> 'The gentle Count a conqueror has died. . . .'
> Then, asking pardon for his sins, or great
> Or small, he offers up his glove to God.
> Aol."

The return of Charlemagne, called back by the mournful sound of Roland's olifant—blown too late for rescue, alas!—the old Emperor's despair on discovering his nephew's dead body, his solemn prayer on the dead-strewn battle-field, and the grief and rage of the French knights, are dramatic passages of the highest order, which our limited space will not permit us to quote.

Mr. Rabillon's version should have its place in every scholar's library.

Afghanistan and the Anglo-Russian Dispute. By Theo. F. Rodenbough, Brevet Brig.-Gen., U. S. A. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In the author's words, "the purpose of this volume has been to give as much reliable information upon the cause of the Anglo-Russian dispute, the nature of the probable theatre of operations in case of war, and of the armies of the Powers concerned, as could be obtained and printed within a single fortnight." In order to write, in so short a time, a book that shall have any value upon a subject covering so wide a range, it is necessary that an author either should have a knowledge gained from his own experience, or should have made a special study of it during a number of years. Judged by either of these tests, General Rodenbough is not qualified for his task. Apparently he has never visited India, Afghanistan, Central Asia, or Russia; and that he has not made himself an expert by study is evident from his stating, either through carelessness or through ignorance, that Afghanistan covers an area of only 12,000 square miles. General Rodenbough is Secretary of the Military Service Institution of the United States, and in charge of its library, which includes the files of the Journal of the Royal United Service Institution (London), and of the United Service Institution of India (Simla). From these periodicals he has drawn his inspiration, and has given us a summary of what British and Indian officers have written on the subject in the last few years. The "list of authorities," published at the end of the book, comprises more than sixty names, nearly all of them British officers, and, with the exception of General Hamley, entirely unknown to the general public. The standard authorities, like Vámbéry, Rawlinson, Schuyler, Marvin, and others, are not mentioned in it.

The work contains three excellent maps and a number of very graphic illustrations, but the text is of poor quality. Its style may be judged from the following extracts:

"Afghanistan is a genuine society of different nations, although the greater part are of Persian descent. The strongholds of the German self-protecting federations are here produced on a large scale."

"It is apparent that the Russians near Herat stand practically at the 'forks of the road'; it is a three-pronged fork—one branch running due south to the sea and two branches due east to India. The first-named requires but passing comment, and only as it relates to Herat, planted on a route which cannot be controlled without its possession, for military and commercial reasons well understood."

In discussing the military features of the present situation the author is not more fortunate. He tells us that in the matter of cavalry Russia is "before all other nations, not excepting Germany"; whereas it is notorious that during the last war the Russian cavalry was very inefficient, with the single exception of that which accompanied Gourko in the first passage of the Balkans. We are further told that "the best Russian cavalry can travel seventy miles a day, continuously, without injury"; but the authority for this wonderful information is not given. A more serious mistake on a military question is the discussion concerning the forwarding of the troops via the Black Sea. A moment's reflection will show that when war breaks out, England will push her ironclads and cruisers into the Black Sea, either with or without Turkey's consent; and the route from Odessa to Batum will be closed. The troops will be transported down the Volga, and on the railroad leading through Vladikavkas to the vicinity of the Caspian. These are the routes upon which information would be very interesting, but they are not mentioned at all.

In short, the author labors under all the difficulties which are natural to one who has no well-grounded knowledge concerning the subject he is discussing. He has collected a certain amount of data, some of it useful and some of it irrelevant and without value; and has strung it together in a fragmentary and disjointed manner, entirely devoid of clearness of diction or brilliancy of style, which, if they existed, might serve to hide and gloss over the lack of judgment displayed in the selection of his materials.

An Outline of the Future Religion of the World, with a consideration of the Facts and Doctrines on which it will probably be based. By T. Lloyd Stanley. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1884. 8vo.

To a certain class of minds there is something irresistibly attractive in the results of modern research into the ancient forms of Oriental belief. The discovery that so much of what we have been fondly accustomed to regard as distinctive of our own creeds and speculations was anticipated thousands of years ago; that in some of the oldest records of the human intellect men thought and reasoned as clearly and profoundly about the Unknowable and Unconditioned as they do to-day in all the light of modern science; that the great ethical truths were discovered and expounded as resolutely then as they have since been at any time—all this exercises on many men a fascination as deadly as that of the candle to the moth. To the eager searcher after unattainable truths, to the earnest believer in the perfectibility of man, there is an inexpressible and unfailing stimulus in the endeavor to coördinate the whole recorded experience of the human race and all its collective wisdom, and from this to work out in ultimate analysis some formula that shall serve to render life what it ought to be in this world, and shall fitly prepare us for a brighter existence hereafter. The attempt is a noble one and is always to be treated with respect, even though by the very nature of the case it be foredoomed to failure.

In fact, to the dispassionate thinker the revelations of ancient and forgotten wisdom, so far from being an encouragement for the future, are disheartening. So long as our retrospect was confined to classic times and the Christian ages, we could see, or think that we saw, a progressive, though interrupted, elevation in human thought and rule of action which might justify hopes that in the slow evolution of the future the re-

ligion of love might become paramount, that at least preventable evil might be banished from the world, and that man might realize all the possibilities of the better side of his nature. When we learn, however, how noble were the conceptions and the teachings of the Maharshis, of Zarathustra, and of Buddha, and how many generations of serene and lofty intellects in the forgotten past bequeathed their rich inheritance to those who only squandered or defiled it, the probabilities seem to be that human progress moves in cycles, and that we may be on the upward turn of a revolution which, in its mighty and unswerving course, may carry us again to the bottom, only to commence afresh the painful ascent. It was not without profound meaning that a phase of Mazdeism represented Zeruana Akarene, or Limitless Time, as the one supreme God, from whom sprang both Hormazd and Ahriman

Viewed thus in the sober light of historical experience, the speculations of scholars like Mr. Stanley can be regarded only as day-dreams—illusions born of desire rather than of reason. To look, as he does, for their realization within the next century argues an enviable capacity of hope, and one can only regret that he should not have devoted to some thesis more capable of demonstration the untiring industry and wide range of reading of which his volume gives evidence.

Musikalische Dynamik und Agogik. Lehrbuch der musikalischen Phrasirung auf Grund einer Revision der Lehre von der musikalischen Metrik und Rhythmik. Von Dr. Hugo Riemann. Hamburg: D. Rahter; New York: Westermann.

THIS new work by Doctor Riemann, the author of the best musical lexicon accessible to German readers, is one of the most important musical treatises of the century; and no student or teacher of music can read it without immense profit. Its aim is nothing less than to establish a new musical discipline, and to introduce a much-needed improvement in our system of notation. The words *Dynamik* and *Agogik*, used in the title, refer respectively to the gradations in the loudness and in the time of a musical phrase. In a general, vague way such gradations are indicated in music as now printed; but Doctor Riemann insists that they should be more definitely indicated, for on them depends the art of phrasing and playing with expression. Those who believe that a pupil cannot be taught to play with the proper accents and expression, or phrase correctly, without "having it in him," will be surprised on reading this book to see how much could be done in facilitating the acquisition of these arts. "As a matter of fact," the author says (p. 267), "the indicating of the phrases and motives is nothing else than musical punctuation, just as musical execution is nothing else than musical declamation"; but in our present system of notation there are no definite signs whatever to indicate the articulation of motives, and the proper mode of phrasing. Bülow, Lebert, Klindworth, and others have made attempts to remedy this matter by the use of extended *legato* signs, without accomplishing the desired reform. Doctor Riemann has, therefore, prepared an edition of the pianoforte works of some of the classical masters, in which the modes of dealing with rhythm, metre, and tempo, as explained in the present treatise, are applied practically. They are published at Berlin by Simrock. Doctor Hans von Bülow, in a letter to the author, expresses his regrets at "not having been instructed on such a rational method, which would have saved me many years of amateurish groping about (*Irrlichtelirerei*)"; and he attests that Riemann is a full quarter of a century in advance of his predecessors. "I had, indeed," he adds, "expected an important, mature work of the author, as of one of the few musical pedagogues who can boast of being equipped with all the culture of their period; but I had not expected the union of so much thoroughness, precision, and general excellence with a minute subtlety in the presentation and solution of every imaginable problem in the art of playing the pianoforte."

The details of Doctor Riemann's innovations cannot very well be explained without the use of illustrations in musical type; but if the *Musical Courier* or some other periodical would summarize the results of his treatise, a very great service would be done to students who do not read German.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Architecture Simplified; or, How to Build a House. Chicago: George W. Ogilvie.
Bamford, J. M. Elias Power, of Ease-in-Zion. Phillips & Hunt. 80 cents.
Benson, L. S. Philosophic Thought in all Ages; or, the Bible Defended from the Standpoint of Science. Introduction by Dr. Howard Crosby. The Author.
Black, C. F. Essays and Speeches of Jeremiah S. Black. With a Biographical Sketch. D. Appleton & Co.
Bower, F. O., and Vines, S. H. A Course of Practical Instruction in Botany. Part I. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Brown, Susan Anna. The Invalid's Tea-Tray. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 50 cents.
Caird, Prof. E. The Social Philosophy and Religion of Comte. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Century Illustrated Monthly Magazine. November, 1884, to April, 1885. Vol. XXIX. The Century Co.
Cervantes. The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha. Introduction and Notes by John Ormsby. In 4 vols. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Channing, Eva. Pestalozzi's Leonard and Gertrude. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 60 cents.
Dodge, T. A. Patroclus and Penelope. A Chat in the Saddle. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Douglas, Prof. R. K. China. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.

Henry Holt & Co.'s New Books.

MORE NEW ARABIAN NIGHTS, by ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON, containing "The Dynamiter," etc., are now ready in the Leisure Hour Series, $1, and the Leisure Moment Series, 30 cents.

KINLEY HOLLOW, a tale of Early Connecticut, by G. H. HOLLISTER, is ready in the Leisure Moment Series, 30 cents.

THE COMPLETION OF TAINE'S FRENCH REVOLUTION has just been effected by the issue of the third volume. 12mo, cloth, $2.50.

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NEARLY READY:

LETTERS OF THE CHEVALIER DE BACOURT, French Minister to the United States about 1840.

TURGENIEFF'S MEMOIRS OF A SPORTSMAN.

MRS. ALEXANDER'S 'A SECOND LIFE.'

PROF. WM. G. SUMNER'S POLITICAL ESSAYS.

PROF. ALEXANDER JOHNSTON'S STUDENTS' HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

PROF. WM. D. WHITNEY'S BRIEFER GERMAN GRAMMAR.

*MIND READING AND BE*yond, by William A. Hovey (price $1.25), says the *Boston Advertiser*, "will be regarded as a valuable and welcome addition to the recent literature of the subject."

*THE COÖPERATIVE COMMON*wealth in its Outlines. An Exposition of Modern Socialism. By Laurence Gronlund. Cheap edition, paper, 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 21, 1885.

The Week.

MR. VILAS has sent a circular out to the Democratic members of Congress from Ohio, Indiana, and Virginia, touching the removal of those postmasters who hold office under his appointment. There are about 49,000 of them, and their salaries range all the way from $1 up to $1,000. They are all or almost all Republicans, and a considerable number of them "offensive partisans." The Postmaster-General thinks, and most people will agree with him, that their all being Republicans is a gross abuse, and all politicians are of opinion that country postmasters are very valuable electioneering agents for the party to which they belong. This all means, of course, that the 49,000 stand greatly in need of reform. In what manner they should be reformed—that is, in what manner they should be weeded out, so as to divide the post-offices among members of both parties with some degree of fairness—it is very difficult to say. The Postmaster-General has considered it a good deal. We take it for granted that he has no such thing as a "clean sweep" in his mind—that is, he does not contemplate doing away with a gross Republican abuse for the purpose of putting a Democratic abuse in its place. The circular in question simply intimates his intention to go to work now, and as soon as possible remove "the offensive partisans" in every Congressional district, and asks the members of Congress to assist him in singling them out and filling their places with Democrats.

There are, it seems to us, two mistakes in the circular. One is in marking it "Confidential." It is absurd to suppose that a document of this kind, touching an important piece of public business all over the country, could be kept private. Accordingly it is in all the newspapers a fortnight after its date. Moreover, marking it "Confidential" made it look as if there was something in it which it was desirable to conceal, which is not true. There is nothing in it which ought not to be known far and wide. The views of the Postmaster-General concerning the manner in which he means to rid the service of offensive Republican partisans and fill their places, deserve the widest publicity. It is a process which ought to be performed under everybody's eye, and which everybody ought to understand. The second mistake is sending the circular to members of Congress, and supposing that any efficient aid in any process of purification can be obtained from them, or any trustworthy advice touching the merits of local office-holders. As a rule, they are the very worst counsellors an appointing officer can have, because ninety out of every hundred of them are far more interested in building up some kind of local machine of their own than in making an efficient service. Mr. Vilas has called on them to furnish proof of partisanship against local postmasters, such as the active editorship or proprietorship of a party newspaper, stump speaking, or "work" in campaigns, or the use of the post-office as a political headquarters. These are are all good reasons for removal, and possibly Mr. Vilas may get them in a trustworthy shape from Senators and Representatives, but the notion that these will recommend substitutes who will not be partisan, or who have special fitness for the office, will, we think, be found chimerical. Moreover, this formal and systematic handing over of the post-offices to the members of Congress will, we fear, strengthen and spread that popular belief in the superiority of "influence" over all other agencies in getting public offices, which is the greatest difficulty with which any reforming Administration has to contend.

The President has set an excellent standard for Southern appointments in his selection of a Postmaster at Richmond, Va. Three active Democratic politicians organized campaigns for the capture of this office in the usual way, with delegations to push their claims. Mr. Cleveland gave them a hearing, and then appointed another man who, while a good Democrat, has never been a professional politician, but who was heartily endorsed by the larger portion of the business men on the ground of his superior fitness. Of course there can be no question that the public interests will be better subserved by the choice of such a man than by giving the place to a mere spoils-seeker. There is as little question that the advantage of the Democratic party is equally consulted. The preference of any one of the three politicians over the other two would inevitably have created dissensions, while all hands are prepared to accept a first-class outsider as a happy compromise. There are abundant signs that many Southern Democrats have mastered this lesson. Representative newspapers frankly say, to quote the Wilmington (N. C.) *Star*, that "the South does not desire or ask that Democratic partisans who will make their offices political machines shall be put in power"; or, as the Savannah (Ga.) *News* puts it, "We do not want extreme partisans in the offices." It is rather odd that the Bourbons who champion the spoils theory of politics should be more numerous among Northern than among Southern Democrats; but the evidence seems conclusive that "the New South" is ready to embrace the new theory of politics.

There could not be a more impressive proof of the growing strength of civil-service reform than the action of the Democratic party in Ohio regarding appointments to State offices during the past year. The Legislature which recently adjourned has been severely criticised for sundry of its acts. Indeed, there seems reason to believe that it has incurred a somewhat worse reputation than it really deserves. However this may be, there is no doubt about its having been a representative Democratic body, and as little about its having no special fondness for reform doctrines. Yet the upper branch of this Legislature, in which the Democrats had more than a three-fifths majority, unanimously approved the appointment by Governor Hoadly of an excellent man as State Geologist, despite the fact that he was a Blaine Republican, as well as the selection of a Mugwump for State Librarian. Moreover, the Governor has adhered from the beginning of his Administration to the policy of giving the Republicans two out of five members of every board of officials which he has appointed, and he has done this with the approval of his party. There is perhaps no State where both parties have been so slow to recognize the public demand for a business-like conduct of the Government as in Ohio, and the late Legislature showed its lack of sympathy with this reform by making Mr. Pendleton's connection with the movement a chief reason for refusing him a reëlection to the Senate. Yet so strong is the force of public opinion, that this body has been constrained to support a liberal-minded Democratic Governor in making appointments based upon non-partisan principles of administration.

The *Tribune* of Sunday gave publication to a very remarkable theory for the great popularity of the "war papers" which have been running for several months in the *Century* magazine. It is that Mr. Cleveland and his Cabinet have been "fanning the flame of excitement" by their appointments, the reappearance of so many Rebel brigadiers at the front arousing the old Union sentiment to a very high pitch. "The feeling excited by their acts," says the *Tribune*, "has had this effect, and the *Century* has had the greatest benefit from their blunders. Perhaps next autumn we shall see how much benefit the Republican party has received." The profound wisdom of these observations becomes apparent when it is remembered that more than half the war articles in the *Century* have been written by ex-Confederates, and that a large part of the increased circulation which they have secured for the magazine is in the Southern States. If the President and his Cabinet are "fanning the old Union flame" in this way, they are doing a great and patriotic thing; but we do not see how it is going to benefit the Republican party next autumn—that is, the *Tribune's* variety of Republican party.

Scarcely a week passes which does not bring some new sign of a growing liberality of feeling among Southern whites in their attitude toward the blacks. The fact that a colored bishop of the Methodist Church delivered a sermon in the white Methodist church in Minden, La., on Sunday, which "was pronounced an excellent one by all," is such a sign, for it is only a few years since white men in Louisiana would indignantly have refused to sit under the ministrations of a "nigger." A more important manifestation of broader views was the action of the Episcopal Diocesan Convention at Columbia, S. C., last week. When this body met, two colored clergymen, who have been well educated and are successfully engaged in

church work in the State, took seats. Some old fogies among the laity promptly objected to their presence, and insisted that the term "clergyman," as used in the Constitution of the body, does not cover a man with a black skin. As one typical Bourbon put it, "the question was whether this was a white man's convention or not." After an exhaustive discussion, which covered the better part of two days, the negroes were allowed to retain their seats. This is the first time that black men have been admitted to such a convention in South Carolina, and their admission marks a distinct advance in public sentiment. It is worthy of note that the growth of more liberal views regarding the social treatment of the negro was never before so rapid as it has been since the Civil Rights Bill was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. The attempt to enforce social equality by law was a dismal failure, which it is now easy to see postponed, instead of hastening, the day when an educated public sentiment would secure fair treatment for the black man.

The meeting of the National Commercial Convention at Atlanta this week is noteworthy for the fact that such a gathering is held in a Southern city. Nothing can do more to promote a general acceptance of sound business principles than such discussions as are announced for this convention by representative men from all parts of the country. There is still too strong a tendency toward the maintenance of sectional lines in what are essentially non-political matters. For example, Southern men, as a rule, oppose a national bankrupt law, while the North —or, at least, the eastern portion of the North— favors such a system. Much of the Southern opposition grows out of ignorance, prejudice, and provincialism, arising from the somewhat isolated attitude which the South has long occupied. No better way to secure the acceptance of progressive policies could be devised than the meeting of business men from both North and South in a Southern city, and a frank interchange of views upon subjects like the question of a bankruptcy law and the continued coinage of silver, regarding which they disagree. Atlanta is the ideal spot for such a convention, since it is beyond question the most enterprising place in the whole South.

The tide of immigration continues to ebb. The arrivals at the chief ports during the ten months ending with April aggregate but 275,468, as against 371,625 during the ten months ending with April, 1884. At this rate the total for the fiscal year which closes on June 30 will be only about 385,000, or scarcely half the aggregate for the twelvemonth ending with June, 1882. The influence of business prosperity and depression is always plainly visible in the statistics of immigration. During the flush times which followed the war, the total kept rising until it had reached 459,803 in the year ending on June 30, 1873. The panic arrested this movement, and the aggregate kept sinking year by year until it had fallen to only 138,469 in the fiscal year of 1878. As business improved, the pendulum began swinging the other way, and this time it went further than ever before, the number of immigrants during the twelve months which closed with June, 1882, reaching the enormous total of 788,992. From this lofty mark it fell in the next year to 603,322, and in the following one to 518,592, with the prospect of coming this year well within 400,000. So vast, however, has been the influx during the five years since the last national census that, even if the growth of the country by immigration during the remaining half of the decade should be very slight, the increase of our population from this source between 1880 and 1890 will still be larger than for the previous ten years.

That a marked change has come over the drinking habits of the American people during the past generation, no observant person who has passed middle life is likely to deny, but few people have any just conception of the transformation which has been effected. Some statistics recently published put the thing in a nutshell. In 1860 the United States contained, in round numbers, 31,000,000 people, who consumed over 86,000,000 gallons of spirituous liquors, while in 1884, with a population of 55,000,000, the manufacture and excess of imports over exports were only 73,000,000 gallons —that is to say, while the number of people in the country has increased more than 75 per cent. since 1860, they use 15 per cent. less of spirits. On the other hand, the consumption of malt liquors has risen from 100,000,000 gallons in 1860 to 590,000,000 gallons last year, and that of native wines from 1,800,000 gallons to over 17,000,000 gallons. It should be explained that the amount of spirits manufactured last year fell much below the average, by reason of previous overproduction of whiskey and the consequent depression in the trade. But even if the figures of manufacture during the years of such overproduction, when 20,000,000 gallons more were distilled than in 1884, with a reasonable allowance for illicit production, be taken as the rate of consumption, they still leave the proportion to each person far below what it was twenty-five years ago. The substitution of the lighter for the heavier drinks which these figures demonstrate to have been made during the past quarter of a century, is a social fact of great significance.

The absurdity of our present diplomatic system could not be more forcibly illustrated than in the experience which the State Department is having with an Indiana politician. B. W. Hanna is a typical Western Democrat of the old school, who is well versed in the art of running caucuses and fixing conventions, but is wholly provincial in all his ways. He is the sort of man to applaud heartily the famous inquiry which Stanley Matthews propounded in a speech on the silver question a few years ago: "What have we to do with abroad?" and belongs to a class whose narrow vision and lack of cosmopolitan ideas peculiarly disqualify them for efficiently representing this Government in a foreign land. But Mr. Hanna concluded that he would stand a better chance for getting an office outside this country than at home, and so put in an early application for a place in the foreign service. His original demand reached as high as the important Mexican mission, but his first, his second, and his third choices went to other applicants. Finally the Administration offered the persistent Hoosier the position of United States representative at Teheran. This office is now creditably filled by one of the very few men in the Western world who have made a thorough study of Persia, Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin, and there was something very ludicrous about the notion of sending as his successor a wild Western politician, who had but the vaguest idea in what part of the globe Teheran is. However, Hanna consulted atlases, studied gazetteers, and investigated routes and cost of travel, with the result of finding that he could not possibly take his wife and children over there and support them on the salary. So he has applied for a change from Persia to the Argentine Republic, the latter country being more easily reached, and the salary of the Minister at Buenos Ayres being $2,500 a year more. Hanna knows no more about the Argentine Republic than he does about Persia, and is the last man whom an enterprising American business firm desiring to cultivate closer relations with a South American country would send thither. It will not be strange if he gets the place— there are plenty of precedents in past Administrations for such appointments—but the fact that such persons are likely to be sent to Persia or South America shows what a farce our diplomatic system has become.

Our old friend, the Tory Squire, who writes to the *Tribune* from London, is much troubled by one of those things which now most occupy his "mind," namely, "the order of diplomatic precedence." The Squire himself doubtless suffers a good deal at the great houses at which he is occasionally allowed to eat, by what he calls "an uninterrupted view of the backs" of his fellow-guests when going in to dinner. That is, he is doubtless almost always the last man allowed to enter the dining-room at English dinner parties, or, as he also expresses it, he "forms the bob to the kite." This does not wound him, perhaps, but it makes him envy people who take precedence of him, and long to be able himself to take precedence of somebody, when John Thomas announces dinner, and makes him awfully sorry for anybody who is likely to be no better off when he comes to London than he is himself. He accordingly put into his letter on Sunday half a column of lamentation over the condition in which Mr. Phelps will find himself in London in the matter of precedence. He says that Mr. Phelps will be "entitled to an uninterrupted view of the backs of twenty-three ministers and seven ambassadors at court and elsewhere. When he calls upon Lord Granville at the Foreign Office seven ambassadors and twenty-three ministers will have the right to go in before him." This scene of horror, however, we must remind the Squire, as a matter of fact, will never be witnessed. The seven ambassadors and twenty-three ministers will never collect at the Foreign Office on the same day and hour, just to show Mr. Phelps their "backs." Most of the ministers never have any business to transact with the Foreign Office, and Mr. Phelps can always get

rid of the others by asking for an appointment. Consequently we do not think it would be worth while, as the Squire suggests, to make Mr. Phelps a full ambassador, or, as he expresses it in his fine language, "to enlarge the legation into an embassy." It might make the Squire's tittle-tattle seem a little more valuable if he picked it up at the "American Embassy" than when, as now, he picked it up at a plain "Legation," but he must not expect legislation to dignify his calling.

The truth is, that no inconvenience has ever resulted from the failure to make ambassadors of our foreign envoys. The distinction between ambassadors and ministers-resident established by the Congress of Vienna is a ridiculous one, which ought to be abolished, as a great deal of the old frippery in the way of display which used to surround ambassadors has been abolished. It means nothing except that the ambassador is supposed to represent in a greater degree than the Minister "the person of his sovereign." But there is no reason why he should. Each is a diplomatic agent sent abroad to transact any business that may come up between the nation he represents and the one to which he is accredited, and this is a business age. What the United States ought to insist on, if the matter be worth taking up at all, is the substitution of a real distinction between ministers, based on the rank of the nations they represent, for the present one between ambassadors and ministers. The European Powers recognize this distinction at all conferences and congresses, by admitting delegates only from the "great Powers"—that is, by deciding that nations rank according to their wealth and population. Americans abroad, who are in pursuit of "society" at European capitals, no doubt are often pained at seeing their Minister in a secondary position at court dinners and receptions; but the Squire's remedy is not the true one.

The *World* knows its own affairs best, and probably finds that the manful stand it now makes against aristocracy on this continent, in all forms, is a remunerative business. But the boldest democrat of us all lives under the general law of humanity, that you must never be ignorant or silly when you can help it. Of this great law the *World's* comment on Mr. Lowell's dining at Windsor by "the Queen's command" is a distinct violation. It holds that when he received "the Queen's command," he ought to have behaved like a common blackguard, by sending her word that he had no "commands" to receive from the likes of her, and have left her "to put somebody else before his plate." The term "command," we beg to inform the *World*, is the name the English give to a royal invitation, just as "her Majesty" is the name they give to the Queen's person, about which there is no more "majesty" than about that of any other well-bred and elderly widow. But a royal invitation to dinner is not a command in form. It is an invitation which the Lord Chamberlain or Comptroller of the Household says he is "commanded" to send, and such as any gentleman receives from a friend. These things are perhaps hardly worth knowing by democrats in general, but it is the duty of every democrat who proposes to write blatherskite about them in the newspapers to get himself up in them.

Censuses taken by the police are never to be implicitly accepted, and the enumeration of the District of Columbia just made through this agency may very likely stretch the facts a little in placing the total number of inhabitants at about 204,000. At the same time this does not involve a more rapid rate of growth since 1880 than that which held during the previous ten years, so that there is nothing improbable in the figures reported. No city in the country has undergone a more complete transformation during the last quarter of a century than the national capital. In 1860 it had only 75,000 people, and was nothing but a straggling, unkempt, overgrown village. In 1885 its population exceeds 200,000, and it has become a beautiful, well-kept city, with the promise of constantly developing fresh attractions in the future. Its agreeable climate draws each year a larger number of winter residents, and people of leisure find it growing all the while more pleasant as a place for spending the cooler months. As the city increases, the wisdom and beauty of the elaborate plan upon which it was laid out become manifest, and admiration grows for the mind which, amid the struggling beginnings of a new government, could devise the scheme of a capital which should forever be worthy of a great nation. Time was when people used to talk about a removal of the seat of government to some other place; but that day has gone by.

The revised version of the Old Testament, which has just been published in London, has not been awaited by the religious world with any such eager interest as that which attended the appearance of the new version of the remainder of the Bible four years ago. A mild curiosity has been felt as to the character of the changes which the revisers would introduce in the common version, and the summary which is cabled justifies this attitude. Such a summary, of course, furnishes no basis for careful criticism. The impression which it makes is, that the revisers have done their work with a proper respect for the great achievement of those men who nearly three centuries ago made a translation which has stood the test of time better than any other like literary achievement. Some familiar passages take on a new face. "Thou shalt not kill" is transformed into "Thou shalt do no murder"; the oft-quoted desire of Job, "that mine adversary had written a book," conveys a very different idea when made to read, "that I had the indictment which my adversary hath written"; while the expression "vanity and vexation of spirit" loses its old significance when changed to "vanity and a striving after wind." The "friends of eternal punishment," as somebody has described the champions of the Calvinistic theology, will hardly relish the replacing of "hell" by "sheol," "the grave," and "the pit." The form of arrangement has been much changed and distinctly improved, by a more rational division into paragraphs; by the use, when desirable, of the dialogue form, and by the printing of the Psalms and kindred portions of the volume in poetical form.

The capture of Riel by General Middleton puts an end to the Northwest rebellion. There may be a little further trouble with the Indians, but it will be easily overcome. They have not joined the revolt in large numbers, the greater portion of them having remained quietly on their reserves, resisting all appeals from Riel to make an alliance with him. What the Government should do with its prisoner will be a perplexing problem. He himself said only a short time ago that if the Government caught him this time they would not let him go alive, as they did after his former rebellion; but it is difficult to see what could be gained by executing him. His life would be no recompense for the loss of the lives of the brave Canadian militiamen whom his followers have shot, and the taking of it would so infuriate the already hostile French Canadian element that a serious internal trouble might be precipitated in the Dominion. At the same time, it will be useless to banish Riel, for he can get back into the Northwest territory without the slightest difficulty whenever he chooses.

Alexander Karageorgevitch, the ex-Prince of Servia, is dead, and his son Peter, as Hungarian papers report, has gone to St. Petersburg to seek support for his claims to the now royal throne of that country. There is no doubt that the Czar would prefer having a Karageorgevitch on that throne to the present occupant, King Milan, of the House of Obrenovitch, though Russian intrigues were active in causing the deposition and banishment of Prince Alexander in 1858, and Russian military aid raised Milan to the degree of power which enabled him to assume in 1882 the title of King. Russia has almost always been on the side of the pretending party, as against the one in possession, in the perennial feuds between the two dynastic houses of Servia, both of which owe their elevation to liberators of the country from the Turkish yoke—the one to Kara (or Czerny) George, and the other to Milosh Obrenovitch; for the holders of power have almost always been driven by the pressure of circumstances to lean upon their neighbor, Austria. Moreover, none has done so more unreservedly than Milan Obrenovitch, though far from owing any patriotic gratitude to the rulers of Austria-Hungary. Prince Peter is, besides, the son-in-law of the Prince of Montenegro, Russia's stanchest ally in the Balkan Peninsula. In spite of all this, the claimant of the House of Karageorge has very slim chances of being effectively encouraged at St. Petersburg, for Servia occupies now in the Balkan Peninsula, diplomatically, between Russia and Austria-Hungary, the same position which was assigned some years ago to Afghanistan, in Asia, between Russia and Great Britain—that is to say, she has been practically acknowledged to be outside of Russia's sphere of political influence. And as Austria-Hungary is backed by all the diplomatic potency of Bismarck, the Czar and his advisers will be more careful not to infringe upon the *modus vivendi* established there than they show themselves in regard to the arrangements concerning Afghanistan.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 13, to TUESDAY, May 19, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Wednesday appointed Ferdinand F. Dufais, of New York, to be United States Consul at Havre.

Several days ago a delegation from the Order of Good Templars of the District of Columbia left with President Cleveland a written address, urging him to make diligent inquiry into the personal habits and associations of the persons he should appoint to offices in the District, and to see that the statutes enacted for the government of the District, especially those relating to the regulation of the liquor traffic and the suppression of intemperance, be properly enforced. In reply to the address the President writes: "I read your address late last night with great interest. It is something tangible, and if all men would come to me as you have, my labor would be greatly lessened. The temperance people are good people and friends of law and order. Before I left New York I determined to give the District a good government, but there are so many conflicting claims that I am sometimes at a loss to know what to do; but you come with clear statements, of which I will take further notice."

S. S. Cox has finally decided to go to Turkey as United States Minister. President Cleveland on Thursday told a New York delegation that "the more resolutions you pass calling Mr. Cox a good man, the more I will hold on to him."

Admiral Jouett informed the Navy Department from Panama on Monday that, the rebels having been forced to retreat from Carthagena, Barranquilla is the only point on the Colombian coast where they now hold possession.

William R. Morrison, the Democratic caucus nominee, withdrew from the Illinois Senatorsh p contest on Thursday, after receiving the full vote of his party (101) on several ballots. The long deadlock in the Illinois Legislature was accordingly broken on Tuesday, when John A. Logan was elected, receiving the full Republican vote (103), a majority of the joint session.

Governor Hill on Wednesday sent a message to the State Legislature, recommending the passage of a bill to hasten the legal proceedings in cases where the death penalty is involved. Under the present law, intervals of one or two years between conviction and punishment are the rule and not the exception. The law recommended by Governor Hill makes an appeal direct from the Court of Oyer and Terminer to the Court of Appeals when judgment is death. The judgment roll and stenographer's minutes are made a case and exceptions, and the expense of printing is made a county charge. The Legislature, however, failed to pass the bill.

The last days of the Legislature at Albany were marked by the usual haste and inconsiderate action. On Wednesday the Senate passed the Arcade Railroad Bill. The Assembly on Thursday passed the bill limiting the height of buildings in New York city to seventy-five feet. The Supplemental Niagara Park Bill was also passed.

The Assembly on Thursday afternoon passed a bill fixing the Dock Commissioners' salary at $5,000, and their term at six years. The Underground Telegraph Bill was passed, so amended as to give to the Mayor, Comptroller, and Superintendent of Public Works the power of appointing the three commissioners who are to superintend the laying of the wires underground.

Friday was the closing day of the session. In the confusion of the last hours the Assembly passed the Brooklyn Bridge Extension and the Broadway Arcade Underground Railroad bills. The Senate also passed the Brooklyn Bridge Bill. An unsuccessful attempt was made to pass a State census bill. Both houses adjourned at noon with the usual ceremonies. Before the members had left the Capitol, a proclamation from Governor Hill was read calling an extra session of the Legislature to meet at 4 P. M. on that day, May 15, to consider such legislation as was necessary to carry into effect the provision of the Constitution providing for a State census.

When the Legislature met in extra session Governor Hill sent in a brief message saying: "The Constitution does not require a census; it does require an enumeration of the inhabitants. The bill providing for such an enumeration can be perfected and passed in a few hours if the Legislature is so disposed." In the Senate Mr. Jacobs introduced his bill providing for an enumeration, and it was ordered printed. The Assembly adjourned after adopting rules.

Twenty-seven boomers' wagons, each partly loaded with Indian supplies from Arkansas City, have gone into the Indian Territory, delivered their goods, and then moved on into the Oklahoma district, where they have located claims and begun farming operations. The boomers are exultant, and boast that they have outwitted the authorities. They number about fifty. A tornado struck the boomers' camp on Friday night and did great damage.

Judge Van Brunt, in the Court of Oyer and Terminer on Friday, gave his decision in the case of Harvey M. Munsell. He ordered that the juror should go to the county jail for thirty days and be fined $250, for contempt of court in going to the office of O'Donovan Rossa during the progress of the Short-Phelan trial.

Mr. Munsell was brought before the General Term of the Supreme Court on Tuesday on a writ of habeas corpus. Decision was reserved.

The appraisers of the late Wendell Phillips's estate report its value at $8,362.05. It include 45,000 shares of mining stock, now almost worthless, which had cost him a large amount.

Commodore Jonathan Young, Commandant of the New London, Conn., Navy-yard, died in New London on Sunday, aged fifty-eight years. He went around the world in the *Columbus* in 1845–6, and forced an entrance into Yeddo, Japan, to deliver a letter from the President to the Emperor. He took an active part in the war of the Rebellion, and in 1867 was recommended for promotion by the Board of Admirals on account of gallant and meritorious service.

Mr. Charles Welford, of the book-importing firm of Scribner & Welford, died in London on Monday at the age of seventy. He has represented the English interests of the firm since 1865. His literary judgment and knowledge were remarkable.

FOREIGN.

The Consolidated Fund Bill (the $55,000,000 credit) passed its third reading in the House of Commons on Wednesday afternoon.

Earl Kimberley, Secretary for India, has announced in the House of Lords that a plan has been officially sanctioned, involving an outlay of five millions, for railways and military roads, including a line to Quetta, for the defence of India.

The House of Commons on Thursday voted an annuity of £6,000 to Princess Beatrice in view of her approaching marriage.

It was reported in London on Thursday that Russia, though not formally rejecting the Afghan agreement, had demanded a reconsideration. M. de Giers wanted the boundary line fixed at the entrance to Zulfikar Pass, and to include Andkhui, and he agreed to sign the convention when the details were settled. Much irritation was felt over this in the British Foreign Office, but the rectification demanded was not considered of sufficient importance to lead to a rupture of the negotiations.

The British Cabinet have agreed on a new Coercion Act for Ireland. It involves the abandonment of the clauses empowering the suppression of meetings, the censorship of the press, the search of domicile, and the trial by judges without a jury. What will be retained of the old Crimes Act will be the power to change the venue of trials and to appoint special juries in certain cases; also, the right of examination and investigation in criminal cases wherein no persons are charged. This decision was reached after much discussion. A majority of the Cabinet was opposed to any renewal of the act, but Spencer and Harcourt compelled the present compromise by a threat to resign. Chamberlain and Childers headed the opposition to any renewal, Mr. Gladstone supporting their view.

Mr. Gladstone announced on Friday that the Government intended to deal during the present session with the Scotch Crofters' Bill, the Scottish Secretary Bill, and the Irish Crimes Act. He said he regretted that during the present session it would be impossible to deal with the Local Government of Ireland Bill and the bill relating to the purchase of land in Ireland. Referring to the Crimes Act, he said he would state, without entering into details, that the Government intended to embody various provisions in that act which they deemed to be both valuable and equitable. It is feared that the Cabinet may be beaten on the Crimes Act by a coalition of Radicals, Parnellites, and those of the Conservatives who follow the lead of Lord Randolph Churchill.

The Scotch Crofters' Bill, introduced in the House of Commons on Monday night, provides for security of tenure, means for the fixing of rent by agreement or by an official valuer, liberal compensation for improvements, and public loans for stocking holdings.

The House of Commons on Monday night entered into Committee of Supply on a vote of £3,360,500 on account of the vote of credit. Lord Randolph Churchill moved a reduction of £2,000,000 for the purpose of calling attention to Saturday's Blue Book on the Panjdeh incident. He said that the indignation aroused by a perusal of the despatches was not confined to the Tory party, but was shared by the country at large, and even by the Liberal newspapers. Lord Randolph maintained that M. de Giers had said nothing to justify Mr. Gladstone's statement in Parliament that it had been agreed that no further advance should be made on either side. Mr. Gladstone's reply was delivered amid continuous noisy Conservative interruptions. He stopped for several minutes, and in a breaking voice said that this new kind of political warfare was of little consequence to him whose personal presence was a matter of weeks rather than months. Lord Randolph's motion was rejected by 74 to 11.

The final instalment of the Granville-Giers despatches on the Afghan dispute will be issued during the Whitsuntide recess of Parliament. The Conservatives will postpone Parliamentary action until all the papers are presented. When Parliament reassembles, the Conservatives will move another vote of censure on the Government. This debate will be the last party demonstration before the final dissolution of Parliament.

The St. Petersburg *Official Messenger* on Friday published a report from General Komaroff to the effect that the Saryks are opposed to the new frontier line proposed by Lessar, claiming that it is an infringement upon their rights, and gives the best land in the disputed territory to the Afghans. A council of ministers was held, and it was decided to support the claims of the Saryks.

It is authoritatively stated in London that Russia demands Merutchak and Zulfikar Pass, the possession of which points the Amir considers vital to the integrity of the Afghan frontier. The *Morning Post* on Tuesday asserted that Lord Dufferin had written an alarming letter describing the disastrous effects in India of England's yielding to Russia.

In the House of Commons on Monday afternoon Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice, Under Foreign Secretary, announced that the negotiations which had been carried on with Spain for a

commercial treaty had terminated unsatisfactorily. The Government could only consider the recent action of Spain as a refusal to fulfil the fundamental conclusions of the declaration of the 21st of December, 1884, and Sir R. D. Morier, the British Minister to Madrid, had, therefore, been instructed to inform Spain that under the circumstances the negotiations were at an end. The object of the negotiations was to obtain for England the most-favored-nation treatment.

A riot occurred around the Nelson Monument in Trafalgar Square, London, on Wednesday afternoon. Ten thousand men had assembled to protest against the Government's proposal to increase the duties on spirits and beer. The crowd was very unruly, and the police found themselves unable to maintain order. The orators of the day attempted to speak from the monument, but could not be heard on account of the uproar. The police intervened to secure order, but were finally obliged, with the promoters of the meeting, to retire, leaving the crowd singing in triumph "Rule Britannia." About 9 o'clock the police, largely reinforced, charged the mob a number of times and made several arrests.

There is considerable indignation in Egypt over the proposed withdrawal of the British troops from the Sudan.

Negotiations are proceeding with Turkey for the latter's occupation of Suakim and the Sudan on the following basis: The Porte engages to assist in suppressing the slave trade and in developing external commercial relations. Besides the formal proposals made through Fehmi Pasha, if the Porte accepts, an English company will obtain the option of securing a concession to construct a railway to Berber, and will receive other trading rights. Earl Granville is also negotiating with the Italian Government concerning an alternative scheme for the occupation of the Red Sea littoral in the event of a failure to come to an agreement with the Porte.

General Wolseley has issued a farewell address in which he announces the withdrawal of the British troops from the Sudan, and highly praises the conduct of all the departments of the service during the campaign. Senaar has been cleared of rebels, and all reports show that El Mahdi is in the greatest straits.

Mr. John Bright, in answer to a letter from an American friend asking if England would return to the policy of protection, writes as follows: "Not until the United States return to slavery. England's present danger is in its foreign policy. The Tories and Liberals are equally blamable for the lunatic policy of adding millions to the military expenses of the nation while trade is depressed and the poor are badly housed."

Mr. Lowell and Mr. Phelps visited Windsor by special train on Tuesday. Mr. Lowell presented his letters of recall, and introduced his successor to the Queen.

Mr. Merritt, the retiring United States Consul-General at London, gave a farewell dinner on Thursday evening, welcoming his successor, Mr. Waller. Mr. Lowell and suite, Mr. Seligman, Bret Harte, and other Americans, together with numerous well-known commercial and literary gentlemen, were present. Mr. Lowell in his speech made a complimentary reference to President Cleveland. He urged all Americans to regard all Presidents as national, not as Presidents of any party.

Cunningham and Burton, the London dynamiters implicated in the Tower explosion, were found guilty on Monday. They were sentenced to penal servitude for life.

Pettit, the American, defeated Lambert, the Englishman, in a series of court-tennis games, for the international championship at Hampton Court, London. The playing ended on Friday, with a score of 7 sets to 5, in Pettit's favor.

F. J. Fargus, "Hugh Conway," the author of 'Called Back' and 'Dark Days,' of which several hundred thousand copies have been sold in this country and England, died on Friday at Monaco, where he has been ill for some time of typhoid fever. He was thirty-seven years of age. He was an auctioneer at Bristol, England, until the phenomenal success of 'Called Back' led him to devote his entire time to literature. He followed it with 'Dark Days,' a novel in a similar vein, and collected a number of his short stories in a volume, under the title 'Bound Together.' It was his intention after a short Continental tour to leave Bristol and settle near London.

Copies of the revised version of the Old Testament were distributed to the press of London on Friday midnight. The *Standard* calls it "a good, useful, learned work." The *Times* says: "The revisers have shown wide learning, scrupulous fidelity, and reverent caution, and the general impression is that the work will raise the Old Testament to its proper place as literature apart from dogma." The *Daily News* says: "The revisers have erred, if they have erred at all, on the side of obstinate conservatism rather than on the side of rash innovation." The *Athenæum* says: "The revision is a literary success. There are no pretensions to scholarly completeness, and practically no alterations in the text."

Minister Morton presented his letters of recall to President Grévy on Thursday. The latter expressed regret at his departure. Mr. McLane presented his credentials, and was cordially received. In the evening a dinner in honor of Mr. Morton was given at the Hôtel Continental, Paris. Two hundred prominent Americans and Frenchmen were present.

The reduced copy of Bartholdi's statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" was on Wednesday formally presented by the American residents of the French capital to the Municipality of Paris. The ceremonies took place on the site of the statue, the Place des États-Unis. Mr. Levi P. Morton, on behalf of the American donors, made the speech of presentation.

Victor Hugo was on Monday reported alarmingly ill.

The German Reichstag has passed the Customs Tariff Bill. The duty on oxen imported for farming purposes was fixed at 20 marks for those under five years old, and at 30 marks for those over that age. The duty on fat cattle was made 30 marks. It levies a duty of 3 marks on rye. It will operate directly against Austria-Hungary, which has hitherto occupied the position of a favored nation like Spain. The Vienna newspapers are indignant, and express the belief that Prince Bismarck intends to make things so unpleasant as to drive Austria into a customs union with Germany. The Cabinet has resolved to reintroduce the Austrian Customs Bill.

Garibaldi's memoirs have been arranged and edited. At a family council it was decided to accede to the request of the Italian Government to delay the publication of the memoirs until ten years after the date of Garibaldi's death.

General Lew Wallace has declined an offer from the Sultan of a high position in the Turkish service.

News was received on Wednesday from Batoche, dated May 12, that Riel had suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of General Middleton's forces. The despatch said: "Batoche was captured this afternoon after a short but desperate fight, in which many of our brave volunteers were killed and wounded. At half-past two o'clock the orders were passed round and all were in readiness. Soon after a rapid advance was made down into Batoche, the rebel stronghold. When within range of the rifle pits, the order to charge was given and it was made with tremendous British cheers. The rebels, who had reserved their fire, poured a volley into our forces. Without flinching, however, the brave fellows dashed in among the rebel pits, captured them, and drove the rebels down before them into the ravine. Desperate resistance was made from the cover of the brushwood. The blood of the volunteers was up, however, and after a sharp struggle they succeeded in clearing the rebels out. The rebels withdrew hastily to their final positions in the village. Elated by their success, our forces dashed down into Batoche. The rebels had hardly time to turn and make resistance before the troops were upon them, and in a short time they withdrew. The houses were all captured one after another, and all the prisoners held by Riel, seven in number, were found safe and were released." The Canadian loss was five killed and fifteen wounded.

Riel and his lieutenant, Dumont, deserted their men soon after the recent defeat at Batoche. The rebel troops thereupon became discouraged. Many of them came into Middleton's camp and surrendered. Colonel Otter will not attack Poundmaker's force until joined by General Middleton. News has reached Winnipeg that the Indians under Poundmaker have captured a train of thirty-one teams and twenty-one teamsters near Battleford. Ten teamsters escaped. A detachment of mounted police pursued the Indians and had a skirmish with them, but failed to recover any of the stores or prisoners.

Riel was captured on Friday by three of Middleton's scouts several miles north of Batoche. He said that he was coming to give himself up. He feared that he might be shot by his captors, and begged for a civil trial. Immediately he was taken to General Middleton's camp. The soldiers made no hostile demonstration. It is now believed that the rebellion is ended. There may be some trouble with Poundmaker's Indians.

Soon after the capture of Riel, Maxime Le Pine gave himself up. Good progress is being made with the preparations for marching to Prince Albert and afterward to Battleford. The latest statement of losses at Batoche is: Troops, 9 killed and 42 wounded; rebels, 81 killed, 173 wounded.

Major Boulton and 200 men have been scouring the country around Batoche in search of Dumont, Riel's lieutenant, but so far without success. He will probably escape to the British Hills.

A despatch published on Tuesday alleged that Colonel Otter on Sunday made an attack on Poundmaker, and, after a severe battle, captured him and took 129 prisoners. The battle was fought in Eagle Hills, and Colonel Otter made the assault against orders. Twenty-one Canadians and nineteen Englishmen were killed. The story is doubted in Winnipeg.

A treaty of peace and alliance was entered into between Honduras, San Salvador, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua, April 12. Two days later President Zaldivar, of San Salvador, issued a circular stating that as he only wished for peace and harmony, he had accepted, through the mediation of the several Central American States, a proposition proclaiming in Guatemala, as well as in San Salvador, a decree of general amnesty to all involved in the late revolution. President Zaldivar, besides exacting a war indemnity of $10,000,000, said that to maintain peace in future it would be necessary to dismember Guatemala, leaving to that country only sufficient land to equalize her strength and wealth with that of the other Central American States, and asked the other States to aid him in this project.

Subsequently to this President Zaldivar resigned and left the country. General Figuerda fills his place. This grew out of an unsuccessful effort on the part of Zaldivar to effect a Central American Union similar to that projected by Barrios. Before he left, however, General Menendez, who had taken part with Barrios in trying to establish the Central American Union, and who is a Salvadorian, had got up a revolution in the province of Santa Anna. He took Santa Anna on May 15, and Sansaria on Sunday.

THE MUNSELL CASE.

THE extraordinary proceedings in court on Friday before Judge Van Brunt must not pass without comment. To call the statement which the Judge read to the audience before sentencing Mr. Munsell an "opinion," in any judicial sense, would be an abuse of language. He was evidently laboring under great excitement when he read it, and it was, in both substance and form, nothing more than an expression by an audacious and angry man of his contempt for the newspapers and for public opinion. He treated the community last week—for the first time, we think, in the judicial annals of any civilized country—to the spectacle of a judge attacking a jury in a newspaper for not finding a verdict in accordance with his own opinion in a criminal case; and in doing so cast aspersions on men whose character in the community stands higher than his own. This done, of course he became nothing more than a party in a row in which the jurors were fully his match. But he was determined to get the better of them somehow, so he went back to the bench and had one of them dragged before him on a charge which, in its original shape, it is not speaking too strongly to say, was trumped up. It made Mr. Munsell (an American of the best standing) a strong sympathizer with Short, and so anxious to procure his acquittal that he visited him openly in the Tombs to arrange about procuring it, and went to O'Donovan Rossa's office to hold a consultation with him for the same purpose. Of this precious concoction, of which Mr. Martine, the District Attorney, seems to have been the author, not a shred remained on examination, except the fact that Mr. Munsell did visit Rossa's office, and looked in for a moment, holding the door-knob in his hand. There was not the shadow of evidence, however, that Mr. Munsell knew then that this was forbidden by law, or that his motives in doing it were not good. Judge Van Brunt thinks that he knew that he was doing wrong, because he admits in his affidavit that "he was particular not to shut the door, but held the door open, so that he could be seen from the hall during the whole time." To anybody but an angry controversialist this would seem, if true, complete proof of the man's innocence. He knew, as any one of common sense would know, that it would be improper to shut himself up in a room with Short's friends, and he was probably afraid, as any decent man would be, of being shut up in any room with the cutthroats who frequent O'Donovan Rossa's den.

The Judge's remarks on Mr. Munsell's going to Rossa's office were, however, evidently *obiter dicta*. His real charge was that on going out with the jury he argued in favor of acquittal. To prove that Mr. Munsell ought to be punished for this, Judge Van Brunt actually tried the case over again, and read an argument showing the untrustworthiness of Short's witnesses and the improbability of their story. Then came the following extraordinary passage:

"In view of this unparalleled credulity upon the part of this juror, and the interest which he evidently took, upon the retirement of the jury, in the acquittal of Short, it is but fair to assume that his visit to Rossa's office had been in some way the cause of a gross perversion of his judgment. It is fair to assume further—in view of the earnestness with which the juror adopted the prisoner's cause after he had obtained the information from Rossa's office, and of which the other jurors were ignorant, and which had operated so strongly in the clarification of his mind—that he made the most of his supposed superior knowledge, and that he became in the jury-room, not only a juror, but a witness testifying before his fellow-jurors, no one having an opportunity to hear his testimony or to contradict his evidence if untrue. He was thus enabled to impose with impunity upon his fellows, and from the result it seems to be safe to assert that he did so."

The meaning of this, in so far as such rant can have a meaning, is that a juror's disagreement with the judge about the evidence was proof of "unparalleled credulity"; and that to argue in defence of this view in the jury-room with his fellow-jurors was a crime. Technically, it was of course wrong for Mr. Munsell, during the progress of the trial, to put himself in possession of evidence which was not obtainable by the other jurors; but that the use of this superior knowledge, to influence the others, was "imposition on his fellows," is something which it is disgraceful for a man in Judge Van Brunt's position to assert. If Mr. Munsell had a store next to O'Donovan's office, and had become thoroughly familiar with the premises before the trial, there would have been not only nothing wrong in his instructing his fellows about them, but it would have been his duty to do so. Any knowledge a juror has of the facts of a case he is sworn to try, he is bound to use in consultation. What the law forbids is certain modes of acquiring knowledge during the trial. It does not forbid the possession, or use of it, when acquired. If a murder is committed in the hallway of a hotel, it does not silence a man because he has lived in the hotel and is perfectly familiar with the scene of the crime, when the other jurors are not.

In fact, it is plain from the Judge's own showing that Munsell's real offence was not his having gone to Rossa's office; this he would probably have punished as an indiscretion with a small fine. What has brought down on the juror the disgraceful and malignant sentence pronounced on Friday was his having gone back to the jury-room to argue for an acquittal. The Judge's speech leads irresistibly to the conclusion that, had he gone back to argue for conviction, no fault would have been found with him. His crime thus consists in his disagreeing with Judge Van Brunt. We doubt if there is a lawyer of standing and character in this city to-day, either on or off the bench, whom the Judge's performances in this case have not made ashamed or indignant. If there be no remedy for his abuse of his power, it shows there is a great defect in the law, which we trust will be cured. No man, whether judge or not, who has engaged in a newspaper controversy and lost his temper, is fit to sit in judgment on his antagonists afterward and deal out fine and imprisonment on them. Had Judge Van Brunt had a stronger sense of propriety, he would have seen this himself, and refrained from any action toward Mr. Munsell which could possibly bear the appearance of revenging himself on a man for not agreeing with him. His utterances, as well as his judicial action, in fact, constitute an attack on the independence of jurors which richly deserves punishment of some kind, stronger even than that which he is receiving in the reprobation of his own profession and of the intelligent public.

The Bar, of course, are the proper critics and accusers of corrupt judges. It is the lawyers only who practise before them who know the facts and can bring them out. They are often, we admit, quite willing to furnish the facts to the newspapers, but always with the injunction that "my name is not to be mentioned"—that is, they are quite prepared to enjoy the spectacle of a fight between an editor and a judge, but have no disposition whatever to take a hand in it themselves. We do not greatly blame them for this, human nature in New York being what it is. Most lawyers have very hard work to earn a living, and to quarrel with a judge is a pretty sure way of having the difficulty increased, particularly when a man's professional brethren are sure not to stand by him. If the Bar were here, as it is in England and France, a real corporation, in which every lawyer standing for his rights had the whole body at his back, the function of supplying the public opinion which keeps the Bench pure and decorous would be better performed by the legal profession than it is. In fact, as matters stand, it can hardly be said to be performed at all. Such escapades as Judge Van Brunt's last Friday show it.

We are, however, by no means disposed to hold the press blameless in this matter. Its influence, like the influence of the Bar, is greatly neutralized by the fact that it is primarily a money-making calling, in which the competition is very keen, and in which it is almost a rule of business that you must not agree with a rival, or adopt any of his opinions. If, therefore, one newspaper denounces an abuse, the others are very apt to be silent about it, or deny its existence. If one criticises a judge, the others—all in the way of trade—are very apt to maintain that he did just the right thing in the right way. The New York Ring had its newspaper defenders or apologists, almost up to the day when the members began to run away, largely because one newspaper was making a specialty of exposing it. On this state of things, of course, all abuses thrive, and the public suffers dumbly, and does not well see how it can help itself, except by the process called "a popular uprising"—that is, a brief outburst of fury when things have become so bad as to be absolutely unbearable.

THE WORKINGMEN AND THE CHURCHES.

THE *Independent*, the other day, undertook to answer a recent article of ours on the relations of the workingmen to the churches. This answer contained a good deal of irrelevant matter, and some theological scolding which it is hardly worth while to notice. What concerns us is its method of disproving our assertions. To make its task all the easier, it proposed to limit inquiry to the city of New York. Now, the alienation between the working classes and the churches in this city has gone to great lengths, but it is greatly exceeded by that in other cities, as Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Chicago. It is far from being accurate to assert, as does our contemporary, that if it can prove that

there is no great separation between the churches and the lower classes in New York, the case is settled for the whole country. But we will not press this, being content to meet our critic on his chosen ground, only insisting that we be held accountable for what we actually said, not for what it may be alleged that we said.

The method adopted by the *Independent* to procure evidence for our refutation, in our judgment, leaves much to be desired. Letters of inquiry were sent to all the Protestant pastors of New York. We are not told what the exact questions were which were put to them. From the specimen answers given we conclude, however, that each pastor was asked how large a part of his church was composed of workingmen; if it would be possible for a poorly-dressed man to force his way into any service, and how much "hostility" to Christianity he had observed among the lower classes. This was the best way, we are assured, to get at "the exact facts." But we must submit that the questions were only in small part directed to the point at issue—that being, not whether workingmen were "hostile" to the churches, nor whether the churches would welcome the poor who might come to their services, but simply whether, as a matter of fact, the working classes as a whole were not separated, and growingly so, from the churches. Nor can we agree with our contemporary that the evidence which it has collected in the way indicated may safely be made the premises for the most rigid argument. It seems to us to be clear that an indispensable part of a full investigation of the relations of the poor to the churches would be an effort to get the poor man's side of the question; that one desiring complete knowledge would have gone to the quarters of the city which furnish homes to the poor, and would have counted the number and observed the kind of Protestant churches to be found in those localities. In the absence of any such endeavor to get full and impartial evidence, we cannot share the confidence of the *Independent* that the answers to its letters have put an end to controversy.

Of course we do not know what was the full evidence collected, as it has been printed only in epitome. Several of the answers sent in are from the so-called pastors of mission chapels. Naturally their congregations are almost wholly made up of people in the lower walks of life. But it is surely pressing a mere technicality to identify this handful of mission chapels, which are not self-supporting, which are better described as charitable institutions than churches, with the distinctive Protestant churches of New York. In any case, it is to be remembered that they make up but a small percentage of the whole. Aside from them, and looking to the answers returned by the men who are the pastors of what is generally understood by the Protestant churches of this city, the result of the *Independent's* inquiry seems to us to confirm strikingly that sentence of ours which has drawn all this fire. Thus, many of the pastors directly admit that they have "none" or "very few" of the working classes in their churches. Others do all they can to help out their friend, the editor, by stretching the definition of a workingman so as to include clerks and servant girls, and replying that they have "as many as could be expected" of those classes. Still others boldly meet the case by affirming that it is an entire mistake to suppose that there are no workingmen in their churches, since they make it a rule to tolerate no distinction of classes, and they would gladly welcome working people to their services if any would come.

We are not willing to leave this subject without calling attention to evidence, bearing upon this matter, which seems to us much more full and pertinent than anything the *Independent* has published. We refer to the series of articles which have appeared during the last few weeks in the *Christian Union* on "The Home Heathen" of our cities. It can scarcely be that the facts arrayed in those articles have not fallen under the eye of our critic, though he has made no reference to them, so far as we have seen. We should think there would be a great deal in them very attractive to a person of his statistical turn. Especially significant, as bearing on the case of New York, is the paper of the Rev. A. F. Schauffler, which was published in the *Christian Union* of March 12, under the title "Godless New York." This writer is well known to the *Independent*, having its full endorsement, in fact, as one of the "men at the front," for he appears among its chosen witnesses to remark that he *did* find "hostility" to Christianity among certain classes of artisans. We have room to extract from the article referred to only the following evidence, which we hope will appear in the next reference which our contemporary makes to this matter:

> "We find," says Mr. Schauffler, "that the churches constantly tend to crowd their way into certain favored localities where, for various reasons, they can easily maintain themselves, and abandon utterly other and less favorable quarters of the city. For example, we can mark out south of Broome Street a locality in which 68,000 people live, where for twelve years there have been only two small English Protestant churches, one German church, and two small chapels. The Seventh Ward, on the east side, has 50,066 people and five churches and chapels, or one to every 10,000: the Fifth Ward, 15,845 population and two churches and chapels; the Fourteenth Ward, 30,071 population and two churches and chapels, equal to one for each 15,035 souls."

After these figures have been disposed of, we should be glad to see attention given to certain editorial utterances of the *Christian Union*, summing up the whole question. In its issue of April 23 it said:

> "These poorer classes, herded together in huge tenement houses, have been for the most part left alone by the Christian community. The population has been growing, and the church accommodations have been diminishing. In the city of New York, in 1840, one church to every 1,800; in 1880, one church to every 2,400. . . . These are the solemn, urgent facts. While we are sending missionaries abroad—and we are sending all too few—heathenism is making gains on our own shores and under the shadow of our own church steeples. These are the facts, the indubitable and unquestionable facts."

This would go to show that the *Christian Union*, together with the several clergymen who contributed to its columns the startling facts in regard to the religious destitution of the poorer classes in Boston, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, Philadelphia, and New York, is as badly informed as even we are, and is possessed of an amount of petty malice against Christianity that rivals our own.

CHAUCER AND BALZAC.

THE passage in the Prologue to the 'Canterbury Tales' in which Chaucer declares his intention with regard to the personages of his narrative—

> "Me thinketh it accordaunt to resoun
> To telle you al the condicioun
> Of eche of hem so as it semede me,
> And whiche they weren and of what degre;
> And eke in what array that they were inne"—

might well have been taken by Balzac as a motto for the forty volumes of his "Comédie Humaine." The purpose Chaucer entertained about his nine and twenty companions was the same that Balzac so marvellously carried out in his nine hundred and twenty—or, as he himself asserted, two thousand — portraits. And consequently in Chaucer's pages and in Balzac's volumes we find not only poetry and romance, but history as authentic and as vivid as in the sacrosanct Saint Simon himself. Finding that, we find too, what lies beneath all history—records of the essential qualities of human nature. But this human nature is painted by each artist under the lineaments of his own age, and the comparison of their respective portraits of the same character is instructive.

The thirty personages through whom Chaucer presents his world, display to us almost as large a range of natures, influences, positions, and relations as we study on Balzac's crowded canvas—as wide a range of *natures*, indeed, when we look from the Clerk to the Cook, from the Parson to the Wife of Bath, but a more limited range of *relations*, of the drama of life. The pseudo-civilization which Balzac, to use Mr. Arnold's words, "delineated with splendid ability," consists in great measure of the personal interchange of influences; and this was but a latent force in mediæval life.

The fact that they have both in many instances studied and drawn the same characters, as we just now implied, brings before us the differences between the England of the fourteenth century and the France of the nineteenth most strikingly. Whole categories of philosophic investigations and results become visible when we place opposite to the "young man," Balzac's perpetual hero, represented by him over and over again in infinite varieties of light and coloring, but always the "joli jeune homme," coming poor and "able" from the provinces to conquer the world in Paris or to be slain by it—when we place opposite to this multiform figure "the lover and the lusty bacheler" of Chaucer, who

> "Singing he was or fluting all the day;
> He was as fresh as is the month of May."

Much, too, is summed up in observing that the admirable figure of the Knight has no counterpart in Balzac. Never did his eyes rest on a representative of "knightly" qualities, of the love of "chyvalrie, trouthe and honour, fredome and curtesie"; or, at the best, on none better than the unhappy Colonel Chabert, whose nobleness is degraded by treachery and misfortune to the most pitiful destiny; or than the Marquis d'Espard, who, with all his lofty excellence, was far removed by his circumstances from one "ever honoured for his worthinesse."

On the other hand, one of Balzac's most conspicuous and often-repeated figures, "la grande dame," was either unknown to Chaucer or did not come within the scope of his plan. (The pretty Prioress, Balzac knew as Mademoiselle Ursule Mirouet.) And we have not in Chaucer the "soudard" and "viveur" Philippe Bridaud (one of Balzac's *chefs-d'œuvre*), nor Joseph Bridaud, his brother, the artist, nor any of Joseph's several confrères of different arts and professions, nor the old reprobate the Baron Hulot, nor the miser Grandet; nor, in return, among all Balzac's "avoués," and "justices de paix," and "présidents de la cour," is there precisely Chaucer's

"sergeant of the law," and among all his "gens de l'église" there is no abbot-like, hunting monk.

Nevertheless, the parallels are numerous, and are chiefly in that class of subordinate characters where some of Balzac's greatest successes were achieved. To enter into them in detail would require a volume. We can here only slightly indicate the points of most interest, merely suggesting them to those who care to study the two authors, and discover for themselves the deep meaning of the difference in their works.

The "poure persoun of a toun" may be compared with the "Curé de village," who equally was diligent

> "In siknesse and in meschief to visite
> The ferreste in his parische moche and lite";

but how alien is the whole tone of the English portrait to such relations of factitious authority and excitement as the French priest maintains with his guilty parishioner Jean-François Tascheron, and his noble penitent Madame Graslin.

The ruddy Frankeleyn who

> "At sessiouns ther was he lord and sire,
> Ful efte tyme he was knight of the schire,"

was in Balzac's day named Philéas Beauvisage, and was M. le Maire (of Arcis-sur-Aube), "whose face was like a full moon, but a jolly moon." "He liked good cheer and the things of an easy life; his wife provided for him the most exquisite wines, a table worthy of a bishop, and the best cook in all the neighborhood."

> "A bettre envyned [stocked with wine] man was no wher non."
>
> "Hit snewede in his hous of mete and drynke,
> Of alle deyntees that men cowde thynke."

César Birotteau, as "a business man," may stand for Chaucer's Merchant:

> "His resons he spak full solempnely."

We have the Clerk

> "Who lokede holwe and therto soberly"

in Athanase Granson, who "was a thin and pale young man of middle size, and with a hollow face, in which his black eyes, sparkling with thought, were like two coals. . . . His soul was contemplative: he lived more by thought than action. . . . His studies, carried on at the library of the city, escaped attention, and he buried in his soul his dreams of glory, as they might be prejudicial to him."

> "And he hadde geten him yit no benefice:
> Ne was so worldly for to have office."

The "doctour of phisik"—

> "In al this world ne was ther non him lyk
> To speke of phisik and of surgerye"—

is "l'illustre Desplein," the hero of 'La Messe de l'Athée,' where it is duly insisted on that

> "His studie was but litel on the Bible."

He is also Horace Bianchon, a frequently recurring figure in Balzac's pages, who was equally a "verrey parfit practisour."

The *commis-voyageur!* "a personage unknown in old times," declares Balzac himself. Unknown by such name, or precisely in such business, but "l'illustre Gaudissart," is he not in nature and modes of life twin brother to "the Lymytour"?

> "Ful wel beloved and famulier was he
> With frankeleyns over-al in his cuntre,
> And eek with worthi wommen of the toun.
> . . . . . .
> And overal, ther as profyt schulde arise,
> Curteys he was, and lowely of servyse.
> . . . . . .
> For though a widow hadde noght oo shoo
> (So plesaunt was his *In principio*),
> Yet wold he have a farthing or he wente."

"Would you know," says Balzac, "the power of the tongue, and the forcible pressure of phrases on the most rebellious pockets, listen to the speechifying of one of these great dignitaries of Parisian trade." And again, "Is he not the ring which connects the village with the capital, he himself being neither Parisian nor provincial? He is essentially a traveller."

> "He knew the tavernes wel in every toun."

All the first pages of 'L'Illustre Gaudessart' read like a mere amplification of Chaucer, and modernization. Balzac himself likens the *commis-voyageur* to "an unbelieving priest who talks only the better of his mysteries and his dogmas."

As a companion figure to "the Reeve" we must accept (in the person of Maître Chesnel) the intendant, the notary devoted to the interests of a family. Instead of

> "His lordes scheep, his neet and his dayerie,
> His swyn, his hors, his stor, and his pultrie,"

which

> "Were holly in this reeves governynge,"

it is more strictly money matters with which the intendant is concerned. But equally,

> "He by his covenaunt gave the rekenynge,
> Syn that his lord was twentl yeer of age:
> Ther coulde no man bringe him in arrerage";

and those who deceived and despoiled the Marquis d'Esgrignon,

> "They were adrad of him, as of the deth";

and of him most truly can it be said:

> "Ful riche he was astored prively.
> His lord wel coulde he plese subtilly
> To yeve and lend him of his owne good"—

"In two years Victurnien had received about eighty thousand francs from the poor notary." It is only the positions, not the characters of these two personages which are alike; and, curiously enough, that quality of attachment of inferior to superior which Balzac, in this very instance, speaks of as "feudal," and as something belonging only to the past (yet of which the many devoted servants he has drawn are, in some sort, other illustrations), is nowhere, either in the Prologue or the Tales, described or referred to by Chaucer.

We have no Miller from Balzac's brush; but he has painted the miller's dwelling in one of the most careful of his infrequent sketches direct from nature:

"A house adjoining a mill placed on an arm of the river showed between the tops of the trees its thatched roof decorated with house-leek. This simple structure had for its sole adorning some bushes of jasmine, honeysuckle, and hops, and all about were the bright flowers of phlox and of the most showy fertile plants. On the stonework which, held in place by clumsy piles, raised the roadway above even the greatest floods, were to be seen nets drying in the sun. Ducks swam in the clear basin which lay beyond the mill, between the two currents of water roaring in the sluices; and one could hear the teasing noise of the mill."

All this would seem very familiar to Chaucer.

For the Yeoman, the young squire's servant, Balzac gives us Michaud, the "garde-bois" of 'Les Paysans':

> "A forster was he sothly as I guess."

And the Ploughman—

> "A trewe swynker and a good was he
> Lyvyng in pees and parfit charitee"—

finds his mate in the old vine-dresser Niseron, (also in 'Les Paysans'): "As hard as iron, as pure as gold."

> "God loved he beste with al his hoole hearte
> At alle tymes, though him gamede or smerte"—

and sacrificed his only son on the altar of his Jacobin beliefs.

> "And thanne [he loved] his neighebour right as himselve,"

accepting poverty in place of a heritage to which he was entitled.

It is much to be lamented that Balzac, with his own practical proficiency in the culinary art, never painted a *Cook*. It would have been a great figure!

We have said that the ladies of high birth, and, in *his* eyes, high breeding, in whose portraiture Balzac delighted, and whom he prided himself on seeing and revealing *au fond*, have no counterparts in Chaucer, while Balzac's detailed descriptions of their minds and bodies, their natures and their circumstances, their thinkings and their doings, their sensibilities and their refinements, form a very large part of the "Comédie Humaine." But to Sainte-Beuve's inexplicable approval of his "delicious rendering" of them, the best critics of to-day are far from assenting, and find in his equally elaborate portraits of women of coarse natures and degraded life much more truth and power. And here he and Chaucer can be again compared together. The "fayre yonge wif" of the "Miller's Tale" is touched in with lines and colors curiously analogous to those constantly employed by Balzac; and lengthy quotations, if they could be made use of, would establish indubitably this point. But it needs no quotations to recall the figures of the Wife of Bath and of Madame Schontz, and it cannot be denied that they are of one family: they belong, if we may so say, to that family of "vermes" which, through all ages, repeat themselves by fissiparous generation.

Close as it has been seen some of these resemblances of conception are, it is evident that the differences are infinite. Balzac's volumes are among the few one can fancy "ordered" in the Elysian Fields, and sent out from the celestial "Mudie's"; and if Chaucer amuses himself with them, what strange reading he must find them! One imagines Sir Walter Scott, too, looking up from a page of 'Le Père Goriot,' and saying: "This isn't my world, and not yours, I think," and with what a laugh Chaucer echoes his words! M. Taine has said, "*Parvenir!* this word, unknown a century ago, is to-day the sovereign master of all lives." Balzac's ninety-seven tales are ninety-seven illustrations of this. They, one and all, with the exception of the 'Études Philosophiques,' describe lives engaged in a form of *striving*—the struggle, the scramble (half strength, half cunning) for a higher position—which was quite unknown to Chaucer.

ÉLÉONORE D'OLBREUZE.

PARIS, May 5, 1885.

THE history of Éléonore d'Olbreuze has recently been written, by Viscount Horric de Beaucaire, from new documents found in the French Foreign Office, in the library of the Swedish University of Lund, and in the archives of Berlin, Wolfenbüttel, and Hanover. In 1879 Schaumann wrote in Hanover his 'Sophie Dorothea, Prinzessin von Ahlden und Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover,' and Dr. Koecher published the 'Memoiren aus Herzogin Sophie nachmals Kurfüstin von Hannover.' M. de Beaucaire has used these valuable materials and tried to complete a final biography of Éléonore d'Olbreuze. It is well known how this lady, attached as maid of honor to the Princess of Tarente, became acquainted with George William of Brunswick, and finally married him; and how their daughter, Sophie Dorothea, married her cousin the Duke George of Hanover, who became King of England.

M. de Beaucaire has taken much pains in writing the history of the Desmier family, to which he is himself related. Éléonore Desmier d'Olbreuze was born in 1639 at Olbreuze, between Niort and La Rochelle. The province of Poitou was, at the time of the wars of religion, one of the strongholds of the Protestant faith; the Desmiers were among the best families of this province. One of them followed Henri IV. in all his wars, and separated from him only when he "jumped the ditch." In vain did Henri IV., who was fond of him, ask him to stay near him and not go and "eat nuts in Angoumois." The branch of D'Olbreuze remained Protestant to the end. The father of Éléonore was a Huguenot, and brought up his children in the Protestant faith. There is a general belief that Éléonore d'Olbreuze was of humble origin; in reality, the Desmiers were related to the best families of the west of France. "This Duchess," wrote the

Duchess of Orleans to her German relations (when Éléonore became Duchess of Zell), "is of very low extraction; it would have been an honor for her to marry Colin, the first valet-de-chambre of Monsieur." This word was repeated in all the courts of Europe. But the Duchess of Orleans knew but little about the genealogy of the proud Huguenot families of Poitou, which were poor, lived on their estates, and were never seen at court.

The Electress Sophia, as well as the Duchess of Orleans, credited the opinion that young Éléonore d'Olbreuze entered the house of the Princess of Tarente in a very humble position. The title of Tarente belongs to the La Trémoilles, and the La Trémoilles were, with the Rohans, the greatest people in Brittany and in the west of France. They knew all about the Desmiers d'Olbreuze. They had an almost royal position, and it was usual for ladies of such families to take poor noblewomen as ladies in waiting, as queens and princesses do in our time. Éléonore d'Olbreuze stayed first in that capacity with the Dowager Duchess of La Trémoille, and we read in the memoirs of Charlotte-Amélie de la Trémoille that after the marriage of Marie-Charlotte with Bernard de Saxe (July 18, 1661), "Madame my grandmother resolved to go no more to Paris nor to court, but to end her days in the provinces, at Vitré or Thouars. This is why she separated from her two *demoiselles d'honneur:* she gave Maranville, who was the first, to Madame de Weymar; and she gave Olbreuze, who was the second, to Madame my mother." (These memoirs were published in 1876 at Geneva, by M. Édouard de Barthélemy.)

The Prince and Princess of Tarente were Protestants, and the Prince found some military occupation in Holland. Éléonore accompanied her princess to this country, and became acquainted with the princes of the House of Nassau and with many German princes. Grammont, when speaking of Mlle. d'Olbreuze, once said, "When we are tired of them at our court, they are still good enough for a German prince"; but Grammont was never very charitable. Éléonore's reputation was perfectly intact when she left France, and her conduct was irreproachable in Holland.

George William met the Princess of Tarente and Éléonore d'Olbreuze at the court of the Landgrave of Hesse in the winter of 1663-64. The wit and liveliness of the young Frenchwoman made a great impression on him; she inspired at the same time a passion in John Frederick, his brother. She was certainly a *grande coquette;* she could have played *Célimène.* On her return to Holland she began a correspondence with John Frederick, who had gone to Venice, and she wrote only letters "toutes pleines de cérémonie." George William had gone to Holland and had been very attentive to Éléonore. The two brothers were always quarrelling; they were jealous of each other, and it is not impossible that this jealousy may have had something to do with their love for the young Frenchwoman. Mme. de Tarente was severe, Éléonore was clever, and kept her lover at a distance. This resistance only increased his passion, and he began to speak of a morganatic marriage. All was arranged, when Christian Louis of Brunswick died, and George William was obliged to leave Holland to settle his difficulties with his younger brother, who had taken possession of the Duchy of Brunswick. The Duchess of La Trémoille having died in France, the Princess of Tarente was obliged to leave for Brittany. She left Éléonore behind at Bois-le-Duc. A treaty was signed in 1665 between the brothers, by the terms of which the lover of D'Olbreuze, who was the eldest, became Duke of Zell, and kept Zell for his residence; John Frederick took Hanover and Goettingen.

The Duke of Zell asked Éléonore to leave Holland, and she left Bois-le-Duc for Germany with two companions of her sex. She stopped at Iburg, where she was received by the Duchess Sophia. The latter was at first favorably impressed with Éléonore, but she would not hear of a marriage, not even of a morganatic marriage. The Duke of Zell, who had arrived, himself rejected the idea of a marriage, under the influence of his brother and of his sister-in-law. He offered, in a special act, to promise to live always with her; to leave her, in case he should die, in an honorable position, and never to marry. This promise (the text of it is given in the 'Memoiren der Herzogin Sophie') was signed by George William, Éléonore, Ernest-August (who was Bishop of Osnabrück), and Sophia. It was the only assurance given to Éléonore. In fact, no marriage ceremony took place. Éléonore took at court the name of Mme. d'Harburg, the name of a town in the Duchy of Lüneburg. She was only half satisfied, and for years afterward she worked in order to obtain the favor of a religious marriage. In a letter to a friend of her family, she writes on March 14, 1666: "I am the happiest woman in the world. . . . Whatever people may say of the fact that I did not appear in church before a priest, I cannot repent of what I have done. It is faith which makes marriage. His Highness pledged himself before all his relations who signed the contract: he promised never to have any wife but myself. . . . You would like to see our *ménage:* it is the happiest in the world." So she wrote, but she had not in reality the assurance which she professed to have. She was not satisfied with her position.

On the 15th of September, 1666, Éléonore was confined of a daughter, who received the name of Sophia Dorothea. The happiness of her union with George William and the birth of this daughter improved her position gradually. She was clever, intelligent, she became indispensable. Nothing was done without her. She looked after the furniture, the table, the linen, the servants; she was one of those persons who, wherever they are, are everything. George could no longer live without her, he was the most constant and devoted of lovers. Such a transformation put the Duchess Sophia beside herself, and she became the enemy of her former ally.

Young Sophia Dorothea was betrothed to the Duke Anton-Ulric of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel when she was only six years old; in 1671 George allotted, by an act signed by himself and approved by his brother, the revenues of two districts of his states to the payment of the dower of Mme. d'Harburg; in the same year he left the revenues of two cities and districts to her and to her young daughter. The alliance of the Brunswicks was important to the Emperor, and, on the request of George William, the Emperor gave the title of Countess of Wilhelmsburg to Éléonore and her children. The Empress at the same time sent to her the order of Virtue, which was only given to princesses. Soon afterward Sophia Dorothea was given permission to bear the name and the arms of the house of Brunswick in case she should marry a prince. Finally, in 1675, a marriage was agreed to in order that the child might be legitimate. Some difficulties were thrown in the way by the Duchess Sophia and the Bishop of Osnabrück, but George William was determined to have his way, and in the midst of war, between the sieges of two Swedish towns of the Bishopric of Bremen, the religious ceremony was celebrated in presence of the Duke Anton-Ulric. A month afterward it was made public; and the name of Éléonore was added to that of her husband in the prayers of the Church. The lady-in-waiting had become a real princess.

Let us do her justice. Her court of Zell became one of the most brilliant in Germany, and one of the most virtuous and orderly. Éléonore took a lively interest in the politics of the day, especially as it affected the position of her husband. Louis XIV. paid special attentions to the Duke of Zell, whose armies had taken an important part in the war against Sweden. He began negotiations with him through Marshal d'Estrades, Ambassador of France at the Congress of Nimeguen, and a relation of Éléonore. D'Estrades entered into a direct correspondence with Éléonore on the subject of the House of Brunswick. When the peace was signed, Louis XIV. sent the Duke and Duchess magnificent presents. The Duchess Sophia was so angry that she said that "a ring worth two thousand florins would have been enough for a demoiselle du Poitou." When George William saw the diamonds sent by Louis XIV. to his wife, he said to the French envoy: "The King has given me more pleasure by this mark of friendship to my wife than if he had left me all the land of Bremen."

The court of Zell was then at the height of its brilliancy: it was almost a French court, as Éléonore had surrounded herself with French relations and friends. The grand marshal of the court was a Frenchman, Armand de Lescours; all her ladies of honor were French, as well as all her gentlemen in waiting. The court was enlivened by balls, by ballets, by concerts. The Duke had French comedians and Italian singers. The pleasures of Zell were decent, and Éléonore did not tolerate the coarse masquerades of Hanover. In summer the Duke and Duchess went to Pyrmont, to Wiesbaden, with all their attendants. The Duke was fond of hunting, and kept as many as four hundred dogs. The master of the staghounds was a Frenchman. He preserved pheasants, which were at the time quite a royal luxury. Éléonore remained very French till the time of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes; she made of Zell a little Versailles. But the fatal Edict sent to her many refugees, and all the enemies of France began to work on the religious feelings of the Duke. His agent in Paris, M. de Rosemont de Boncœur, was of French nationality and a Protestant, and for some infraction of the Edict he was sent to the Bastile. George William was very angry; he abandoned the cause of France, and declared war on Louis XIV. in January, 1689. He had so many Huguenot refugees at his court that a gay Frenchman once told him at table, "Why, sir, it seems to me you are the only foreigner here.' Among these refugees we find some distinguished names, as, Chappuzeau, father and son.

Meanwhile, Sophia Dorothea was coming of age, and we must see what additions M de Beaucaire has made to the biography of this unfortunate Princess.

Correspondence.

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter to you published in the *Nation* of April 23d, Professor Shepherd, of the College of Charleston, S. C., while accurately describing the want of instruction in English in the colleges of the South before the war, does not do justice to the great improvement made in this respect since that time. In fact, in no other department of study has equal improvement been made, not only in Virginia but in the "States south of Virginia"; and no other indication marks more decisively the *renaissance* of education in the South than the general progress in the advanced study of English, and in the rank and estimation assigned to it in Southern

collegiate work. I hesitate to give you a partial list of the colleges, or "universities falsely so called," which in "States south of Virginia" have made more or less ample provision for collegiate instruction in English, lest I should omit some that most deserve to be named. But Vanderbilt University, the Tennessee University, the Southwestern University, of Tennessee; the University of Georgia, and Emory College, Georgia; the University of Alabama; the University of Mississippi; the Tulane University, Louisiana; the University of Texas, the Southwestern University, Texas; the College of Charleston, Wofford College, the South Carolina College, S. C., are only some of these, of which an expert, who has given the subject a careful inquiry, writes to me that "they are doing as good work in English as in any other study." It is true that some of these institutions have not a "specific chair of English" (though some of them have had for many years); but that is only for the same reason that some of them have not a specific chair of Latin or Greek—namely, the want of means to make the requisite subdivision. At any rate, English holds in these colleges the same rank as those languages, is equally required in the courses of study, and is taught—it may be presumed with equal care and ability—by professors of equal rank. And I may add, it is growing everywhere in favor and in recognized importance more rapidly, perhaps, than any other branch of study in Southern colleges. Mr. Shepherd's phrase "adequate provision" is, of course, relative; and it should be construed here not with reference to any mere ideal, but to all the surrounding conditions.

But it is with reference to "Carolina colleges" that Mr. Shepherd's judgments, and, stranger still, his facts, too, are most at fault and most likely to do injustice, as has been shown already by Professor Woodward in the case of Wofford College. He instances Randolph Macon and Washington and Lee (both Virginia colleges) as examples of "perceptible improvement since 1870"—and this stinted praise is in both cases more than deserved—while he cites the South Carolina College at Columbia, on the other hand, as an example of "neglect," because "one professor gives instruction in *three* languages, English, French, and German." Yet the same is true of both Randolph Macon and Washington and Lee. Nor is it true, as Mr. Shepherd implies, that this is the only teaching of English in the South Carolina College. Another professor teaches, distinctively, English literature (as also at Washington and Lee), and the two are aided by a tutor (at Washington and Lee, where the same department includes modern history also, there are two assistants, and at Randolph Macon, one). It may be added, also, that this distribution is only temporary, the "specific chair of English" having been established at the first reorganization of this college in 1880, and only awaiting the means, as in so many other Southern colleges, of calling a distinct professor.

So, too, with regard to the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, which is also charged with "neglect." Upon examining the catalogue of that institution for the last year I find that the subjects assigned by Professor Shepherd to "*one* gentleman" are really divided between two, and that while the first is "Professor of Moral Philosophy, History, and English Literature," the second is specifically "Instructor in English," and, it is to be presumed, devotes his entire time to this work. So that this University presents by no means so "deplorable a condition of affairs" as Professor Shepherd seems to imply. The fact that a "specific chair of English" is now called for there shows that there has been no *neglect* under the present instructors, but that they have at least succeeded in creating a felt demand for larger and higher study in English—no small achievement under all the circumstances.

It is thus seen how far partial statements, true as far as they go, may by obvious implication do the greatest injustice, because they do not tell the whole truth. On the other hand, in the claim made for the College of Charleston as "a marked exception among Carolina colleges," it would seem to be implied by contrast that the entire teaching of its "specific chair of English" is given to instruction in English "during the four years of the collegiate course." As that college has published no catalogue nor any recent announcement from which its courses of study can be ascertained, I am unable to speak by authority; yet I am credibly informed that such is not the case—nor is it easy to see how it could be when the entire instruction is divided among five professors only. Indeed, a comparison might show that not more actual time is given to such instruction under the specific chair at Charleston than under the distributed work at Washington and Lee or Randolph Macon, which are credited only with "perceptible improvement," or in the colleges at Columbia and Chapel Hill, which are charged with "neglect." But "comparisons are odious"; and I can only regret that Professor Shepherd's have compelled this reply.

In truth, Mr. Editor, the progress of education in the South is to be judged fairly, not so much by what has been accomplished as by what is conceived, recognized, attempted under the new order of things. In nothing is the new birth of the South more evident than in the efforts of its colleges and schools. And in no department are these efforts more general, more earnest, or more hopeful than in the study of English.

Very respectfully, EDWARD S. JOYNES.

SOUTH CAROLINA COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA, S. C., May 11, 1885.

CABINET RESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The proposal of "G. B." to put the Cabinet officers into Congress in order to enforce responsibility for bad appointments, suggests the old remedy for toothache by cutting off the patient's head, instead of simply pulling out the unsound tooth.

If the President were to let his Cabinet officers understand that they would be held responsible for bad appointments *unrevoked*, and were to enforce his warning when occasion arose, the trouble would be at an end very soon.

Considering that Mr. Cleveland is the first President since John Quincy Adams who has seemed to be really concerned in applying the test of fitness to appointments to office, it is not surprising that all of us (Cabinet officers included) are uncertain of the best means of applying the test; but it would be a public misfortune to create a belief that Presidential and Cabinet responsibility cannot be fixed without action by Congress. B.

WASHINGTON, May 16, 1885.

THE RHODE ISLAND COLLECTORSHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Every believer in civil-service reform and every such well-wisher of the present Administration must regret the displacement, announced in this morning's despatches, of the Collector of Internal Revenue for this District, and the appointment of his Democratic successor.

The ex-Collector has held his position for years, and his office stands at Washington in the highest rank for efficiency and honor. He is a Republican, but, while Collector, has taken no part in political management. The most fertile imagination cannot make him out an "offensive partisan." His office has been managed solely on business principles. Many Republicans have in the past objected to him on the sole ground that he would not be a political "worker." He was a gallant officer during the Civil War, and is a gentleman of the highest character and exceptional ability. No cause is assigned for his removal.

His successor is of good family and clean repute. He is a Democrat and an old friend of the President, and is greatly surprised at his appointment. These are his "claims."

I do not hesitate to say that no intelligent man in Rhode Island, Republican, Democrat, or Independent, looks or can look on this change as anything else than a conspicuous illustration of the doctrine—"To the victors belong the spoils." Most fair-minded men among us believed the President sincere in his professions of opposition to this doctrine, and our prominent Democrats expected no change in so highly honored an officer. If Rhode Island needs "cleaning out," as perhaps in spots it does, this was a strange place to begin.

The growing number of such cases as the above is weakening confidence in many friends of the Administration, and leading to the fear that genuine reform is far ahead. Is the President to fly in the face of his own professions, and *slowly* make a "clean sweep"? We fear he is.

AN OBSERVER.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., May 18, 1885.

[We have no means of judging how the ex-Collector's office stands at Washington, or what motives prompted the removal; but the circumstances, as related by our correspondent, seem to us to make the case anything but an exemplification of the spoils system.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. announce 'A Marsh Island,' by Sarah Orne Jewett (from the *Atlantic's* pages); and 'Talks Afield,' an illustrated volume on botany, by L. H. Bailey, of the Agricultural College of Michigan. They will also publish simultaneously with Kegan Paul & Co., London, Gen. Gordon's Diaries, edited by A. Egmont Hake.

Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston, have offered to act as treasurers of America's contribution to a memorial tablet in marble, a portrait of Carlyle by his friend C. F. Annesley Voysey, to be set on the front of the house in Cheyne Row where Carlyle lived. The sum is $60, and sums of from ten cents to a dollar will be acceptable.

By arrangement with Mr. Longfellow's publishers, E. P. Dutton & Co. will issue for the coming season an illustrated edition of "The Village Blacksmith."

The second volume of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge's sumptuous edition of the works of Alexander Hamilton (G. P. Putnam's Sons) consists of reports, articles, and letters on taxation and finance, which have by no means lost either value or interest. We might instance the article in the *National Gazette*, given on p. 320, discussing the theme once made popular by Mr. Jay Cooke—"A Public Debt is a Public Blessing." He quotes from his own reports as Secretary of the Treasury his doctrine that "there ought to be in every Government a perpetual, anxious, and unceasing effort to reduce that [debt] which at any time exists, as far as shall be practicable consistently with integrity and good faith." This defence of himself he published anonymously in September, 1792, not having the resource which "G. B." advocates, of taking the floor in Congress.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have published two volumes of 'Tales from Many Sources,' the tales being short and the sources (so far) all foreign. Mr. Anstey's "Black Poodle" is one of the six in volume i, and Thomas Hardy, R. L. Stevenson, W. E. Norris, Julian Sturgis, and *Blackwood* furnish the rest. In the second volume, Ouida, Charles Reade, and Hesba Stretton figure with other less-known writers. The typography is excellent and the form handy.

In 'Men of Invention and Industry' (Harpers), Dr. Smiles has returned to the field in which he won his literary reputation. A considerable part of this book has already appeared in various periodicals, while much of the remainder is occupied with accounts of persons comparatively well known. The freshest portion is that devoted to some self-taught astronomers in humble life, the most interesting of whom were a railway porter in a country town in the north of Scotland, and a man employed in counting slates in a Welsh quarry. Mr. E. T. Harland, the civil engineer, contributes a chapter on "Shipbuilding in Belfast." We have noticed several errors, as Geneva for Genoa, Spanish for French, and 11,000 for 1,100, which somewhat mar this reprint.

Scribner & Welford send us several volumes recently added to the Bohn Library—the third of the five volumes of Gibbs's edition of Goldsmith's Works; Grimm's 'Household Tales,' in two volumes; and Walton's 'Lives.' The Goldsmith contains the 'Citizen of the World,' after the latest edition that Goldsmith could have had an oversight of, but annotated very usefully with dates for the several letters and the varying readings; the 'Enquiry into the Present State of Polite Learning,' from the second edition of 1774, plus the omitted portions of the first edition; and two timely essays attributed to Goldsmith, on "The Bravery of the English Common Soldiers" and "The Character of English Officers." "The English spirit continues amongst officers as well as soldiers still the same, and requires only to be awakened," says the writer. A. H. Bullen has revised Walton's 'Lives,' and William Dowling has prefixed a memoir; and numerous steel portraits and old-style woodcuts embellish this edition very pleasantly. Mr. Andrew Lang furnishes an introduction on folk-lore to Margaret Hunt's new version of Grimm's 'Tales,' of which the main features are fidelity to the original (with the least possible softening of coarsenesses), and preservation of the author's notes, never before Englished. In other words, adult readers have been kept in mind rather than children. Mr. Lang continues his assault on the sun-myth. This edition can but meet with great favor.

To enhance the value of the display of American woods which the American Museum of Natural History makes, thanks to the liberality of Mr. Morris K. Jesup, Professor C. S. Sargent has condensed from his census volume a catalogue of the trees of this country, making a convenient octavo (D. Appleton & Co.).

Messrs. Aulme & Hornblower, authors of the plan for the National Library and Museum at Dublin, which obtained a second prize, have devised, it would appear, a new method of keeping books in order, which, if found upon trial to be successful, would greatly diminish the number of attendants necessary in a large library. "The heating pipes," they say, in their description of the plan in the *Building News*, "are all fixed in the basement, and the hot air ascending through the floors keeps the books in order." It is strange that such a remarkable, one might almost say astounding, invention should not have won them the first prize.

It is characteristic of the highest flight of the noble art of interviewing and reporting to hear the Paris correspondent of the London *Times* talk thus in a letter dated April 22: "I have already had occasion to refer to the remark which Prince Bismarck made to me while the Berlin Congress was sitting. . . . It may also be remembered that the Sultan Abdul-Hamid, in the audience which he granted me in October, 1884, . . . asked more than once when I believed the English troops would leave Egypt. In a conversation which I had at the same time with Said Pasha he complained sharply that the Powers had imposed on Turkey the execution of onerous conditions. . . ."

Not long since we called attention to the good fortune of the University of Michigan in receiving the Lewis Art Gallery. The same institution is now about to acquire the original models in plaster of all the works of Mr. Randolph Rogers, the well-known American sculptor at Rome. Within the past fortnight a letter has been received by the Curator of the Museum at Ann Arbor, announcing that the work of packing the entire collection has begun, and that it will be conveyed as soon as practicable to the University. It consists of sixty-eight numbers, and includes models not only of the bronze doors of the Capitol at Washington, but also of the several soldiers' monuments designed by this artist, together with the monuments of Lincoln, Seward, John Adams, and others. Of the allegorical pieces, the "Lost Pleiad," the "Nydia," "Somnambula," "Victory," "Justice," "Revolution," and "Finance," are perhaps the best known. Many of the figures are of colossal size, and evidently very large space will be required for the proper display of the collection. In giving the collection to the University, Mr. Rogers is but carrying out a purpose he has long entertained.

A public document certain to be in request for its novel features is No. 345 of the Massachusetts House, touching the question of the Great Seal of the Commonwealth. The marrow of it is an essay by Mr. Wm. H. Whitmore, on the various seals of the Colony, Province, and State, accompanied by delineations of each. In its last form, the seal failed to receive the technical sanction of the Legislature, and it is now proposed to fix it by law with precise heraldic indications. So the document ends with an act, out of which the Indian of the State arms emerges in gold on a blue field, in his shirt and moccasins simply, his peaceful arrow pointing downward; the rest as in the common representations of the device, not omitting the grand old motto from Algernon Sidney.

Dante students in this country will be interested to learn that the *Harvard University Bulletin*, No. 31, contains the beginning of a list of the Dante collections at Harvard and in the Boston Public Library, with additional titles from the private collections of Professor C. E. Norton and the late George Ticknor. The present instalment ends with No. 242. Special attention is given to portraits.

No issue without a novelty appears to be the present motto of *Science*. The current number (May 15) contains a map of the territory to be reserved about Niagara Falls by the new Commissioners. Appropriate articles on the Falls accompany the map.

The inventive editors of *Mélusine*, whose task seems like that of professional fun-makers, open a new department in their issues of May 5, 20: "Béotiana." The stupidities narrated in short stories are duly labelled with the names of the places to which they are attributed, though several localities often contest the honor, showing that we are dealing with "old Joes." So it may or may not have been an inhabitant of Bourg-Saint-Andéol in the Ardèche who, when the enemy approached, crept into his oven with his spurs on. As these pricked him from behind, he cried out: "Don't kill me; I tell you I surrender."

An illustrated lexicon of Africa about to be published in Leipzig is another proof of the German interest in that continent. It will aim to give an account of all the more important works on Africa, both ancient and modern, together with the various explorations of the country, as well as the character of the climate, the soil, the fauna and flora, the productions and commerce of the different sections.

The mystery which for several months hung over the fate of the German exploring expedition in east-central Africa, under the lead of Doctor Böhm and Paul Reichard, has been dispelled by a telegram from the traveller Rohlfs, now German Imperial Consul-General at Zanzibar. It refers to Reichard, to whose relatives in Wiesbaden it was sent: "Everything lost; narrowly escaped death; Böhm dead; credit Zanzibar 9,000 marks, comes June, authorizes Rohlfs." The presumption is that the expedition, on its return to the coast, was attacked and overpowered by savage tribes, Reichard alone saving himself by flight, and now waiting in Zanzibar for the necessary means to effect his return to Germany.

The recent acquisitions of the French in West Africa have led the Spanish Government to enlarge its own possessions in those regions. The new territory includes the Sahara border from Cape Bogador on the north to Cape Blanco, a strip of nearly 600 miles of coast-line. On this they have already established six trading stations, and propose to occupy all the points accessible to ships. They have also acquired on the Gulf of Guinea the coast for nearly 150 miles northward from the French possessions on the Gaboon to the Campo, the southern limit of the Cameroons country recently occupied by Germany.

A large folding map of Afghanistan, edited by Gustave Freytag (Vienna: Hartleben; New York: Westermann), is to be recommended as displaying very clearly the disputed territory on the northern border. Moreover, the paper covers have been utilized for giving very pleasing woodcut views of Kabul, Kandahar, the Bolan Pass, the Soliman Mountains, etc.

The firm of Velhagen & Klasing (Bielefeld and Leipzig) have put their imprint on many popular atlases. The latest that falls under our notice is Prof. G. Droysen's 'Allgemeiner Historischer Handatlas,' of which Part 1 comes to us from the American publishers, B. Westermann & Co. There are to be ten of these parts at 75 cents each, cheap enough when we reckon ninety-six maps to the series. The form is a small folio, allowing in a double page an exceptional scale—24 miles to an inch in the case of Greece, for example, 12 in that of Bœotia and Attica, 54 in the case of Germany in the fourteenth century. This insures an admirable clearness in the lettering, and indeed the execution of these maps is altogether praiseworthy. Numerous specialists have made themselves answerable for their accuracy. Finally, there is an accompanying historical text. Among the numerous side maps are three showing respectively the distribution of Europeans, Chinese, and negroes—the three races, apparently, which are to inherit the earth. A shading of dots in each shows the density of these populations very effectively.

Another of those remarkable pictorial works which have made the house of Grote in Berlin famous, is just beginning to be issued in the usual form of parts. The 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst' (New York: Westermann) is offered as one more strand in the revived feeling of German nationality. The subdivisions in the history are German Architecture, by Dr. Robert Dohme; Sculpture, by Dr. Wilhelm Bode; Painting, by Prof. Dr. Hubert Janitschek; Copper and Wood Engraving, by Dr. Friedrich Lippmann; Art Industry, by Prof. Dr. Julius Lessing. Part 1 gives

a good idea of the wealth of illustration—full-page and in the text; wood-engraving and chromolithograph; facsimile, etc. Of all these modes the quality is the very best, the color work being especially noticeable. The typography is, as usual in German works of this character, faultless.

At a recent Church conference in Paris a very suggestive paper was read on "The Selection of Continental Schools," which the *Guardian* for April 22 publishes in full. The author, an English clergyman of Paris, spoke particularly of the schools of that city for girls, giving as his reason that "where one boy is sent, there are ten or fifteen girls." After saying that if parents would but take proper precautions, they need have no fear about sending their daughters there, he pointed out the dangers to be encountered under the four heads, physical, educational, moral, and spiritual. In the matter of education he admitted there was less risk than in England. "Indeed, the requirements of French law are such that the existence of an utterly sham school is impossible. For instance, no teacher who does not hold a *brevet* can be employed in a school in Paris, whether public or private. The most strict and careful inquiries are made every term, by duly appointed inspectors, into the statistics of every school." On the other points he could not speak so favorably. "The moral tone of a French school is not usually on a level with that of an English school," and the dangers of proselytism in the convent schools, where "the terms are low, the discipline good, opportunities for acquiring a refined French pronunciation excellent, and the Protestant pupils are treated with especial and extreme kindness by the Sisters," are very great.

The *Revue Critique* directs attention to a work shortly to be published at Brussels, which is said to promise most piquant revelations. The title is 'Les Dessous de l'histoire: curiosités judiciaires administratives, politiques et littéraires, recueillies et annotées par J. Horyn de Tranchère.' It is to comprise two volumes of about 450 pages each. The manuscript collections of the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg, in which that institution is especially rich as regards documents relating to the political and literary history of France, have provided the author with a large part of the material contained in the two volumes. Most of the papers are inedited, and the others are very scarce.

The seventeenth annual session of the American Philological Association, to be held in New Haven, will begin on Tuesday, July 7, and not on July 14, as previously announced.

—A correspondent writes us from Arizona:

"Permit me to call your attention to an instance of literary piracy. The story entitled 'The Knight of the Black Forest,' recently concluded in the *Century*, contains an incident—the purchase of pictures by the courier—which has been stolen bodily from a work extensively read some twenty years ago, 'Roba di Roma,' by the sculptor Story."

—As we go to press we learn with sincere regret of the death in London of Mr. Charles Welford, of the firm of Scribner & Welford, of this city. Few members of the American book-trade have been better known — personally in former years, while his home was in this country, and then and since by his letters to the *Bookbuyer*. In the first year of the *Nation's* existence (Nos. 1-37), Mr. Welford conducted the department of "Literary Notes." He was saturated with the love of books and with the knowledge of them, and was one of the most genial and accessible of men. His last visit to this country was, we think, in the summer or early autumn of 1884. His health was then precarious, and warranted fears now realized. He will be greatly missed.

—The second volume is just issued of the eight-volume octavo edition of the complete works of Gustave Flaubert, now in course of publication by Quantin—"édition définitive, revue sur les manuscrits originaux." The publication naturally follows the chronological order of the works: the first volume was 'Madame Bovary' and this is 'Salammbô.' There are a hundred readers of 'Madame Bovary' for one of 'Salammbô,' and as for the succeeding works it is hardly too much to say they will not be read by any one. But these eight handsome volumes are a suitable memorial monument to poor Flaubert, though a just judgment of him must regretfully take into account the futility, so to speak, of his latest writings. His reputation rests on 'Madame Bovary' and 'Salammbô'; the two works are almost equally remarkable, but strongly contrasted in character. In 'Madame Bovary' he drew from his observation and imagination, the book was a part of himself, and he was a part of the book—he was himself physically poisoned, he told M. Taine, by the arsenic Emma Bovary killed herself with, and he forces his reader to taste it too. In 'Salammbô' he drew from his learning and his inventiveness; and the book, the writer, and the reader stand entirely aloof from one another. It is an archæological novel—a forerunner of Ebers—the scene being laid in Carthage in the time of the father of Hannibal. It needs, and is supplied with, five pages of glossary. Sainte-Beuve's long and careful but unsympathetic, though respectful criticism of it is in some measure the final word about it; but it should not be forgotten that, writing to Flaubert just afterward in answer to a letter from him in defence of the book, Sainte-Beuve says: "What I appreciate especially, and what every one will feel, is that elevation of mind and character which makes you take my criticism so simply, and which forces me to esteem you the more. M. Lebrun (of the Academy), a just man, said to me the other day in regard to you, 'Après tout, il sort de là un plus gros monsieur qu'auparavant.' This will be the general and final impression."

—*Multum in parvo* is the motto merited by Schröer's edition of Goethe's Dramatic Works, of which the first two volumes have appeared in Kürschner's German National Library (Stuttgart: Spemann). These are to be followed by four others, also under Schröer's charge. The seventh and final volume is to be "Faust," edited by Düntzer. When we consider the accuracy and profuseness of explanation, and the cheapness of these volumes (only two marks and a half apiece), we congratulate the present generation of readers. How hard it was only twenty years ago to read Goethe understandingly! And now perhaps there is too much of a good thing—texts with line-numbering and foot-notes, long and searching introductions that leave no dark corner in the relations between the author and his works. The first volume contains what the editor calls "confession pieces," viz.: "Die Laune des Verliebten," "Die Mitschuldigen," "Stella," etc.; also, the group of puppet-pieces and satires, *e. g.*, "Satyros," "Götter, Helden, und Wieland," etc. Volume second contains the group of *Singspiele*, operettes, etc., etc. It will be seen, of course, that Schröer's best work is yet to come, with the volumes that will contain "Iphigenie," "Egmont," "Tasso," etc. Each of the two before us has a general introduction and an alphabetical list of words, names, and passages annotated, and each piece has its own introduction. The editor has been at great pains to keep abreast of the rushing tide of Goethe literature, notably in the *Jahrbuch*, and the impression which he makes upon us is that of a very safe guide. The only point in his treatment to which we would seriously object is his sharply-drawn line of division between Romance and Teutonic conceptions of love, in the introduction to "Stella." To Anglo-Americans the line is much less clear than it appears to Schröer. Quite a novelty is the Tiefurt picture (by Krause) illustrating the characters in "Das Neueste von Plundersweilern." The text of the several pieces has been carefully prepared after a collation of the best editions. The spelling is normalized, as far as normalization would not affect pronunciation. In "Stella" the fifth act has both endings, the tragic and the non-tragic, according to the change made by Goethe himself in 1816. In the interpretation of "Satyros," the editor holds with Scherer—but not without considerable qualification—that Herder must have furnished the primary *motif*.

—Despondent classicists need to be reminded at times of the vast amount of capital that is yearly invested in Latin and Greek—of the enormous circulation of the more popular classical authors. Whole libraries are still projected, and, as we write, volume after volume of the Schenkl "Bibliotheca" is coming out in handsome type, and you can have Keller's Horace for a mark. Some years ago an editor of Sallust died, and it was recorded of him that of his popular edition of Sallust several hundred thousands were sold. What if one had the copyright of Cæsar's 'Gallic War'? Think of a corner in Ariovistus! To be sure, men have been found to grumble at the predominance of these military memoirs, but grumbling is in vain. One may make epigrams like the Gauls, but one submits as the Gauls submitted. To the pedant mind Cæsar has one great recommendation, and even those who cannot understand the real point of his narrative can appreciate this one great virtue. Cæsar deserves the praise which he himself bestowed on Terence—he is conspicuously a *puri sermonis amator;* and while few normally constructed schoolboys ever turn back to Cæsar in after years for pleasure, the importance of his diction as the basis of normal Latin is emphasized more and more. We have to wait scores of years for a decent dictionary of a great modern classic, whereas, besides the many respectable dictionaries of Cæsar that we have already, in the last twelvemonth no less than three exhaustive Lexica Cæsariana have been announced—Merguet's, Meusel's, and Menge's. The 'Lexicon Cæsarianum' of Menge and Preuss, the first fascicle of which has reached us (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner; New York: F. W. Christern), is worked out with especial regard to economy of space, and we find in a comparatively small compass a marvellously full statement of phraseological and grammatical usage, of the readings of MSS. and the conjectures of scholars. The mechanical side is up to the highest standard of modern lexicography. It is delightfully easy to find what you want; delightfully easy to refer to it when found. The columns are counted, not the pages, and the lines are all numbered. The minuteness of the statistics may be judged of by the fact that the number of occurrences of all words except the more common particles is registered. For instance, we learn that *animadverto* in one sense occurs only once, in another sense forty-two times. The varying forms, sequences, combinations of the particles are noted in such a way as to catch the eye; and generally the compactness of the arrangement enables the student to see at a glance the class of phenomena he is investigating, whereas greater fulness of quotation might delay the survey of the whole, which is so important. Of etymological disquisition, of antiquarian research, of synonymical discrimination there is nothing, or next to nothing. The book is intended for the grammatical and phraseological specialist.

MARLOWE.—I.

The English Dramatists: The Works of Christopher Marlowe. Edited by A. H. Bullen, M.A. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. 3 vols.

Mr. Bullen is to give us, in handsome print and paper, and well and wisely seen to for the readings, all our dramatists, of about Shakspere's time, who have earned of their after-comers the work and cost of printing. These will not be very many, and all of them will be well worth the having. "Kit" Marlowe, who may with truth be called the first of these, comes first from Mr. Bullen, and is set forth by him with gentle and tender hands. Dramatic poetry, higher up than his, had been but a worthless ooze, or a soiled and muddy trickle. He gave it a new beginning, unlike what had been before, and on another scale.

To come upon a starting-place, or a turning-place, in the life of the race of men, or of our English branch of it, is a great thing. Such a thing it is to find at Hissarlik hauberk, or helm, or shield—"exesa . . . scabra rubigine"—or at Bannockburn some little, crooked, earth-eaten bit of one of the iron calthrops that tumbled the English Edward's horses and horsemen on Scottish soil. So, too, it would be if we could come in upon unfinished work—work on its way to perfectness—of any one such mastering man as Pheidias or Zeuxis. It startles us, this day, to see, in that painting left by one of our American masters but half done, the later and larger figure coming forth, as it were, of its former self. Now, is it not much to find, in its very making, our ten-syllable blank verse—the verse of Shakspere and Milton? This we shall find in Marlowe's plays; and these plays we shall find not unworthy of being read by those even who can feel and understand the sharpness of insight, and strength, and grace, and manifoldness that are in Shakspere and Goethe, and the mirthfulness—rather unkindly, grim, ghastly—of the one; and of the other, frolic, neighborly and of good-fellowship.

Two little lines, most musical, and with a dainty picture in each word, have for generations drawn men's hearts toward Marlowe:

> "By shallow rivers, to whose falls
> Melodious birds sing madrigals."

They are in themselves a full and rounded poem. Shakspere, a little Marlowe's younger, borrowed these, and more, in one of his plays, and Izaak Walton, in his 'Angler,' takes in the whole piece from which they come. Poor Marlowe! Disreputable in life, and worse in death; loathed by all men professing godliness; yet must we think that his heart was not all bad, and we know that he did for our great English tongue good work, and in our tongue did good work too, and that both these works are great and lasting. Until we have well read his plays, and weighed him well, we are looking to find even more in him and them than can be found; and this because we find so much. He was the first English writer of true plays; and as Lucretius, first of Roman writers, made great poetry for his own use, to give philosophy through it to his countrymen, much in the same way, though less, did Marlowe. Besides this work—besides his plays and the verse in which he wrote them, and his easy ten-syllable rhyme, and that one melodious madrigal which all readers of English have loved from boyhood, and besides, through all, his strong and swift imagination—if all this be not enough, there is nothing worthy in the man, or in what he did, to give him hold upon the memory of men. Yet when we say "Poor Marlowe!" as men used to say "Poor Burns!" (and for all the self-same reasons, and for others too), we say it with the assured feeling that Marlowe, though nothing like so great as Burns, is great enough to take and stand by what belongs to him in fair and equal weighing, though his bad weigh heavily. He has, at the same time, as one feels sure, enough of manhood to need and crave, if he could speak, some good and kindly thought from fellow-men, and has, as poet—and even as man—good right to it.

Marlowe could never claim, like Burns, to have held fast to, and carried safely through whatever filthiness of drinking and debauchery, a great deal of the best manliness of this human nature that we all are made in, and in which we feel each other, and take from one another the push of thought and feeling. He cannot claim, like Burns, to have used whatever he had of that best manliness for the good of the rest of men, and to have given to it melodious utterance for all coming time. Marlowe had not so large possession in the great faculties and great feelings of humanity. Then that true pitch of our frame, in which fun of the higher and finer sort, or of the broader and heartier sort, but, in whatever sort, true fun (that merriness of the happy fitting together of our being) shows itself so readily in liking and in kindly laughter, and in which, as readily, fellow-feeling, sorrow-sharing, shows itself in loving tears and tears of hurt and wrong—was almost wanting in him. From Burns the fun and fellow-feeling were running over on all sides, and at all times almost—sad, serious, and merry, all at once.

Yet feeling, strong and fine, was not wanting in Marlowe. This his "Tragicall History of Doctor Faustus" shows, in *Faustus* and in the scholars and others, beyond all gainsaying. So, too, the episode of *Olympia*, in "Tamburlaine," and *Zenocrate*, and better (though there is too little of her) *Abigail*, the Jew's daughter—these all show the respect which he could understand and, we may hope, feel for what in woman is lovely and becoming; and nothing witnesses more strongly than this that the finer and better nature was somewhere in this poet, at least at some times. If he has few women in his plays, and if his writing is very far from free from a bad taint, which the times unhappily allowed, he does not riot in the befouling of that better sex whose goodness is our best possession and whose badness is the deadliest bane to men.

Of Marlowe's plays, "Tamburlaine the Great" must have come in upon the English stage as a new thing; and, in spite of faults of its author and in spite of its own faults, it must have come as something wonderful. The play-goers wondered and applauded much, laughed a little, and the play was called for, and crowds went to it, for a hundred nights, before they had had enough of it. So the author wrote a Second Part, very much of a piece with the First. That was the earliest English play that, for the character, and for what was said, and for the way of saying it, was worth the being recalled to the stage, or being remembered; and that play was the first work in which our English blank verse, living, and strong, and large, was used—as noble, sometimes, as any that came later.

When Marlowe was stirred with the great thought of giving to his English fellow-countrymen plays lofty as the old Greek plays, and in becoming language, the huge shape of Timour Lenk—Timour the Limper—stalking over some thousand leagues of the world, this way and that, and overcoming all the Eastern lands, almost, caught the player-poet's eye. That Timour had been, in his flesh and blood and whatever else helped to his making, a man of boundless ambition, of very great power over men, of wondrous quickness in gathering hosts, and strength in holding them together, of most uncommon skill in planning, and downright might in doing in leaguer and field of battle. Killing, breaking-down, laying waste—the man was, for hardness of head, hard-heartedness, hardness and heaviness of hand, worse, if anything, and on a vastly larger scale, than Horace's Achilles, in ruthless wrong and cruelty: "Impiger, iracundus, inexorabilis, acer, Jura neg[a]t sibi nata, nihil non arrog[a]t armis." Timour Lenk, therefore—to Englishmen, "Tamburlaine"—such as he was, and with crowds of kings becrowned and bedizened with purple and crimson and satin and velvet, and fettered, withal, walking before and behind him, and sometimes harnessed, by relays, and under the whip, to his triumphal car, Marlowe took. This was an heroic figure for a great play of five acts, for speech of a new sort, on a new scale; and gave chances for shows upon the stage, to catch and refresh those who wearied of much speech better than their wonted talk. His hope and plan the poet sets forth thus, in the Prologue:

> "We'll lead you to the stately tent of war,
> Where you shall hear the Scythian Tamburlaine
> Threatening the world in high astounding terms";

and he meant to lead away

> "From jigging strains of rhyming mother-wits
> And such conceits as clownage keeps in pay."

In this he succeeded, and so well as to make all those of our own tongue who love work of imagination and verse, good and fitting, from that time downward, debtors to him.

In these two plays—the First and Second Parts of "Tamburlaine the Great"—the love in our hearts, it is true, is scarcely touched: the higher and finer feelings are seldom, if they are ever, called out; it would be hard to find a lofty, noble, or kindly sentiment from the beginning to the end of them. If one is interested, it is not that one likes the hero or any single one of the other men in them. By way of relief to the throng of men, and those mostly Scythians, Persians, Turks, doing nothing else than quarrelling, fighting, and bragging, one woman, *Zenocrate*, is carried through a play and a-half, and, though not strongly drawn, lightens the action and makes all less unkindly. *Olympia*, taken suddenly into the Second Part, after *Zenocrate's* death, and not too suddenly killed off out of it, is well drawn, though not new, and helps to the same end. Plautus's "Captivi," without a woman in it, is interesting throughout, for there is nobleness and faith and trustiness even to death, and the plot unfolds itself with beautiful exactness. In neither part of "Tamburlaine" is there anything that we can call plot, and the heroic barbarians would be insufferably tiresome to us, without at least so much of a gentler element brought in as these women bring.

For others, such as they are (not much to our liking), *Tamburlaine* is strongly drawn, for what the author meant him, and is kept to his level always; and the generals, emperors, kings, and the rest are of the same stuff, cut to slightly different patterns, and of somewhat different sizes. The tongue that they speak is much the same for all, and all are so filled, to their very tongue-tips, with classical mythology (of all things in the world) that we cannot but wonder after the methods of the schools where these stalking barbarian slaughterers were made so glib in this smattering of scholarship. Acheron and Phlegethon and Styx and Erebus and Tartarus and Tantalus and the ugly Ferryman, and the Fatal Sisters and Jove and Janus and Cupid, Apollo, Cynthia, Juno, Bellona, Troy, Tenedos, Phœbus, Corinna, Lesbia, Boreas, Boötes, Hermes, prolocutor of the gods, come out of the mouths of any of them as readily as day and night and rain and sunshine. Marlowe, if not a very accurately learned man, had taken his bachelor's and master's degrees in arts, at Cambridge, and knew enough to put into English, out of Latin, a great deal that he might better have left where it was when he found it.

The "Tragicall History of Doctor Faustus," of

which Goethe, who owed it nothing, spoke highly, has certainly not a little in it that ought to live; and *Faustus*, though steadily kept down to the level of the vulgar, legendary, and though not so strong or interesting as Goethe's *Faust*, is less hard to like or to forgive than *Faust*. The upheaving, wrenching, twisting, squeezing strength of Goethe in "Faust," the uncouthness, or the rugged homeliness of words; the loftiness, the floating grace, the witchery of melody; the pitiable weakness, the hopeless sadness, the flash of wit, the human heart set down bare before us, and showing all its working to our eyes; the never-wearying changefulness of the measure—of all these, little in the same kind, perhaps, is to be found in Marlowe's "Faustus"; but there is what will touch the heart and leave it better. There is enough to show that this author was not all bad, or always bad.

"Edward the Second" might have been called "The Tragedie of Piers Gaveston," and has several characters—as *Gaveston*, the *Queen*, and the *King*—well discriminated and well kept up (although the last is often over-drawn); but as the chief character is one that we do not like to think of or know about, and there is not one noble scene or person in the play, it could not be great, nor could it hold a good place in our liking or our memory. The better kingliness that comes upon *Edward* in wretchedness, and in meeting death, is well done, being done by one who had a real share of the true insight.

"The Jew of Malta" has some strong character-drawing and good scenes, and it has, unhappily, some absurd and preposterous character-drawing and scenes. The Turkish *Admiral* and *Abigail*, the Jew's daughter, are admirable, as far as they go, but are each cut clean out of the play after a short life in it. "The Massacre of Paris" has some pretty sharp and clever work to have gone with stronger and better, but was never filled out to full proportions of a play. "The Tragedy of Dido, Queen of Carthage," shows some beautiful passages and some very bad things—bad even for pagans. It cannot, for a moment, stand, as a poem, beside Virgil's account of Dido's tragedy, and wants a good deal to make it into a substantial play. The bad parts do not in any way help, nor were they in any way needed. Not one of all these that we have run over is without strength or beauty, more or less.

RECENT NOVELS.

Trajan. By Henry F. Keenan. Cassell & Co.

Miss Brown. By Vernon Lee. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Matt: a Tale of a Caravan. By Robert Buchanan. D. Appleton & Co.

Pilot Fortune. By M. C. L. Reeves and Emily Read. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Carpet Knight. By Harford Flemming. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Roslyn's Fortune. By Christian Reid. D. Appleton & Co.

Stories by American Authors. Vol. X. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Die Sebalds. Roman aus der Gegenwart. Von Wilhelm Jordan. Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1885.

"She'll vish there was more, and that's the great art o' letter writin'," replied Sam to the elder Weller's objection to the "raythersudden pull-up" of the valentine. It is a pity that the author of 'Trajan' should not have made Sam's maxim his own, and extended its application to the art of novel-writing. Not that all exhaustive novels are bad, nor all brief novels good, but here is a very fair one almost buried out of sight by an accumulation of worthless superfluity. Most conspicuously destructive of the narrative are the moral, social, and philosophical asides, elaborately Latinized commonplaces. Next, and more actively disagreeable, is the running accompaniment of criticism, favorable, disparaging, explanatory. It is as if the author were always saying, as he often does say in substance: "Ladies and gentlemen, here you may think my hero a fool: I have not so drawn him unaware; here you probably do not appreciate the splendor of his achievements: let me make it plain to your dull wits." Apropos of similar interruptions of narrative, Fielding announced: "I intend to digress throughout this whole history as often as I see occasion, of which I am a better judge than any pitiful critic whatever." Thackeray, too, was prone to such diversions. There can be no sort of doubt that Mr. Keenan has studied these authors to his advantage; but, in the matter of permissible digression, they have led him into error. One may speculate, if a person of endless leisure, whether Fielding and Thackeray would have been greater as novelists had they preached and criticised less; but there is no question about Mr. Keenan. He has a talent for writing romantic fiction; he can construct a plot, conceive rather brilliant and original characters, and carry them successfully through severe trials; he commands a wealth of picturesque and poetical expression. But his reflections only serve to annoy the average reader, who could reflect just as profoundly, if he wanted to, without assistance; his criticisms, as it is seen, only deprive the critics of the luxury of praise and force them to the ungracious task of censure.

There are other reasons still which check our desire for more from the author of 'Trajan.' Everything is in excess—incident, characterization, dialogue. For such extravagance, the scene, Paris, the time, the last year of the Second Empire, offer temptation, if not excuse. In life there and then a man may have been thrust into an exciting situation every day; he may have experienced wild and novel emotions every hour; but it is the business of the novelist to select those which develop his characters and lead up to his climax, and to reject all others. Mr. Keenan's disregard of this elementary canon amounts to contempt. He exhausts ingenuity and bewilders the reader in providing occasions for the display of his sentimental hero's daring and chivalry in love and war. Not content with a dozen situations, strong, effective, and dramatic, he persists in upsetting gravity by such overwrought melodrama as Trajan's adventure with two damsels, one coward knight, and a millionaire's bull. He is not satisfied with what portrays Trajan as a clever and ardent young man, with much spirit, tenderness, and courage; he converts him at times into a travesty of Galahad. In the same way he overweights the portraiture of Miss Theo Carnot, who is the most distinctly and consistently drawn of any of the host marshalled through the pages. It is perhaps not possible that a woman so brilliant and unscrupulous could have stopped short of depravity. But even if it be at the expense of actuality, it is to be scored to the author's credit that he has excited the liveliest contempt for this person, without resorting to the conventional and popular method of holding a woman up to contumely. And though he exposes unsparingly the rottenness beneath the glitter of Napoleon's court, the book is clean and healthy from first to last; it is quite free from the offensiveness of a mind that confounds knowledge of the world with knowledge of its sin alone.

By contrast the novel 'Miss Brown' seems to be founded on this common misapprehension of the phrase, "to know the world." Vernon Lee is a clever, bold, and brilliant writer, who has successfully rid herself of the trammels of sex in literature. Unfortunately she has not the taste and discretion which command her to stop. She is a trifle too bold; like many of her characters, whom, professing to scorn, she drains the language to describe, she is just a little too advanced and fleshly. We are inclined to believe that her study of mediæval and seventeenth-century manners has led her to exaggerate the importance and interest of the personal debauchery of a limited class, and that eventually she will rise to a clear perception of its relative position in the history of human life and of the value of higher things. We have to do, however, with what she now is, and not with what she may be. Her novel is for the most part an elaborate and mirthless caricature of a phase of social life which, as far as it exists or ever has existed, is itself a caricature of an idea. The notoriety of that inconsiderable portion of London society denominated æsthetic has been won by its intellectual affectation, frivolity, and uncleanness. Whatever may be the reason, none but a profound and gentle humorist can write of such a group without making the uncleanness most prominent. Vernon Lee is not profound, she is not gentle, she is before all things not a humorist. She is hard, cold, clear-headed. The contaminating influence upon her mind of the group she has chosen to write about is shown by her minute analysis of its puerilities and viciousness, by the absence in her novel of one touch of tenderness or pathos or heartfelt sympathy with simple, kindly impulses.

Anne Brown unquestionably embodies her ideas of moral strength and beauty in woman, and there is no fault to be found with the strength at least of the presentation until we come to the last act in the drama. She is of the people, the child of a Scotch father and an Italian mother. She is introduced as nursery-maid in the shiftless household of an English artist living in Italy. Here she is informally adopted by another artist, Hamlin. His immediate intention is to educate the girl; his remote dream, to marry her. Hamlin is at this period an attractive though jaded person, and Anne accepts his guardianship in preference to that of an unmannerly but upright Scotch cousin. Her voluntary choice is important, since it destroys the argument that she was indebted to Hamlin for her only chance to rise from servitude, "to gain a soul." Education develops in her much shrewdness and positiveness as well as soul, and very soon she comes to despise the soft-sighing, lying artist and poet spirits by whom she is in due time surrounded. Concomitant with the process of her elevation is that of Hamlin's degradation. The change in him is unexpected and arbitrary, since he is subjected to no influences novel enough or powerful enough to convert a sufficiently lovable young man into a detestable one. Yet, when the author has circumstantially proved him to be a monster, when Anne has got so far as to recognize that he is "wholly without moral nerves or moral muscle," the girl is permitted to marry him on the plea of gratitude for past favors.

This silly and hackneyed dénouement has more significance than when employed by the unemancipated woman novelist. It is utterly trivial to say, as has been said, that the author has meant only to present a debatable question. No discussion is possible, nor is it probable that the author had any design beyond finishing her story in the way seeming to her most fitting. There is nothing to comment on but her weakness and blindness in finding it most fitting. Every novelist worthy of the name is felt to be writing up to some strong conception of beauty and excellence. The standards in social ethics erected

by able novelists perceptibly influence the standards which many people, especially women, think they erect for themselves. Therefore, when so convincing a writer creates such an intolerable situation and condones if she does not admire it, she does a very foolish thing, bad in itself, worse in its possible indirect effect. It is a little ludicrous, too, when we recall in her 'Countess of Albany' the emphatic disapproval of the law which may bind an ignorant young girl for life to a "drunken brute," her pet synonym for the Young Pretender. In language she truckles to propriety even less than in much of her sentiment, and seems to fear that literature and life must suffer disaster should she in any doubtful case prefer the language of the drawing-room to that of the slums. Much of the fiction of the last century was coarse, more of this is vulgar. Heaven forbid that Vernon Lee should have initiated an era of combined coarseness and vulgarity.

'Matt' is a very bright and amusing bit of narrative. It has none of the extravagant scenes and descriptions which are scattered through Mr. Buchanan's longer stories. The pleasant personality of the young artist who goes gipsying in a caravan shines through all his erratic behavior, and Matt, whenever she appears, manages to conduct herself with the cool independence which may naturally belong to a girl who "wasn't born at all, but come ashore." The events of the last chapter are hurried, and the reader has to give up trying to reconcile the very unprincipled Mr. Monk's knowledge that Matt was true heir to all his acres with his ignorance of the existence of the fatal prayer-book and the marriage lines. The puzzle, however, is not so annoying as to detract from the pleasure of a story told directly and frankly for the story's sake.

Another pretty but more ambitious and less self-contained story than 'Matt' is 'Pilot Fortune.' The scene is laid on Bryer Island, which is little more than a sea-beaten rock near the entrance to the Bay of Fundy. The scenery of the Nova Scotian shore, and the morning, noon, and night aspects of ocean and sky are overwritten; but, nevertheless, there are descriptive passages of marked freshness and spirit. The people of the history, excepting the hero, are not natives of the island. He does not talk dialect, or chew tobacco perpetually, or live in his weather-worn sou'wester, or indeed indulge in any of the unpleasant habits which story-tellers would have us believe are inseparable from a native of a fishing village. Stephen Ferguson's English, manners, and clothes are good; he is manly, honest, and refined, and we wish the author had told us how he came to Bryer Island, and still further why he stayed there. If it is hardly probable that a New York man of leisure should desire to marry a girl whose face was her fortune, whose only visible relative was a cross old woman living alone on a windy hill, and should ask not a question about her antecedents, it is not too improbable for purposes of romance. But such rashness is not consistent with his conventional dismay when accident reveals the history of Milicent's father. His unhappy certainty that she will be recognized in the world as a notorious criminal's daughter, and scorned and flouted because of forgery committed by her father nearly a score of years gone by, is very weak and a little droll. It implies in the author an exaggeration of the world's stern virtues and a depreciation of its generosity. The character of Milicent, like that of Urquhart, is not a logical conception, but it has abundant grace, and the scene in which she sends away her half-hearted lover is strikingly delicate and expressive. Miss Ursula's recognition of her old lover in Urquhart's guardian, Raymond, is a disfiguring episode. It is not necessary to the plot, and is a cheap trick, marring the general effect of sincerity and simplicity.

It is very easy for a critic to say decidedly, "half the novels that are printed have absolutely no reason for existence"; but if he be honest and patient, he must generally concede that the author worked with some definite end in view. In two novels, 'The Carpet Knight' and 'Roslyn's Fortune,' not a trace of rational purpose is discoverable. They are not alike at all, except in their inanity. 'The Carpet Knight' is made up of chatter: to call it conversation were profanity. This chatter is pretty evenly distributed among a dozen or so of people who live in Philadelphia, and one or two who go over there occasionally from Boston and New Rochelle, whence they were doubtless temporarily exiled by neighbors having a share of that irascibility which accompanies moderate intelligence. It is barely possible that the author had an inspiring idea—no other than to sing again the joys and splendors of the "Assembly," a sacred institution for which, as is well known in polite circles, Philadelphia exists. When will that bard arise bold enough and strong enough to recite the woes of the Philadelphian Peri against whom the gates of the Philadelphian Paradise must ever remain closed?

For 'Roslyn's Fortune' no such plausible excuse can be raked up. It is a Southern story with a lame plot, which might end any way, or might just as well not end at all. The characters and descriptions would fit into several of the author's former novels, or indeed into almost any of the volumes of sentimental, diffuse fiction which have appeared in the last quarter of a century. They are the work of benevolent, half-awake women, prone to piety and twaddle. If they could be suppressed, it would be an act of mercy to the weak girls who read them, and whose light mental equipment is damaged by the false notions derived from them of any kind or condition of life.

The tenth volume of "Scribner's Short Stories" completes the series. "Young Moll's Peevy," by C. A. Stephens, and "A Daring Fiction," by H. H. Boyesen, are the best of the number, and among the best of the whole collection. The first is a swift, vividly told tragedy, and in the second Mr. Boyesen makes the most of a farcical situation. "The Ablest Man in the World," by E. P. Mitchell, is cleverly written, but the impossibility of the incident is so obtrusive as to detract from thorough enjoyment. If there is any reason for preserving such a composition as "Manmat'ha," it must be to show what may be done in the way of combining sentences, quite intelligible in themselves, so as to make a chapter of meaningless nonsense. If that is the object, it could not have been more successfully accomplished.

Just why an elderly poet and antiquarian, who had won a fair reputation in both these fields, should take it into his head to write a contemporary novel, it would be hard to guess. Yet this is what Mr. W. Jordan has done, with such results as his worst enemy could hardly have wished. The book has no plot, and the incidents are either preposterous or of threadbare familiarity. Such defects, indeed, are not fatal, for many novels are entertaining in spite of them, but Mr. Jordan's novel is like the "jumping frog"—however lively it *might* have been, so many religious and anti-religious discussions have been crammed into it as to overpower the sprightliest legs. Yet the plan of the book is so curious as to excite a certain interest, in spite of its absurdity and the terrible amount of extraneous matter in the way of its development. The hero is a Protestant clergyman, and that the reader may understand how intense is his sectarian feeling, the family history is given in detail from the time of the ancestor who stood by Luther's side when he nailed his thesis on the church door, since which date the head of the family had always been a clergyman. At the time of the Thirty Years' War, however, a branch had acquired wealth and rank by apostasy to the true Church, a change involving a social breach which had never healed. To emphasize the contrast, the only child of the head of the Catholic branch is made as bigoted and superstitious as a woman can be. The ingredients for the first experiment having been thus prepared, they are brought together by a meeting of the young people in a wild part of Switzerland, where the lady opportunely falls into the crevasse of a glacier, to be rescued, of course, by her heretic kinsman, and at the same time to be possessed by a semi-religious passion for him. But after exchanging vows they separate, and the girl goes with her father on a business journey to the United States.

Here she falls in with the first lover's brother, who is an astronomer and geologist of great profundity, but at the same time a prudent accumulator of dollars, of which he has already acquired a large store. His opinions are as much in advance of the parson's as the latter's were ahead of the young lady's, he being, in fact, an evolutionary materialist. Her admiration for him is naturally in proportion to the heterodoxy of his views, and as he is able to match the glacier scene with a rescue from a sinking steamer, the honors are easy. The clergyman, meantime, is rapidly catching up with his brother's opinions, and a beautiful and enormously rich Jewess is converted by his eloquence, while his professional career is ruined by an intrigue in which oily Jesuits and clumsy pietists have an equal share. The absurdity of the closing chapters is so great that were it not that there has hitherto been not a sign of humor in the book, one would suppose the author had intended the whole as a burlesque. Thus, the relatives of the two young women accept their changed views without the least hesitation; but as no priest will bless their union, they marry themselves after the manner of the ancient Germans.

BERLIOZ.

Autobiography of Hector Berlioz, from 1803 to 1865. Comprising his Travels in Italy, Germany, Russia, and England. Translated by Rachel Holmes and Eleanor Holmes. 2 vols. Macmillan.

For amateurs of music, Berlioz's Autobiography is beyond question the most fascinating book ever written; and even those who have but a vague notion of this art, may read it with keen interest. Vivid descriptions of travels and romantic adventures, spicy dialogues, incisive criticisms, an irony as subtle and charming as Heine's, suggestive remarks on musical æsthetics and on the art of instrumentation, reminiscences of contemporary artists and men of letters, glimpses of Bohemian life and the thoughts and emotions of an impulsive genius—all this and much more may be found in these memoirs. Indeed, it seems unquestionable at the present date that in the estimation of posterity Berlioz will rank much higher as a writer than as a composer. While no one can help admiring the brilliantly colored garb in which he has clothed his musical scores, it is now generally admitted that his ideas are too few and that he lacked the gift of spontaneous conception. His criticism, rather than his musical works, helped to secure for instrumental music in France a general attention which was not previously accorded it. His services in France in promoting the understanding of Gluck, Weber, and especially Beethoven were great; and by his tirades against the sensuous and flimsy Italian music of the day, and the exclusive prima-donna

worship (at the expense of the composer and his ideals) based upon it, he achieved for France what Wagner did for Germany, though not so effectively, as he had not the advantage of Wagner's creative powers to enforce his views. His boldness, both literary and musical, provoked much hostile criticism among his colleagues; and, though he made it a rule never to answer adverse criticism, every sting he received served as an electric shock, stimulating his wit, sarcasm, and eloquence. The verbatim accounts he gives of his critical duels with Cherubini, Boieldieu, and others are exquisite specimens of repartee and stratagem. He was especially severe on old fogies, like Fétis, who allowed themselves to mutilate the scores of Beethoven and other masters in order to bring them into harmony with their own notions of the theory of music. As long as leading composers indulged in such vicious practices, it was not to be wondered at that orchestral players and opera singers embellished the simple melodies of the composers in a way which often drove Berlioz to the verge of insanity.

The most puzzling fact concerning Berlioz's literary labors is that by his own testimony they were exceedingly irksome to him. "I have to return to the charge eight or ten times before I can finish an article for the *Journal des Débats*," he says, "and it takes me quite two days to write one, even when I like the subject and am interested by it. And then, what erasures and what scrawls! You should see my first copy. Musical composition comes natural to me, and is a delight; but prose-writing is a labor." Yet it is a psychological axiom that an author can give pleasure only by what he writes with pleasure; why, then, do we enjoy reading Berlioz's articles? Perhaps the puzzle can be solved in this way. The labor which he found so irksome was the writing of fugitive critical notices, in which he was compelled to veil his real opinions under vague eulogistic phrases, when he felt more like raving against the commonplaces and imbecilities he was compelled to listen to. This view is borne out by the confessions he makes in volume i, page 300: "And yet what wretched circumspection am I not forced to use! What circumlocution to evade the expression of the truth! What concessions to social relations and even to public opinion, what suppressed rage, what gulps of shame." And again, volume ii, p. 155: "But everlastingly to write *feuilletons* for one's bread—to write nothings about nothings—to bestow lukewarm praises on insupportable insipidities—to speak one day of a great master and the next of an idiot, with the same gravity, in the same language!" etc.

Whatever may have been true regarding his *feuilletons*, his Autobiography certainly was written *con amore*; for here he takes no pains to hide his opinions, and often "writes with a dagger instead of a pen." He had a passion for travelling which is not common to his countrymen; and having secured the Grand Prix de Rome, he was enabled to gratify this passion at an early age. The story of his adventures and experiences in Italy constitutes the most interesting part of the memoirs; but his remarks on music in Italy are calculated to astonish those who still cling to the peculiar notion that the Italians are the most musical nation in the world. Berlioz, on the contrary, says:

"I am much inclined to regard them as more inaccessible to the poetical side of art, and to any conception at all above the common, than any other European nation. . . . Now, we French, mean and contemptible musicians as we are, although we are no better than the Italians when we furiously applaud a trill or a chromatic scale by the last new singer, and miss altogether the beauty of some grand recitative or animated chorus, yet at least we can listen, and if we do not take in a composer's ideas it is not our fault. Beyond the Alps, on the contrary, people behave in a manner so humiliating, both to art and to artists, whenever any representation is going on, that I confess I would as soon sell pepper and spice at a grocer's in the Rue St.-Denis as write an opera for the Italians—nay, I would sooner do it."

At Milan he went to hear Donizetti's "L'Elisir d'Amore," and found the theatre full of people talking at the top of their voices, with their backs to the stage; the singers all the while shouting and gesticulating in eager rivalry. He speaks of the "anti-musical atmosphere" of Rome; and found that instrumental music had hardly any existence, the words symphony and overture being used in Rome "to designate *a certain noise* which the orchestra makes before the curtain rises, and to which no one ever listens." Finally, we may cite his clever hit at church and dramatic music: "I have often heard the overture of the 'Barbiere,' 'Cenerentola,' and 'Otello' in church. They seemed to be special favorites with the organists, and formed an agreeable seasoning to the service. The music in the theatres is in much the same glorious condition, and is as *dramatic* as that of the churches is *religious*." Matters have not greatly altered in these respects since Berlioz wrote these words, although a breath of fresh air is at present coming down from the north.

The criticisms just quoted show that, although it may be incorrect to speak of a "Wagner-Berlioz school" in a musical sense, the phrase is correct in a polemic sense. With Schumann they both abhorred the "self-evident" character of Italian melody, the monotony of its rhythms, and the worship of mechanical, ignorant, applause-seeking vocalists. Two other points of resemblance between Berlioz and Wagner are that both had a great power of literary expression, and that Berlioz, like Wagner, wrote some of his own texts. In their instrumentation they approach each other rather in the great command of technics each exhibits than by any similarity of results. Berlioz gives some interesting hints as to how he acquired his great skill in treating the orchestra. He carefully studied the scores of Beethoven, Weber, Spontini; when he went to the opera, he took along the score, and read it during the performance, and he used to ask artists at the Opéra to make experiments for him when he was in doubt. It was thus that he was led to perceive the "subtle connection which exists between musical expression and the special art of instrumentation; but no one ever pointed this out to me." It is curious to note here a difference of opinion between the two greatest masters of instrumentation the world has seen, regarding the relative value of vocal and instrumental sounds for securing variety of effect. Berlioz asserts (volume ii, 116) "that one wearies of this fine sonorousness [of vocal bodies] far more quickly than of that of the orchestra, the *timbre* of voices being less varied than that of instruments. This is easily understood: there are only four kinds of voices, while the number of instruments is upward of thirty." Wagner, on the other hand, asserts ('Gesammelte Schriften,' vol. iv, p. 209) that the vocal organ is capable of assuming an infinite variety of tone qualities, in comparison with which "the utmost possible variety in the mixtures of orchestral clang-tints must seem paltry."

The translation of the present volumes is on the whole clear and readable. The footnotes and comments which the translators have taken the liberty to insert, are generally silly and always uncalled for. They should be omitted in subsequent editions, and a good index introduced in their place.

West African Islands. By A. B. Ellis. London: Chapman & Hall. 1885. Pp. viii, 352. 8vo.

Major Ellis has taken advantage of the new interest in West Africa which the colonization schemes of the various European Powers has awakened, to describe the principal islands that lie along the coast. He writes from a personal knowledge gained through numerous voyages, and gives, together with a few of the important historical events connected with each island visited, an account of its physical features, its inhabitants, and the chief points of interest to the traveller. His opening chapter is devoted to St. Helena, of which he has little new to say, and from thence he follows the coast northward as far as Madeira. Ascension, the island lying nearest to St. Helena, by a peculiar fiction of the British Admiralty, to whom it belongs, "is called a ship, and is enrolled in the list of ships in commission under the title of 'the tender to H. M. S. *Flora*.'" It is, in fact, simply a sanitarium for seamen, though why it should have been chosen for such a purpose it is hard to say, since it is utterly barren, producing nothing but turtles, with no water supply and without a safe harbor. It seems to have a more prosperous future, however, before it, as the volcanic rock of which it is composed is rapidly decaying and a rich soil is being formed, the cultivation of which will completely change the whole aspect of the island. Curiously enough, while this process of decomposition is going on, the limestone rock is being formed on the sandy beaches so rapidly that turtles' eggs are cemented into it, according to the popular belief, "before the sun has time to hatch them." Much more attractive than this desolate spot is the island of Fernando Po, which lies just off the delta of the Niger. Clothed with magnificent forests, and having a soil so wonderfully fertile that "the cocoa is said to pay here a year sooner than elsewhere," its great natural and commercial resources remain undeveloped under the rule of the Spaniards, who seem to use it "principally as a place of exile for political prisoners." The island is crowned by Clarence Peak, 10,190 feet high, while from the water's edge on the mainland, nineteen miles distant, the Cameroons Peak rises 13,760 feet, making for one who sails between them a scene of unrivalled beauty. There is little of interest in the next group of islands described, the Isles de Los, and the author takes advantage of this to give at length his views on the missionary work among the Africans, which in his opinion is worse than useless. For a similar reason, his chapters on the Cape Verde Islands are chiefly filled with personal adventures, which we have not found entertaining.

A mile from the promontory of Cape Verde is a black basaltic rock, 300 feet high, three-quarters of a mile long, and a quarter of a mile broad in the widest part, every available portion of which is covered with houses and fortifications. These are inhabited by a motley throng of 3,000 Europeans, Arabs, Mandingos, "tall and stately Jolloffs (the only really black race in West Africa)," and negroes from Sierra Leone. This island, Goree, was originally occupied by the Dutch as a trading station when it was dangerous to form a settlement on the mainland, but has now been held for many years by the French for the same purpose. With the more pacific attitude of the natives, however, the reason for its maintenance has disappeared, and the new settlement of Dacar on the opposite shore will probably soon absorb the business of Goree, especially as the latter possesses neither harbor nor safe anchorage. At this point Major Ellis utters a note of warning in regard to the great increase of French influence in these parts within the last few years. He be-

lieves, and certainly recent facts would seem to justify his conviction, that their object is "to form a vast African colony extending from Algeria on the north to the peninsula of Sierra Leone on the south." With their advance the British influence and trade decline. This may have very serious consequences to English industries, for this part of West Africa is an open country, penetrated by numerous navigable rivers, and inhabited by intelligent tribes who can read and write Arabic and work in metals, and with whom trade will probably prove very profitable.

The Canary Islands have a greater interest than any of the others on this coast. Their history contains more striking and romantic episodes. The chief town, Las Palmas, possesses some good buildings, including a fine cathedral, a theatre, and a Palace of Justice. The inhabitants, too, are industrious, and under any other rule than the Spanish, except the Portuguese, would probably greatly increase the productions of the islands, as "the climate is so equable that both the fruits of the temperate and torrid zones arrive at great perfection, the oranges of Grand Canary being particularly good." On Teneriffe the prickly pear is cultivated for the sake of the cochineal insect, and in the spring of the year each leaf has to be swathed in linen to prevent the insect from being blown off by the wind or washed off by the rain. Terrace gardens are numerous, the soil being brought on the backs of camels from the interior. A chapter is devoted to an account of the ascent of the Peak of Teneriffe, a climb not unattended with danger, and, of course, the miraculous island, St. Brandan, has due attention. Major Ellis quotes from the affidavits of the islanders who have been privileged to see it. A Franciscan monk, for instance, deposes that the outline "appeared to him to be marvellously like unto the head and shoulders of the blessed St. Anthony, playing upon a dulcimer." But a fisherman who saw it at the same time says, that "to his more carnal eyes the island assumed the appearance of the head of a mule, playing upon a flute." The closing chapters are upon Madeira, but contain nothing of especial note.

Major Ellis writes easily and pleasantly, and his book is fairly entertaining. We are bound to say, however, that one finds in it a few passages and stories better suited to the mess-table than to the miscellaneous readers of a book of travels. Its value as a book of reference to the numerous places described is seriously diminished by the want of an index.

Russia under the Tzars. By Stepniak, author of 'Underground Russia'; formerly editor of *Zemlia i Volia.* Authorized edition. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885. Also, Harper's Franklin Square Library.

"THE reader who peruses 'Stepniak's' book without partisan bias, is often tempted to doubt the faithfulness of the picture," we said in our review of 'Underground Russia' (*Nation*, No. 945). That temptation is even stronger in reading the book before us. There was "exaggeration and legendary embellishment" in the author's portraits of the heroes and heroines of revolutionary destruction to whose glorification his earlier work was mainly devoted; but such glorification has its natural limits, and the number of the glorified is small. But a tableau of horrors and heartless oppression, the subject of which is as vast as Russia under the heel of autocracy, offers an incomparably wider scope to partisan coloring, and the bias of hatred is more powerful and seductive than the partiality of admiration. And "Stepniak" is a thorough hater. Besides, the new book seems to have been prepared or completed in haste, as if on the demand of a publisher who found the moment particularly favorable for a publication of this character. Under a like stimulus, Marvin's 'The Russians at the Gates of Herat,' as he says, was "written and got out in eight days." To haste in finishing, expanding to fit, translating, and revising may charitably be attributed a good deal of diffuse talk, of unpruned rhetoric, of unpleasant sameness, in "Stepniak's" new sketches —not to speak of the shocking transliterations of Russian names or of the countless misprints.

But exaggeration, pardonable in a combatant; looseness of statement where accuracy would be very desirable, but can unfortunately not be attained; minuteness of detail, on the other hand, in accounts of things and proceedings hidden in the darkness of dungeons and torture-chambers, of Siberian recesses, hyperborean wastes, and penal hulks; unquestioning reliance on the clandestine communications and vague recollections of conspirators and victims, whose scraps of political martyrology are here reshaped and spun out in the style of a novel—these are the features of the book which weaken our estimate of the author's fidelity to historical truth. But, as on the former occasion, we detect "nothing that is much worse"—no intentional perversion of facts, no malicious invention, no inclination to reproduce shocking gossip, no vindictive assaults on individuals. "Stepniak" detests all official Russia alike, and paints everything that partakes of it equally black. He knows no exceptions, no extenuating circumstances. His retrospect over and beyond the whole Romanoff period is as distressingly dismal as his picture of the present. Only in centuries long gone by does he find in Russian history or legend a happy popular life and communal freedom. Of mediæval Novgorod and similar communities, with their supreme *vetches* (popular assemblies) and subordinate princeships, he talks with uncritical fondness. That, he thinks, was Russia indeed—as the freedom-loving nature of its people made it. Czardom, as ultimately developed, is a terrible incident and anomaly, "imposed on the nation by outward and accidental causes." Among these he seems to reckon "the clergy, whose bigotry was only exceeded by their ignorance, . . . soiling all they touched, and petrifying everything they pretended to bless"; a nobility that could tolerate all the butcheries and infamies of an Ivan IV.—all his unparalleled "orgies of cruelty, murder, and lust," which "went on for forty years without surcease"—without raising "a single hand . . . either to hinder or avenge"; the absence of a middle class, and the boundless ignorance and superstition of the masses of the people. Add Nihilism, and Russia has in our day reached a stage of helplessness under Czarish repression of which blood-curdling narratives without number can be written without appearing fabulous, and which to a degree justifies outbursts of despondency like the following:

"The despotism of Nicholas crushed full-grown men. The despotism of the two Alexanders did not give them time to grow up. They threw themselves on immature generations, on the grass hardly out of the ground, to devour it all in its tenderness. To what other cause can we look for the desperate sterility of modern Russia in every branch of intellectual work? Our contemporary literature, it is true, boasts of great writers. . . . But these are all men whose active work dates from the period of 1840. . . . The new generation produces nothing, absolutely nothing. Despotism has stricken with sterility the high hopes to which the splendid awakening of the first half of the century gave birth. Mediocrity reigns supreme. We have not a single genius. . . . As it is in letters, so it is in public life. All the leaders of our Zemstvo, modest as are their functions, belong to an older generation. The living forces of later generations have been buried by the Government in Siberian snows and Esquimaux villages. It is worse than the pest. The pest comes and goes; the Government has oppressed the country for twenty years, and may go on oppressing it for who knows how many years longer. The pest kills indiscriminately, but the present *régime* chooses its victims from the flower of the nation, taking all on whom depend its future and its glory. It is not a political party whom they crush, it is a nation of a hundred millions whom they stifle."

Literary Landmarks of London. By Laurence Hutton. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1885.

THIS is a work unlike, so far as we know, any other that has ever been written, and its production is a striking proof of the ever increasing interest that is felt in the commonest details of the lives of illustrious men. It is an effort to fix, with the utmost possible precision, the site of the dwellings in London which have been inhabited by English authors during their residence in that city, or at which they have stayed while making there a temporary sojourn. The names are put down in alphabetical order, the list beginning with Addison and ending with Wycherley. Under each his London residence is given, and its number and condition now; or, if it has disappeared, what has taken its place.

The excellence of such a work as this depends of course mainly upon its completeness and accuracy. The difficulty of securing these cannot well be overestimated. Many of the houses have been pulled down and other buildings put up in their stead. Some streets have been swept away by the ravages of fire or the more dreadful ravages of improvement. Others have changed their names, others still their numbers. This last constitutes the most formidable difficulty in the way of exact identification. "It is easier today," writes Mr. Hutton, with some justifiable asperity, "to discover the house of a man who died two hundred years ago, before streets were numbered at all, than to identify the houses of men who have died within a few years, and since the mania for changing the names and numbers of streets began."

He would be a venturesome critic who, on this side of the Atlantic, should dare dispute an author's statement of facts which have been largely made from personal examination of the places described. The work, indeed, bears throughout abundant evidences of the most conscientious and painstaking labor. Wherever we have been able to test its accuracy on the matters which it professes to treat, it has invariably stood the trial, and it is crowded full of details which will be new to all students interested in the homes and haunts of great men. One or two slight errors we have noted, but as they are not connected with the matter of residence it is unnecessary to mention them. The work will be an invaluable one to all those who visit the English metropolis, and seek to find there the spots which are associated in their minds with the memories of the great writers of our tongue.

Every-Day Life and Every-Day Morals. By George Leonard Chaney. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1885.

THE papers which make up this volume were read last winter, the author tells us, on Sunday evenings, in the Church of Our Father, in Atlanta, Ga. They had their origin in a local difficulty (we believe that since the South was opened to communication with the rest of the world there have been a good many such) over some publicly-exposed pictures, which, as Mr. Chaney says, were considered by some excellent people to be "more injurious to the people's morals than helpful to the people's taste." What these pictures were is not stated, but the consideration of the relation of art to morals led naturally to the consideration of the relations of trade, the press, the stage, the pulpit respectively to morals; and discourses on these topics "fol-

lowed as quickly as a flock of birds settles where one has alighted."

Mr. Chaney's discourses are, like most clerical work of the sort, full of a rhetoric abounding in illustration, trope, and metaphor, used, if we may say so, somewhat too expansively. For instance, to illustrate the truth that "what we see depends on what we are," he first says, "Take the Washington Elm at Cambridge," and then shows what different things the patriot, the antiquarian, the artist, the naturalist, the traveller, the woodman, the butcher, the bird, the cattle, the insects, and the "visiting stranger" see in it. Not content, however, with this, he passes on to consider the similitude between the "heart of man" and a mirror. Let the surface of it, he says, be only a little out of level, or broken by cracks or flaws, and straightway its reflection will be distorted or broken. "A swelling convex surface will make the most beautiful face monstrous. Contrariwise, a retreating concave surface will make the same face petty and ridiculous."

The love of illustration occasionally leads even the best men into error, and, on the whole, it is rather surprising that Mr. Chaney should not, with his exuberant imagination, have more often been led astray. He seldom really wanders from the paths of common sense, but the discourse on "The Stage and Morals" seems to need some revision. "The first actor," says this preacher, "was Satan"—a belief which he rests, not, as some old stagers might, on the general badness of acting at the present day, but simply on the fact that Satan "played the part of the serpent in the Garden of Eden." But this really is a confusion of the boundaries of art and morals against which we must protest. If Satan had given out that at a certain time he would appear in his celebrated rôle of a "practicable" serpent in the garden, his behavior would have been that of an actor; but he did nothing of the kind, and to saddle the stage with the father of evil is not fair. This was a case of wilful and deliberate deception, and has always been treated as such by writers down to Mr. Chaney. The stage he does not quite understand, and he is by no means accurate in describing the plots of "Camille" and "Frou-Frou," neither of which plays he admires.

From Home to Home. Autumn Wanderings in the Northwest in the years 1881, 1882, 1883, 1884. By Alexander Staveley Hill, D. C. L., Q. C., M. P. Orange Judd Co. 1885.

It was only ten years ago that Captain Butler was describing the country along the Saskatchewan and Assiniboine Rivers and their tributaries as the "Great Lone Land" and the "Wild North Land," through which he travelled with dog sledges, and of which he gave us descriptions as of an uninhabited *terra incognita*. To-day Mr. Staveley Hill runs over from England for his autumn vacations, travels by rail almost to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, and then drives about in a wagon, picking out the best ground for a cattle range. Nothing could more strikingly illustrate the progress of the country in this short decade. Butler was nothing if not an explorer, and his books aimed above all to be records of adventure and hardship. Staveley Hill, in four journeys, had no adventure more remarkable than once losing his way in a snow storm; and only once did he see a few retreating buffaloes, sole survivors, apparently, of the mighty herds which in Butler's time blackened the earth as far as the eye could reach. The picturesque features of northwestern travel may therefore be said to have disappeared. It is a pity that Mr. Staveley Hill does not recognize this fact, and spare us the endless pages of tame incidents of his quite uneventful trips—how the whippletrees of his wagon broke; how he caught sight of a wolf, or a deer, or an antelope, and, after a long tramp, returned to camp without getting a shot; how his buggy nearly upset in fording a stream, and so on. In place of this we should like to hear how the emigrants are getting on in their new homes, what the character of the land is, what his views are concerning irrigation and tree planting, and other problems of prairie cultivation. What he has to say on these subjects is very interesting, but makes only a small portion of his book.

His opinion is, that the boom of 1881-'82, followed by the bad harvest of 1883 and the succeeding commercial depression, were very nearly fatal to Manitoba. While its soil is fertile and is offered by the Dominion Government to the settler on equitable terms, yet a certain amount of capital and a great deal of hard work are necessary to insure success to the farmer. For cattle raising he thinks the hills along the base of the mountains, where the cattle can obtain shelter from the blizzards of winter, are well adapted; and he gives a decided preference to the Canadian system of leasing large tracts for cattle ranges, over the American system of "free ranging," which "is producing ruinous consequences in Montana and the other grazing Territories and States of the Union." He gives an entertaining account of the cowboys, and of the annual "round-up" of the cattle; and he makes some very amusing blunders, as in saying that the Falls of St. Anthony are "better known to readers of Longfellow as the Minnehaha"; that Chief Joseph and the Nez-Percés fought in 1878 against "Captain Howard"; and that at an early date the run on the railroad from Winnipeg to Calgary (840 miles) will be made "between sunrise and sunset."

Dictionnaire Historique et Pittoresque du Théâtre et des Arts qui s'y rattachent. Par Arthur Pougin. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: F. W. Christern. 1885. 4to, pp. xv.-775.

M. Pougin takes up alphabetically all the technical words of the theatre, and explains them at length with the aid of cuts and diagrams. He describes historically all the institutions of the French stage—the Opéra, the Opéra-Comique, the Comédie-Française, the Conservatoire, and their fellows. The organization and technology of the drama of the Greeks and Romans, and of their sports of the arena, and public shows in general, are considered in detail. Under the appropriate heads—"Bateleur," "Clercs de la Basoche," "Hotel de Bourgogne," "Jongleurs," etc.—are traced the growth and gradual development of the theatre in France. Special attention is given to books about the stage and to the bibliography of dramatic music. M. Pougin abounds in neatly told anecdotes of theatrical life. He dwells upon stage-devices of all kinds and on the details of costuming, scene-painting, stage-machinery, and stage-management. Much space is devoted to a consideration of the collateral side of show-life—to the circus, the menagerie, puppet-shows, ballet-dancing, public processions, cavalcades, and the like. The accumulation of all these subjects into one volume, not unduly cumbrous, is a boon to the student of the stage.

This dictionary, nevertheless, is not without its defects. Its chief limitation—that it is calculated too exclusively for the meridian of Paris—is common to French books of reference. We must next complain of the illustrations. Though these are fine and very numerous, only a few have been made for the present work, and they are often forced into the text. For example, the dictionary does not give any biographies, and yet portraits of renowned actors and actresses are included by means of all sorts of transparent devices. A nine-line paragraph, setting forth that formerly the first tragic actress was entitled to play all queens, is adorned with a half-page portrait of Mlle. Duchesnois as *Mary Queen of Scots*. Moreover, the artistic quality of the borrowed portraits, mainly well-engraved woodcuts, is unfortunately far higher than that of the illustrations which have been prepared specially for this book, most of which are vague and ill-drawn process-blocks. Exceptionally commendable is a series showing all the separate pieces of scenery used at the Paris Opéra in setting the second act of "Hamlet," followed by a view of the scene as it is set, uniting all these separate pieces and giving any one unfamiliar with the pleasant country behind the scenes, a very good idea of the means of producing a given scenic effect and of the care and elaboration it requires. Among the more amusing illustrations are those reproducing the advertising posters.

In defining two English words, *burlesque* and *clown*, Mr. Pougin apparently confounds the former with the English Christmas pantomime, and gives to the latter the usual French significance of acrobat. For the curious in such things one may draw attention to the ballet-score (p. 167), where the steps of the ballet-dancer are set down in detail, according to a chorographic alphabet given in full.

The Dictionary of English History. Edited by Sidney J. Low, B.A., Lecturer on Modern History in King's College, London; and F. S. Pulling, M.A., late Professor of History in Yorkshire College, Leeds. Cassell & Co.

This volume will undoubtedly be a favorite with historical students. Its aim is to supply, for the ordinary reader of English history, the place of the gazetteer, the dictionary of biography, the law dictionary, and the other books of ready reference that have hitherto been necessary. It is, therefore, highly miscellaneous in character. But the topics are so well selected, and the articles so clear and compact, that the student who keeps the work at his elbow will seldom fail of finding in it help sufficient for his need. Of course it would be idle to expect in one volume an account of every person, every institution, and every event mentioned in English history—together with explanations of all legal and constitutional terms. Many things had to be omitted. In deciding what to insert and what to omit, the editors kept solely in view the probable needs of modern readers—an arbitrary rule, no doubt, but the only one possible in the case. Many matters not thought worthy of separate articles are incidentally treated under other heads. A very fair index of reference for these matters makes it possible to find them readily. Experience will no doubt reveal omissions that had better not have been made. On finer points, and for rare terms, it will always be necessary to consult the larger or special works. But we see no reason why any technical term or the name of any institution mentioned in Hallam should be omitted from a dictionary intended for the general reader. A few—fortunately only a few—are omitted. Also we must regret that no attempt has been made to indicate the pronunciation of proper names, at least in those cases (so unhappily numerous in England) where the spelling is apt to mislead the unwary.

A valuable feature of the work is a very comprehensive list of authorities, contemporary and modern, for each period of British history. In addition to this general list the most important authorities for each topic are named at the end of each article. Lists (with dates) are given of the Archbishops and Lord Chancellors; also a

convenient table of the regnal years of the Kings of England, beginning with William the Conqueror. The work as a whole is characterized by great accuracy.

Selections from Berkeley. By Alexander Campbell Fraser. [Clarendon Press Series.] Oxford.

THESE selections have been prepared for the use of students in the English universities, but there is no reason why they should not be used by many others who are in want of an intellectual gymnastic. There is an admirable introduction which rapidly but successfully sums up the history of philosophy from Bacon to Locke, sets forth the relation of Locke to Berkeley and of both to Hume. There are also many useful notes. The selections are in three principal sets, the first upon "Matter Necessarily Dependent on Mind," the second upon "Visual Phenomena Significant of Mind," and the third upon "The Universe and the Universal Mind." One does not have to read very far into the first series of selections to appreciate how little Dr. Johnson, when he stubbed his toe by way of refuting Berkeley's theory of matter, hurt anything but his toe, or how inevitable it was that Professor Huxley should say that between the idealism of Berkeley and the materialism of Büchner he should be obliged to choose the former. Indeed, the later manifestations of both philosophy and science have gone far in the direction of Berkeley, though they have inclined to posit "a sort of a something" as the basis of our apprehension of the external world. The old answer to the question, "What is matter?" "Never mind," receives but little confirmation from our later thought. But the thought of Berkeley has an interest apart from its relation to our present speculation. There is a vigor in it which makes it bracing to the reader's mind, and an exaltation that is purifying to the imagination and the heart.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Elliott, F. M. History of Omega Chapter, and Reminiscences of Northwestern. Chicago: 1885.
Farrer, J. A. Military Manners and Customs. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Gillmore, Prof. J. H. The Intermediate Speaker. Baker & Taylor. 75 cents.
Gillmore, Prof. J. H. The Primary School Speaker. Baker & Taylor. 50 cents.
Hartmann, E. von. Philosophische Fragen der Gegenwart. B. Westermann & Co. $2 20.
Hosmer, Prof. J. K. Samuel Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hutton, L. Literary Landmarks of London. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Holland, R. A Glossary of Words used in the County of Chester (Eng.). Part I.—A to F. London: Trübner & Co.
Jenkins, E. A Week of Passion. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Kedney, Prof. J. S. Hegel's Æsthetics. A Critical Exposition. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.25.
Lawson, R. Upton-on-Severn Words and Phrases. London: Trübner & Co.
Leslie, Emma. At the Sign of the Blue Boar. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Lindorme, Dr. C. A. F. Intoxicants and Narcotics: Their Relation to the Mental Life. Fort Reed, Florida.
Marvin, C. The Russians at the Gates of Herat. Harper's Franklin Square Library. Illustrated. 20 cents.
Mercer, H. C. The Lenape Stone, or, The Indian and the Mammoth. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Morley, J. La Vie de Richard Cobden. Traduit par Sophie Raffalovich. Paris: Guillaumin et Cie.
Neidé, Dr. C. A. The Canoe *Aurora*; a Cruise from the Adirondacks to the Gulf. Forest & Stream Publication Co.
Norris, W. E. That Terrible Man. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Olmstead, D. H. The Protestant Faith, or Salvation by Belief. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Parkhurst, Dr. C. H. The Pattern in the Mount, and Other Sermons. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Perry, Bishop W. S. The History of the American Episcopal Church. 1587-1883. Vol. II. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 28, 1885.

The Week.

THE sessions of the National Commercial Convention at Atlanta last week demonstrated the fact that the South has made most encouraging progress toward the acceptance of sound financial views during the past few years. Though formerly it has been the stronghold of opposition to a national bankrupt law and of support for silver coinage, yet on Wednesday, when the question was taken whether the public interests require the enactment of a general bankrupt law, 105 delegates from Southern States voted in the affirmative, as against 127 the other way; while on Thursday, the suspension of silver coinage received the large majority of 133 to 89 votes from the Southern delegates alone. On each question the Northern representatives voted overwhelmingly on the right side, but that was to be expected. The expression of Southern opinion, however, is as surprising as it is gratifying. It is the more striking in the case of the silver question because the Colorado delegates made a peculiarly strong and cunning attempt to secure a coalition of the South and the extreme West; Mr. Symes, the Republican Congressman-elect from that State, going so far as to declare his readiness to defy the party lash at Washington, and support liberal appropriations for the Mississippi River improvement and other Southern schemes, in return for Southern silver votes. The spokesman of South Carolina expressed the feeling of his constituency when he replied that a radical change had taken place since the Bland bill was passed by the aid of Representatives from that State, and that her bankers were now all but unanimous in favor of suspending the coinage. Nothing can arrest this swelling tide of Southern sentiment in favor of sound business policies; and since this decisive vote of the Atlanta Convention, there is an excellent prospect that Congress will pass an act suspending silver coinage early in the next session.

In the Convention on Wednesday Mr. S. Dana Horton, of Ohio, spoke on the silver question from the standpoint of a bi-metallist, in favor of the Senate Finance Committee's bill of last session, which provided for the calling of a new monetary conference, and, in the event of its failure to secure an international agreement for free coinage on a common basis before the 1st of August, 1886, required the Secretary of the Treasury to discontinue the coinage of standard silver dollars. Mr. Horton was a delegate to the Paris conferences of 1878 and 1881, and has sacrificed a great deal of time to the cause of bi-metallism during the past nine years. Mr. Horton and Mr. Francis A. Walker are the leaders of a small but persevering band of economists who believe in the double or alternate standard, and who hold that it is possible to yoke the two metals, gold and silver, together by law, provided a sufficient number of nations join together for the purpose, so that their relative market values shall remain fixed and unchangeable. They are as much opposed to the single silver standard as to the single gold standard. If, in default of a suitable international agreement, a single standard is necessary for the United States, they would prefer the gold standard because it is the standard of other civilized countries. They have nothing whatever in common with Mr. Bland and his followers. They opposed the Bland bill in the beginning. They accepted the Allison bill, which was substituted in place of Mr. Bland's measure, because it contemplated international bi-metallism and made provision for the Paris Conference of 1878, to which both Mr. Horton and Mr. Walker were sent as delegates. When the Conference failed, they urged the immediate suspension of silver coinage by the United States for the purpose of "putting a pressure" upon Europe, and especially upon England, through the decline in the price of silver, which they believed would be the inevitable consequence. They have since advocated the same policy, and have been supported by Cernuschi, De Laveleye, and most of the bi-metallic theorists of Europe.

The story told by Secretary Whitney in his letter to the Commandant of the Mare Island Navy-yard touching the repairs of the *Mohican* has all the charm of a romance. The *Mohican* is a small wooden ship of about 1,900 tons displacement. As a man-of-war, we need hardly say, she is now worthless. She might, as a cruiser, catch an enemy's sailing vessels in a calm or if the wind were light; but from the fighting ships of any other maritime Power she would have to seek safety in flight. She was taken out of commission in 1872, and instead of being sold or broken up, they set to work to "repair" her. During the thirteen years which have since elapsed, the "repairs" have steadily continued, until now their cost has reached "three times," says Mr. Whitney, "what a new ship of the same character and class could have been built for"—or $900,000. More extraordinary still, two-thirds of this amount has been spent on her within the last three years, under the administration of Secretary "Bill" Chandler, as true and faithful a Republican as ever trod a deck. Moreover, there was, when the present Administration came into power, no sign that the repairs were near an end. There was apparently no limit to the amount of repairing the *Mohican* could stand. She was evidently a Republican ship, and would bear repairing as long as the party remained in power. Mr. Whitney's letter seems to call for some answer from our old friend "Bill," who is now up in New Hampshire; but we notice from the speeches he has lately been making that what occupies his mind is the condition of the negroes at the South in the matter of the suffrage. It is impossible that under these circumstances he can stop to explain why he repaired the *Mohican* so much. Wait till there is no "solid South," till there are no Rebel brigadiers, and, our word for it, he will clear it all up.

Secretary Whitney evidently meant what he said when he wrote his letter of last month to the commandant of the Mare Island Navy-yard about the abuses in the conduct of that establishment. After directing the summary discharge of certain foremen, who were proved to have openly forced their employees to vote the straight party ticket, Mr. Whitney gave notice that "if any similar proceeding, or anything like it, or any attempt to coerce the vote of the employees of the yard by foremen or superior officers should take place hereafter, whether in the interest of the dominant party or otherwise, I will apply a similar remedy." The first enforcement of this order is made at Norfolk, Va. Charges having been made that the recently appointed foreman of shipsmiths and foreman of laborers in the Navy-yard at that point were engaged in running the Democratic City Convention the other day, the commandant of the yard has called upon them to deny the allegation under their signatures or be discharged. He has also prohibited political discussions in the yard, and says that any employee who takes a conspicuous part in politics will lose his position. This is so obviously the correct rule of conduct for a Government establishment that its promulgation should occasion no remark; and yet the adoption of such a rule involves a reform of the greatest importance. The navy-yards have hitherto been run primarily as party machines, and to make them business institutions is to effect a radical transformation in their character. It is most gratifying to find that Secretary Whitney, at least, is in earnest in enforcing the rule laid down in Mr. Cleveland's civil-service reform letter, that not only "offensive partisans" but "their successors" "should be taught that efficiency, fitness, and devotion to public duty are the conditions of their continuance in public place, and that the quiet and unobtrusive exercise of individual political rights is the reasonable measure of their party service."

The good effects of a change in the national Administration are already visible in the management of the New York Custom-house. One of Secretary Manning's first acts, after he took charge of the Treasury Department, was to direct all collectors to cut down the expenses of their establishments as much as should be possible without impairing the efficiency of the service. The result is, that Mr. Robertson finds only $227,000 needed for the pay-roll of the New York Custom-house in May, although he demanded $256,000 on this account for the month preceding the Presidential election. In other words, the Collector confesses that a reduction of a full ninth can be made in the running expenses without harm to the public interests, humiliating as such an admission of extravagant management must necessarily be to him. If Mr. Robertson, with the natural motive to conceal reckless expenditures, has to own

up to the fact that $29,000 a month can be saved as well as not, there is no question that a thorough overhauling of the establishment by a new chief committed to a businesslike administration would show the feasibility of much more thorough retrenchment. These disclosures regarding the Custom-house, when contrasted with the showing for the Post-office, illustrate the difference between the management of a public office on business principles and its conduct by a professional politician.

Mr. Vilas and every other Democrat who thinks there should be a change made in postmasterships for any other reason than "offensive partisanship" or want of efficiency, should explain to the public in what way Democratic policy differs from Republican policy with regard to post-offices. The business of a post-office is the receipt, despatch, and distribution of letters, the sale of postage stamps, and the giving and cashing of money-orders. Now, in what does the Democratic way of doing these things differ from the Republican way? If it does differ seriously, we ought to have a general change, but we have as yet received no explanation on this point. Have the Democrats a different mode of sorting letters? Would they despatch mails at greater or at less intervals, or by different routes? Are they opposed to free delivery in cities, and would they recur to the old box system? Do they think there is too much letter writing, and that the postage ought to be higher? Are they opposed to postal conventions with monarchical countries or to the admission of letters from European paupers? In a word, what is it in the Democratic view of post-offices which makes it desirable that when a Democratic Administration comes into power, the postmasters should be Democrats? If there be a Democratic way of managing post-offices, the country ought to know what it is, and it ought to be an issue at the elections.

No friend of honest government has any tears to shed over the announcement that the new Administration has begun the removal of the Mahone postmasters in Virginia, and intends to make thorough work of the job. The nonchalance with which the last Administration turned over the Federal patronage in the Old Dominion to a most odious political boss for his personal aggrandizement, marked the lowest depth which the spoils theory of office has touched in this country. Scarcely anything which has happened in the South since the war has done so much to bring the Federal Government into contempt as this ostentatious support by the Republican party of the worst sort of Machine rule in combination with open and avowed repudiation. The cause of public honesty and political morals cannot be better served than by the dislodging of the whole gang of Mahonites now in office.

The nomination of Edmund G. Ross as Governor of New Mexico recalls an interesting period in our political history. Ross is a Wisconsin man, who drifted out to Kansas in the stormy days of its early existence, and became prominent enough in State politics to receive first an appointment by the Governor in 1866 to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate, and subsequently an election by the Legislature for the unexpired term of more than four years. He cut no great figure at the capital, and was generally counted only as one of the then overwhelming Republican majority in the Senate. When the party managers conceived the scheme of supplanting Andrew Johnson with Ben Wade by the device of an impeachment trial, they never thought of such a thing as the Kansas Senator's taking any other part in the proceedings than to record his answer of "guilty" when he should be asked his judgment as to the President. The rumors of his wavering were a startling surprise, and when his vote, joined with that of the half-dozen other Republican dissentients, served to defeat the carefully worked-up project, the indignation of the Republican leaders knew no bounds. Ross had less reserve of reputation and character to draw upon than Fessenden, Trumbull, and the rest, and he was accused of having been bought to vote for acquittal, though no evidence to sustain the charge was ever produced. When his term expired, he sank into obscurity beneath the storm of obloquy which his course had aroused, and he had hard work for a while to get a chance to make a bare living at his old trade of type-setting. Some years ago he moved to New Mexico and began life over again, and the revolution of last fall has now resulted in giving him a fresh start in politics. He will probably make a good enough Governor of the Territory, but he can never again render the public such signal service as fell to his lot in 1868, when he helped to save the country from a terrible blunder.

The spoilsmen everywhere are indefatigable in their efforts to break down the reform policy. Hardly have the friends of the merit system succeeded in defeating the assault of the politicians in this State, who sought to get in their entering wedge by exempting soldiers from the operation of the Civil-Service Law, when they are called upon to oppose a similar onset in Massachusetts. A member of the Senate the other day introduced a bill authorizing the appointment to office of honorably discharged soldiers and sailors without passing an examination, and it has been rushed through the body almost before the public was aware that it was being considered. The measure was strongly fought by an ex-soldier member, who declared that not a quarter of his old associates wanted any change, since they were perfectly satisfied with the preference which the present law gives them over other applicants who pass examinations with them. The real motive of the other side was frankly confessed by one Senator, who declared that he favored the bill because he was opposed to the whole civil-service reform scheme, which—with the "intense Americanism" that the *Sun* used to admire so much in Mr. Blaine—he denounced as having been "borrowed from China." The close vote of 19 to 16 by which the bill was passed leaves a hope that time to secure an expression of public opinion, and especially of soldier opinion, may secure its defeat in the other branch, as happened in this State; but in any case the incident will serve to show the friends of civil-service reform the necessity for being constantly on their guard against insidious attempts at its overthrow.

The demoralization in which the Blaine campaign left the Republican party has never before been so forcibly and disgracefully manifested as in the action of the Massachusetts Legislature last week. The lower branch recently passed, by a vote of almost 2 to 1, a so-called Dynamite Bill, which proposed new safeguards against the use of the explosive for the unlawful destruction of life or property, "within or without the commonwealth." The measure appears to have been a reasonable and proper one, such as would have been adopted without question before the days of "Blaine Irishmen." But one of these men was a member of the Legislature, and under his leadership the large Republican majority recanted its previous action and defeated the bill by an overwhelming majority. There were no concealments about the business. The "Blaine Irishman" boldly declared that the Republicans must choose between the friendship of the Irish voters who, like him self, "were convinced by Republican arguments and voted for Mr. Blaine last year," and the duty of denying them the right of making Massachusetts their base of operations with dynamite against Great Britain. In short, they must abandon the attempt to do their duty as civilized men, or lose the support of the dynamiters. This was the naked issue, and when the House, with 166 out of its 240 members Republicans, was called to meet it, it declared three to one in favor of the dynamiters on a viva-voce vote, while the small minority shrank from going on record when a demand was made for the yeas and nays. The Republican party in Massachusetts is thus fairly started on its new line of policy, and it will be interesting to compare the results achieved under the control of its dynamiters with those which followed the somewhat different leadership of its John A. Andrews.

The sale of $1,740,000 of Connecticut State 3 per cent. bonds at a price slightly above par is a new and striking illustration of the plethora of capital seeking investment on the highest security. Hitherto no borrowers in this country, except the United States Government, have been able to obtain money at as low a rate as 3 per cent., except on the pledge of property in hand sufficient to realize the debt. The sale of Connecticut bonds establishes in one sense the rate of interest on time loans where the risk is at the minimum. The credit of the State of Connecticut is at the present time superior to that of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Austria, or Italy, and inferior only to that of the United States.

Bishop Littlejohn, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, is a witness the weight of whose testimony cannot easily be impugned by the religious press when he gives his evidence regarding the relations of the Protestant denominations to the masses in our great cities. The facts bearing on this question which he presented in his annual address before the Convention of his church in Brooklyn last week are most impressive. He shows, in the first place, that the ancient title, "City of Churches," has become a most absurd misnomer for Brooklyn, since

it now has only one place of worship to each 2,624 people, which is a less proportion than is found in any other city in the country. He estimates that nearly a third of the population is not touched, directly or indirectly, by any form of evangelical work, and he confesses that this ratio is annually growing. He reports that the most populous ward in the city, with over 50,000 souls, has but eleven places of worship, "mostly small," while a recent visitation of one portion of this region disclosed the fact that, of 600 families, 450 were without Bibles or any other Christian reading. He closes his address with a vigorous plea for religious work in the city of Brooklyn, whose "uncared-for, unvisited, unchristianized masses appeal to us with a cry more piercing than that from the heart of Asia or Africa, or from the frontiers and Territories of our own land." No more forcible presentation of the growing alienation between the churches and the working classes has ever been made than the confession of this eminent Bishop.

The surrender of Poundmaker, one of Riel's leading Indian allies, with his force of over 2,000 men, leaves only the chief Big Bear with a few hundred followers still in rebellion, and the final collapse of the movement cannot be long postponed. But the embarrassments of the Canadian Government over this matter are by no means ended. The proper disposition of Riel is an exceedingly ugly question. There seems to be little doubt that the fellow is a "crank," and yet there has been too much method in his madness for his performances to be excused as the antics of a lunatic. Moreover, there is no question that some of his grievances were real ones. The issue of land patents, for example, which is the most important exercise of authority in a new country, has been sadly mismanaged, the officials too often playing directly into the hands of the speculators and permitting gross wrongs upon honest settlers. The French element of the population is so thoroughly convinced that Riel had much justification that it will bitterly resent any severity in his treatment. It is also clear that Riel would not have been able to secure the help of the Indians if they had not been exasperated by a long series of frauds perpetrated upon them by the Indian agents of the Government, who have in many cases stolen the larger part of the funds appropriated for the maintenance of their wards.

The Russian budget for the current year has been published. It shows an excess of expenditures over receipts. It is proposed to cover the deficit by a tax on business profits, the equivalent of an income tax of three or four per cent., and by increased customs duties. The estimates are on a peace basis, no allowance being made for the contingency of a war on the frontier of Afghanistan. The embarrassments of the Treasury are increasing from year to year, and there is now a threatened deficiency in the winter-wheat crop from lack of rain.

There is a growing opinion in England that the proper line of defence for India is India itself and not Afghanistan. This conception is opposed to the notions of the pamphleteers and the greater part of the press, but is supported with force by the Duke of Argyll, by Lord Salisbury, Lord Kimberly, Lord Cranbrook, and by the *Economist* newspaper, which undoubtedly represents in this particular the conservative business interests of the United Kingdom. Since the abatement of the war fever, people have begun to ask themselves what security they have against a fresh advance on the part of Russia, which everybody believes will take place whenever her later conquests shall be secured and her lines of communication perfected. The more this question is agitated, the plainer it appears that Afghanistan cannot serve as a buffer against Russian aggression unless England occupies and fortifies the country. This is exactly what the Afghans will not permit. They have fought for their independence against England in two considerable wars, in both of which they were successful. They are willing to have English help to fight against Russia, but not at the expense of surrendering their fortresses and the command of their armies, nor will they as yet consent to the building of a railroad from Quetta to Herat, which will be an indispensable condition to the defence of the latter whenever the Russian railway shall have been pushed forward to Sarakhs. There is, therefore, says the Duke of Argyll, no logic in a defensive line at a place where the defenders are not allowed to dispose of their forces in their own way and to the best advantage. India, he contends, must rely, as other countries do, upon her own resources and military strength. She has a population exceeding that of Russia, while her financial resources when supplemented by those of England are vastly greater than those of her antagonist. She has the advantage in a war on her northern frontier of proximity to her base, while Russia is weakened for offensive war by every step she takes toward the Suliman range. This range can be rendered practically impregnable by fortifications at an estimated cost of $25,000,000, or less than half the sum voted to Mr. Gladstone for the military and naval service a few weeks ago. A feeling of security has grown up in London grounded upon these considerations, but it would not be safe for Russia to draw the inference that England will submit to any amount of bullying on the outer line of defence merely because she has an inner line which she considers safe.

There is, even before the general election, which will probably take place in November, some chance of a split in the British Cabinet over the Irish Coercion Act between the Whigs and the Radicals. That is to say, Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Chamberlain, who represent the Radical element in the Cabinet, are reported to be resolutely opposed to a renewal of the Act and ready to retire if the renewal be proposed; while Sir William Harcourt, and Lord Spencer, who is specially charged with the Irish affairs, are just as strenuous in insisting on the renewal in some shape. The act was passed originally for three years, which are on the point of expiring. Ever since the passage of the Land Act, crime and outrage have been rapidly diminishing, and the country is now on the whole very peaceable. The Radicals say that this is the result of remedial legislation; but the Whigs, including Lord Spencer, are satisfied that if the Executive were no longer armed with the powers given by the Coercion Act, outrages would rapidly revive, and life and property in some districts become just as insecure as ever. They point in support of this view to the large number of persons all over the country who now live under special police protection, and who do not believe that if the Act expired they would continue to live at all for many days. The Radicals maintain that as long as the island is ruled by an Englishman who has no relation to the country, and is armed with arbitrary police power, there never will be any permanent restoration of order; that his presence acts, will act, and has always acted as a constant provocation to disorder; that in view of the intense national feeling, which now plays so prominent a part in the Irish problem, the whole machinery of coercion in English hands has on the Irish the effect of a standing insult, the more particularly as there is nothing novel about it, this being the fiftieth Coercion Act passed since the union. Moreover, they believe that the experiment of governing Ireland nominally as part of England under the Constitution, but in reality as a Crown Colony, has totally failed after eighty years of trial, and that its continuance on the eve of an election, which will powerfully reinforce the Nationalist party in the House of Commons, and produce most disastrous effects in bringing into the House a large body of furious partisans, in a revolutionary temper, and bent on mischief.

Denmark, being a small country, is trying to be revolutionary on a small scale. The Folkething, or Lower House, has always had a great animosity to the army, and has repeatedly refused to vote the money required for its support. Now, it has resolved upon a still more radical course, and in order to emphasize its disapproval of the Estrup Ministry, has cut down the official budget by some nine million kroner. The Government has endeavored to persuade the House to pass a provisional budget, but this request has naturally been refused. A complete deadlock is the result. The King is afraid of the leaders of the Left or Liberal party, and does not dare to intrust the reins of government to any one who questions the divine right of monarchs. So he prefers to keep in power a ministry which has but seventeen followers in the Folkething (even some of these being uncertain) and which is detested by the great majority of the people. To account for this singular situation, it must be remembered that the Danish Left, since it made common cause with the extreme radicals, with socialistic proclivities, has lost the confidence of the more conservative middle class; and it is possibly this consciousness on the part of the party leaders (Berg and Boisen) that they have lost more than they have gained by the coalition, which has occasioned the recent split of the Left into two camps, the Danish party and the Europeans. The former constitute the more conservative wing, and adhere to national methods and a progressive national development, while the latter have declared war against the whole existing social order. The two Jews, George and Edward Brandes (the former a well-known man of letters), are the most conspicuous men of this ultra-radical faction.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 20, to TUESDAY, May 26, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Thursday appointed D. V. O'Leary to be Postmaster at Albany, N. Y. R. M. T. Hunter was appointed Collector of Customs for the District of Tappahannock, Va. Forty years ago he was Speaker of the House of Representatives, and was subsequently elected to the United States Senate, where he served for fourteen years, until July, 1861, when he was expelled on the ground of participation in the Rebellion. He was Secretary of State of the Confederacy and a member of the Confederate Senate.

On Saturday the President appointed Walter H. Bunn to be Marshal for the Northern District of New York.

Colonel Frank H. Pierce, a nephew of President Pierce, has been appointed Consul to Matanzas, Cuba.

Mr. G. V. N. Lothrop, recently appointed Minister to Russia, has published a satisfactory reply to the *Tribune's* recent attack upon his integrity as a lawyer. On Friday the House of Representatives of Michigan, ignoring all party lines, passed a resolution unanimously, bearing testimony to his high personal and professional worth, and approving his appointment by President Cleveland.

The bar of Detroit, Mich., at a meeting on Monday, passed resolutions eulogistic of Mr. Lothrop, one of which was as follows: "That the recent republication of an opinion of Justice Potter, of the New York Court of Appeals, concerning the professional conduct of the Hon. G. V. N. Lothrop in the Phœnix Bank case, in a transaction which occurred more than thirty years ago, brings to the attention of this bar nothing which it has not long known, nothing which it has not fully considered, and nothing which has ever shaken or diminished in the smallest degree our unquestioning confidence in Mr. Lothrop as a man and a lawyer of the highest integrity, our esteem for his professional and personal character, and our admiration for his unstained professional life of more than forty years."

Captain George E. Belknap has been ordered to duty as Superintendent of the Naval Observatory in Washington, June 1, to succeed Rear-Admiral Samuel R. Franklin.

Zachariah Montgomery, of California, was on Monday formally appointed Assistant Attorney-General for the Interior Department.

The Postmaster-General has awarded to the American Bank Note Company, of this city, the contract for furnishing postage stamps for the next four years at $101,516 82 per annum for the ordinary stamps, and $2,442 79 for postage-due and other issues of stamps, making a total of $103,959 61 per annum.

The Agricultural Department has $38 to its credit. Commissioner Colman is in a very great embarrassment. He can do practically nothing until the end of the fiscal year.

An interesting discovery, said to have been made by Appointment-Clerk Higgins in the Treasury Department, is that the records of the departments contain many cases in which Government employees seek to retain their positions on the strength of false claims to military service in the late war.

Geronimo and fifty Chiricahua bucks broke away from the San Carlos Reservation on May 17, and headed for the Sierra Madre Mountains, in Mexico. General Crook ordered all the available troops from Forts Apache, Bowie, Grant, and Thomas in the field, and a company of cavalry from Fort Apache went in hot pursuit. The Indians have massacred a number of people in their flight.

Captain Smith, of the Fourth Cavalry, had a fight last Friday with the Apaches in the Mogollon Mountains, twenty miles west of Alma, N. M. The Indians were routed. On Monday, the soldiers attacked the Indians on the Blue River, Arizona, but were compelled to retreat with three of their number wounded.

By order of the Secretary of War the following telegram was on Monday sent to the commanding generals of the divisions of the Pacific and of the Missouri: "Use every exertion possible, and call for all assistance of Federal troops you may require, to suppress Indian outbreak in Arizona and New Mexico. These outrages must be stopped in the shortest time possible, and every precaution taken to prevent their occurrence in the future."

Judge Bond, of the United States Circuit Court, rendered a decision on Monday at Richmond, Va., concerning the public debt of that State, which gives practical effect to the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court and virtually wipes out everything done by the Virginia Legislature in that direction. He decreed that when a taxpayer tenders coupons for his taxes, he has thereby paid his taxes; that he may deposit his coupons in court, and the clerk thereof shall give him a receipt certifying that by order of Court his tax is paid; that the collector of taxes is forever enjoined from levying upon the taxpayer's property, and that the collector shall pay the costs of each suit he forces the taxpayer to bring.

It is believed that ex-Congressman John Wise will be the Readjuster candidate for Governor of Virginia.

Senator Sherman, of Ohio, has formally announced himself as a candidate for reëlection.

The Commercial Convention at Atlanta, Ga., on Wednesday voted 263 to 153 in favor of a national bankrupt law. On Thursday a resolution offered by Mr. Hankey, of Colorado, that the interests of the country require the continued coinage of silver, was defeated by an overwhelming vote. Fully one-half of the Southern delegates voted in the negative. The President and the Treasury officials learned with much satisfaction of this action. President Cleveland has expressed the opinion that the South has in the last few months taken an active interest in the silver question.

The Legislature in extra session at Albany, on Friday, passed a State census bill similar to the one recently vetoed by Governor Hill, and then adjourned sine die. The measure was carried through by the Republicans. Governor Hill says the bill is even worse than the first one. The Democratic members of the Legislature have issued an address to the people on the subject of the State census.

Governor Hill has signed the "Life and Limb" Bill (for protecting employees against rickety scaffolds), the bill to prevent private bankers from holding themselves out as a bank, and two amendments to the Military Code.

The Niagara Park Commissioners at a meeting on Saturday appointed V. Welch assistant secretary, with power to look after the interests of the State until a superintendent is appointed. The Comptroller expects to be at the Falls between July 10 and 15 to pay for land taken. The expectation now is that the park will be opened to the public about July 15 with appropriate services.

Severe tornadoes visited Alton, Ill., and Concord, O., on Sunday, doing considerable damage to property and to the crops in the neighborhood

Fourteen girls and one young man perished in a fire at a printing establishment in Cincinnati on Thursday afternoon. The fire was checked in fifteen minutes, and caused a pecuniary loss of only $5,000. There was no fire escape.

Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, Secretary of State under President Arthur, died at his residence in Newark on Wednesday after a long illness. Mr. Frelinghuysen was a member of a distinguished New Jersey family. He was born in 1817, and was graduated at Rutgers College and became a successful lawyer. During the war he was Attorney-General of New Jersey. In 1866 he was appointed to succeed United States Senator Wright, and was afterward elected by the Legislature to fill the remainder of Mr. Wright's term. He was reëlected in 1871. The year previous he had declined President Grant's offer of the English Mission. He was one of the members of the Electoral Commission of 1877. As Secretary of State, Mr. Frelinghuysen's last active work was the negotiation of the numerous commercial treaties which marked the close of President Arthur's Administration. Mr. Frelinghuysen was regarded by New Jersey as one of her ablest and most upright public men.

Professor Oren Root, for nearly fifty years professor of mathematics at Hamilton College, Clinton, died on Friday night.

Mr. Samuel Jones, Professor Emeritus of Physics and Chemistry of the Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa., died on Friday.

Mother Josephine Charles, founder of the Roman Catholic Order of the Sisters of the Holy Family, died in New Orleans on Wednesday at the age of sixty-nine. She was the daughter of a German father and a free mulatto woman. Her good works were well known throughout the South.

FOREIGN.

A sensation was caused in the lobbies of Parliament on Wednesday when it became known that the Guards had been stopped at Alexandria when on their way home from Suakim. It was interpreted as meaning more complications with Russia.

The London *Times*, on Thursday, reviewing the Egyptian question, said: "There is too much reason to fear that a hostile combination against British influence and interests in Egypt has been organized by the European Powers. Their action in respect to the Egyptian convention and in forcing the Khedive by their protests to refund the five percentage which had been deducted from the amount of the coupons, has been clearly intended to show that they are determined to insist upon every point against England."

In the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon the Marquis of Hartington, in reply to a question by Sir Stafford Northcote, stated that it was not thought advisable by the Government to give the reasons for the detention of the Guards at Alexandria. "It was stated by the Government some time ago," added Lord Hartington, "that it was desirable to concentrate the British troops then in the Sudan for possible service elsewhere. That operation is not yet suspended." Mr. Gladstone said that England had had communication with the Porte in regard to the occupation of Suakim, but none with any other Power. "Nothing is yet settled," said Mr. Gladstone, "in regard to arbitration between England and Russia, nor has it been absolutely settled who shall be the arbitrator." It is stated in St. Petersburg that Mr. Gladstone has refused to refer the Afghan dispute to the King of Denmark, and has asked Russia to choose some other arbitrator.

The London *News* (Liberal) on Thursday denied the report that Russia demands to have an agent at Cabul and the complete neutrality of Afghanistan. The *Standard* confirmed the report that the negotiations with Russia hinge upon the question of the possession of Merutchak, which is claimed by Afghanistan and demanded by Russia.

The London stock market was very much depressed on Thursday by the reports of delay in the settlement of the Afghan dispute.

A London despatch on Monday said: "Orders have been sent to Aldershot for a fresh

squadron of Hussars to embark for Egypt at the earliest possible moment. This order, when it becomes generally known, is certain to cause quite as great a sensation as the detention of the Guards at Alexandria and the Australians at Aden. Orders have also been sent to the royal arsenal at Woolwich to resume overtime and night work in hastening the manufacture of ordnance and ammunition."

The Turkish Council of Ministers on Sunday discussed Earl Granville's note to the Turkish Ambassador in London in regard to the proposed occupation by Turkey of Suakim and other Red Sea ports in Egypt. Earl Granville declares that if Turkey refuses to agree to this proposition, England will be compelled to make arrangements for the occupation of the places by some civilized Power. The note adds that as soon as order and a stable government shall have been established, the British troops will be withdrawn from Egypt.

The armored train on Sunday surprised a body of Arab rebels tearing up the rails of the Suakim-Berber Railway. About one hundred of the rebels were killed.

The natives of Dongola, fearing massacre at the hands of El Mahdi after the evacuation of the Sudan by the British, are flocking down the Nile in large numbers. The Mudir's absence contributes to the fright.

All the British and Egyptian troops have evacuated Meraweh. The natives are paralyzed with fears of an attack and massacre by the followers of the Mahdi. The Guards have gone into quarters at Alexandria, pending further orders.

General Sir Charles Wilson, who succeeded General Sir Herbert Stewart in the command of the advance corps of the Khartum relief expedition, after the latter was wounded at the zereba battle, has sent in his official report in response to the charge that General Gordon might have been rescued alive if the troops under command of Sir Charles had not been unnecessarily halted at Gubat for three days. The report explains this three days' delay by the necessity of securing the small force at Gubat against an attack then threatened from Berber on the north, and from Umderman on the south. The report further states that, after the arrival of the troops at Gubat, it required a great deal of time to select crews and prepare the steamers for the advance to Khartum.

Lord Rosebery went to Berlin on Friday. He has had an interview with Bismarck. It is stated that his mission is a twofold one—to ask Emperor William to act as arbitrator in the Afghan frontier dispute, and to enlist his support to secure the execution of the Egyptian financial convention.

It was stated in Berlin on Tuesday that the tendency of the conferences between Lord Rosebery, Prince Bismarck, Sir Edward Malet, Count Shuvaloff, and Count von Hatzfeldt is toward a peaceful result. The statement comes from Russian sources that Russia has abandoned her claim to Zulfikar and Merutchak, but that the negotiations are likely to be prolonged in order that a complete and final treaty may be concluded.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Wednesday afternoon, gave notice that he would introduce a Land Purchase Bill for Ireland after Whitsuntide. The House of Lords on Wednesday passed the Registration Bills. The royal assent was given to them on Thursday, as well as to the vote of credit. This completes the legislation for the extension of the franchise.

A great deal of comment was caused by the absence from their places, at the opening of the House of Commons on Friday afternoon, of three members of the Cabinet, Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Trevelyan, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and Sir Charles Dilke, President of the Local Government Board. There were rumors of their resignation on account of the proposed renewal of the Crimes Act. Parliament adjourned on Friday until June 4, and the Cabinet crisis was staved off until after the Whitsuntide recess. The Cabinet situation now probably means either a renewal of the truncated Crimes Act for one year only, or else that Chamberlain and Dilke will resign, and probably also Shaw-Lefevre, the Postmaster-General.

Victor Hugo died at his home in Paris at 1:30 o'clock on Friday afternoon. His last words were "Adieu, Jeanne, adieu," addressed to his granddaughter. He declined the services of a priest in his last hours. The French Government immediately decided on a civil funeral for M. Hugo at the expense of the State. Eulogies upon him were delivered in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. The signs of mourning were general throughout France. A few of the most important of the dates in Victor Hugo's life are as follows. He was born February 26, 1802, at Besançon, France, his father being General Hugo. When a mere schoolboy he wrote odes, satires, tragedies, etc., in great abundance. At the age of fifteen he wrote a poem on the "Advantages of Study," which received an "honorable mention" at the annual competition of the French Academy. When he was twenty years of age he had published a volume of poems, and was soon after married to Adèle Foucher. He was recognized as the chief of the Romantic school before he was twenty-five. His dramas "Cromwell" and "Hernani" excited the wrath of the Classicists. "Lucretia Borgia," in 1833, was his first popular success as a dramatist. 'Notre Dame de Paris,' published in 1831, excited the admiration of France, and to it was chiefly due his admission into the French Academy ten years later. In 1848 Hugo was elected to the French Assembly, where he advocated the abolition of capital punishment. He soon came under Republican influences, and the Coup d'Etat sent him into exile in the Island of Jersey. During this time he produced many books of poems, and in 1862 'Les Misérables,' which had been translated into nine languages before publication. The downfall of the Empire brought Hugo back to Paris in 1870. During the excesses of the Commune he retired to Belgium, but has lived in Paris since 1873. He was a life Senator of the Republic. His most important prose work of the last twelve years was 'Ninety-three,' published in 1874; his most important verse, 'La Légende des Siècles.' On the 25th of February, 1880, the fiftieth anniversary of the first production of "Hernani" was celebrated with great pomp at the Théâtre-Français.

The body of Victor Hugo was conveyed to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris on Sunday, and laid in state on a catafalque. His funeral will take place on May 31.

Sunday being the anniversary of the fall of the Commune, the Communists of Paris attempted to hold a demonstration at the tombs of their comrades in the Père-la-Chaise Cemetery. The police interfered. A serious conflict ensued. The police drew their swords and drove the rabble against a heap of stones. The rioters used the stones as missiles, and one of the policemen was knocked senseless and another's jaw was broken. The Republican Guards, with fixed bayonets, charged the mob. It was said that five persons were killed and eighty wounded. The police, however, assert that nobody was killed, and only thirty wounded. The Communists became greatly excited and vowed vengeance.

Late on Monday afternoon the Communist troubles broke out afresh in Paris. A number of Communists were interring the body of a comrade at Père-la-Chaise Cemetery. The speeches made over the grave were of such a violent character that the crowd became excited, and, led by M. Rochefort, they started in a body to sally out through the gates of the cemetery, shouting and waving red flags. The police interfered and made a rush to disperse the rioters and capture the red flags. A desperate encounter was the result, the Communists having armed themselves with knives. Several of the combatants on both sides were wounded, but none, it is thought, fatally. The police finally dispersed the rioters and made many arrests. It is asserted that the interference of the police was brutal and unnecessary. There are apprehensions in Paris that a dangerous Communist outbreak is imminent.

M. Amouroux, the French Communist, is dead at the age of forty-two. In April, 1869, he was condemned to four months' imprisonment for exciting contempt against the Government. In March, 1870, he fled to Belgium, but returned in September, and became one of the most active agents of the Internationale, violently opposing the Government of the Defence. He was elected a member of the Commune in March, 1871, taking part in the principal discussions of that assembly and generally acting with the most extreme wing of the party. On the entry of the regular troops into Paris he was arrested and taken to Brest, where he was recognized. After trials before councils of war for taking part in the insurrection, he was condemned to transportation for life servitude. On January 19, 1873, he was sent to New Caledonia, the French penal colony.

Prime Minister Depretis of Italy has intimated to King Humbert his desire to retire to private life on account of old age.

Count Terenzio della Rovere Mamiani, the Italian poet, philosopher, and politician, is dead. He was born in Pesaro in 1800. He took part in the revolutionary movements following the accession of Pope Gregory XVI. In 1848 he was made President of the Council when the Constitution was framed. He went to Turin and organized the Society of the Union of Italy. He was made Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Galletti Ministry, but soon resigned, and supported French intervention. In 1861 he was made Ambassador to Greece, and in 1865 represented the Italian Government at Berne. He wrote many popular poems and philosophical and political works.

Major Steele, of the Northwest Mounted Police, had, it was reported on Thursday, a skirmish with the Indians near Fort Pitt. He lost some men and had to retire toward Edmonton.

Poundmaker sent in a flag of truce on Thursday to Battleford asking on what terms he could surrender. He gave up the captured teamsters, two women, and a priest. General Middleton replied that he must surrender unconditionally.

General Middleton and his forces arrived at Battleford in a steamer on Sunday night, and preparations were at once made for an attack on Poundmaker. Just as the troops were ready to begin the march on Monday, the Rev. Father Cochin, Roman Catholic missionary to Poundmaker's band, came to the General with a communication from Poundmaker, stating that he would surrender unconditionally. General Middleton, of course, accepted the terms, and immediately the Indians began coming in and gave up their arms. They were thoroughly scared. Poundmaker's force numbered more than 2,000. Big Bear with 800 well armed men declares he will make a stand at Big Hills, between Frog Lake and Fort Pitt. Dumont is still in the Birch Hills, and defies the Government.

The Canadian Government has decided to hand Riel over to the civil authorities for trial.

The Salvadorian revolutionists under Menendez were recently defeated at Armenia, after a five hours' fight, by the regular army of San Salvador. Four hundred Guatemalan troops on Saturday crossed the border of San Salvador. This invasion will probably result in reopening the whole Central American question.

MR. LOWELL.

Mr. James Russell Lowell is again, after eight years of official life, a private citizen, and will soon be on his way home. His career in London has formed an episode in American diplomacy which, it is safe to say, has had no parallel in effectiveness, except Franklin's mission to Paris and Mr. Charles Francis Adams's in England during and after the war. Mr. Lowell, it is true, has conducted no important negotiation, and, therefore, it may be said, has had no chance to show either his weakness or his excellence as a lawyer or as an international controversialist. The Irish troubles filled one or two years of his career with very vexatious questions, but they were questions which tried his temper rather than his knowledge or his skill. He had to keep the United States from getting into hot water over the claims of a parcel of criminal adventurers on their protection. These claims were rarely well grounded, and, even when good, were made by men whom any civilized country might well blush to own. In dealing with them, he made, as we said at the time, in our opinion, the mistake of admitting that any foreign government could, under any pretext, keep an American citizen in prison indefinitely in time of peace without a trial of some kind, as a mere precautionary measure. But there was, we believe, some foundation for this admission in the ground taken by Mr. Seward during the war, with regard to British subjects in this country. Still, the difficulties with which Mr. Seward was struggling were too great to furnish for one moment a precedent for Earl Granville in dealing even with Irish assassins and boycotters. Mr. Lowell, if we are not mistaken, was acting under instructions from the State Department, or at all events received its approval, its chief at that time not having formed the alliance with the Irish dynamiters which subsequently supplied such a feather for his cap.

As a matter of fact, however, in our day the conduct of direct negotiations is but a small part of a foreign minister's business. Important negotiations are now generally conducted by special agents, or are directed at every step by instructions from home. In the very serious controversy now going on between Russia and England, not only is Baron de Staal assisted in London by a special agent in the person of M. de Lessar, sent over for the express purpose, but he is obliged to refer every proposal of the British Government to the Cabinet at St. Petersburg, and await its answer. So it is and must be with us. No envoy is now allowed to act on his own responsibility in important discussions, when he can consult his own Government every half-hour on every point which comes up.

In fact, American legations abroad, which, owing to our complete separation from Europe, as well as for other reasons, never had the importance of those of the Old World, are fast becoming, if they are not already, simply rewards for politicians of some kind of distinction, for whom the party in power is unable to find places in the Cabinet. Ministers are no longer sent out to negotiate, or even to observe and report. For the latter function most of them, through want of all preparatory knowledge of the manners or languages of foreign countries, are totally unfit. They generally pass lives of great insignificance if not obscurity in foreign capitals, reflecting neither honor nor discredit on their country, and treated as outsiders by their diplomatic brethren.

The London mission has, however, always constituted an exception to this rule. The United States are connected with England by so many ties—ties of blood, of religion, of language, of law, of political traditions and manners—that the American Minister in London, no matter what kind of man he is, must needs be a great personage, much observed and much criticised. It has, for this reason, been, from the very foundation of the Government, a tradition of American diplomacy that the American representative at that point should be a specimen of the best the United States can produce in the way of social and intellectual culture, and should, in some sort, represent the American people in its best clothes and with its company manners. It is casting no reproach or slur on any of Mr. Lowell's predecessors to say that none of them has played this part so well as he. To those who hold the semi-barbarous notion that one of the duties of a foreign minister is to occupy a defiant attitude toward the people to whom he is accredited—that he should stick to his post, to use the popular phrase, "with his back up," and keep the world he lives in constantly in mind that his countrymen are rough, untamable, and above all things quarrelsome, Mr. Lowell has not seemed a success. But to them we must observe, that they know so little of the object of diplomacy that their opinion is of no sort of consequence. The aim of diplomacy is not to provoke war, but to keep the peace; it is not to beget irritation, or keep it alive, but to produce and maintain a pacific temper; not to make disputes hard, but easy, to settle; not to magnify differences of interest or feeling, but to make them seem small; not to win by threats, but by persuasion; not to promote mutual ignorance, but mutual comprehension—to be, in short, the representative of a Christian nation, and not of a savage tribe.

No foreign minister, it is safe to say, has ever done these things so successfully in the same space of time as Mr. Lowell. If it be a service to the United States to inspire Englishmen with respect such as they have never felt before for American wit and eloquence and knowledge, and thus for American civilization itself, nobody has rendered this service so effectively as he has done. They are familiar almost *ad nauseam* with the material growth of the United States, with the immense strides which the country has made and is making in the production of things to eat, drink, and wear. What they know least of, and have had most doubts about, is American progress in acquiring those gifts and graces which are commonly supposed to be the inheritance of countries that have left the ruder beginnings of national life far behind, and have had centuries of leisure for art and literature and science. Well, Mr. Lowell has disabused them. As far as blood and training go, there is no more genuine American than he. He went to England as pure a product of the American soil as has ever landed there, and yet he at once showed English scholars that in the field of English letters they had nothing to teach him. In that higher political philosophy which all Englishmen are now questioning so anxiously, he has spoken not only as a master, but almost as an oracle. In the lighter but still more difficult arts, too, which make social gatherings delightful and exciting to intellectual men, in the talk which stimulates strong brains and loosens eloquent tongues, he has really reduced the best-trained and most loquacious London diners-out to abashed silence. In fact, he has, in captivating English society—harder, perhaps, to captivate, considering the vast variety of talent it contains, than any other society in the world—in making every Englishman who met him wish he were an Englishman too, performed a feat such as no diplomatist, we believe, has ever performed before.

HARMONIZING NEW YORK.

A very amusing rumor comes from Washington that "it is thought that Secretaries Whitney and Manning, during their stay in New York, will endeavor to harmonize the Democratic factions in that city so as to present a solid front of Democracy at the fall elections. New York politicians in Washington say that this is a much more important question now than the selection of a candidate for the Governorship." We have no doubt that this is the view of the New York politicians who are in Washington in search of office, but we take leave to doubt if it is shared by the President, or if the two Secretaries named are here for any such purpose as the rumor given ascribes to them. Those three men are too familiar with New York politics to entertain for a moment the idea that this State can be carried by "harmony" alone. There is, in fact, no State in the Union in which harmony, as the workers understand the term, counts for less.

There have been several notable attempts to carry the State in recent years by what the harmony advocates call a "wise distribution of the offices," and they have all failed. In fact, all the more important successes have been secured by the party and candidate who had no aid whatever from the offices. Mr. Tilden carried New York for Governor in 1874 by 50,000, with all the offices, State and national, in the possession of his opponents. He carried it again for President in 1876 by 32,000 majority, with the Custom-house, Post-office, and all other Federal offices devoting every energy in their power to secure his defeat. In 1879 Mr. Cornell, by the aid of the Federal patronage, was able to get himself nominated as the Republican candidate for Governor. He was one of the most perfect specimens of the harmony candidate—the kind that is nominated "by strengthening the party by means of a wise distribution of the offices"—which the State had seen up to that time. His nomination was denounced by the independent voters, and though John Kelly's separate candidacy enabled him to slip in through a division of the Democratic vote, he lacked nearly 35,000 votes of a majority, poll-

ing 70,000 less votes than Morgan polled for Governor in 1876. The Independent voters had no candidate, but simply contented themselves with "scratching" Cornell.

The memorable Folger campaign is too fresh in the memory of everybody to need extended reference. Mr. Folger, even more absolutely than Mr. Cornell, owed his nomination to the influence of the offices. He was nominated because the President desired his candidacy. A more thoroughly "harmonized" convention than the one which put him in the field was never seen in this State. Personally, a more fit candidate for Governor had not been nominated in many years. The whole machinery of the party had been used to "pick out a good man," but the voters would not accept him. Undoubtedly the Blaine influence in the Republican party had a good deal to do with the enormous majority by which Judge Folger was defeated, but the Independent voters had much more to do with it. They supported Mr. Cleveland with unanimity and enthusiasm, and the result was that, without the help of a single State or national office, and with very little enthusiasm for him among the "workers" of his own party, he was made Governor by 192,000 majority.

Mr. Cleveland's remarkable political success has been won, not by "harmonizing" his party, but by deserving the popular confidence. He has never been a favorite with the politicians. He was nominated and elected Governor without their active sympathy. His administration as Governor never met their approval. He did not deal out the offices at Albany in a way which at all pleased them. They opposed his nomination for the Presidency because of a thorough understanding of his character—a character as diametrically opposed to theirs as could well be imagined. During all the time of his service at Albany there was heard the same complaint which comes from Washington now—that he is serving the people rather than his party; that he cares more for his own reputation as a faithful public servant than he does for the cold toes of the boys; that he is a selfish man and a very poor Democrat. Yet in spite of this hostility he was nominated for the Presidency—nominated, not because the politicians of his party wanted him, but because the shrewdest of them were convinced that his strength with that element of the people which cared nothing for party names but everything for honest government, was great enough in New York State to secure for him its electoral vote.

It was this element, known as the Independent vote, which nominated and elected him President, and it is this element which controls New York politics to-day and will decide the election next November. Nothing is more absurd than to imagine that any process of "harmonizing" or "strengthening" can elect any man Governor without the help of the Independent vote. Everything that "harmony" of all kinds could do was done for Mr. Blaine last year. He had all the machinery of his own party; he had the assistance of 30,000 or more treacherous Tammany votes; he had the indirect aid of Butler's candidacy and the advocacy of it by the *Sun*; he had the mysterious aid of the Catholic influence and the blarney-bought support of the dynamite Irish; but he did not win. The Independent vote was powerful enough to give Mr. Cleveland nearly 28,000 more votes than he received for Governor in 1882, and to elect him President. Every day of his Administration has strengthened him and his party in this State. He not only has the support of all the people who voted for him last fall, but of thousands of others who would have voted for him had they not been frightened by the bugaboos of disaster to business and industry which would result from putting the "Confederacy again in the saddle." These men see now how foolish they were, and it will not be possible to scare them again. The handful of Butler men have probably seen their mistake also, and nobody believes that Tammany can ever again organize so formidable a conspiracy against the Democratic party.

There is one sure way of turning over the State to the Republicans this fall, and that is for the Administration to attempt to harmonize the Democratic factions on the basis proposed by the politicians in Washington—that is, to give one faction the Collectorship, another the Surveyorship, one the Marshalship, another the District Attorneyship, and so on, and then nominate a good, sympathetic working politician for Governor. There would be no doubt whatever of the election of any respectable Republican candidate in that event. But if the Administration will go forward in the way in which it has been going, giving the country good government and allowing the politicians to "harmonize" themselves, it will be doing the Democrats of this State the most valuable service possible. The people of the State will go to the polls in November and elect to the Governorship the candidate who is, in their opinion, best fitted to hold the office. Any attempt to swerve them from that purpose would be as futile as it would be absurd. We have not the slightest idea that the President and his two Secretaries named have studied New York politics to so little purpose as not to know this.

RAILWAY REGULATION.

THE Senate Committee on Inter-State Commerce has within a few days taken the testimony or opinions of Pool Commissioner Fink and Mr. George R. Blanchard, two of the most experienced railway traffic managers in the country, and of Mr. H. V. Poor, the compiler of the 'Railway Manual.' The object of the investigation is to obtain data for the use of the Senate in deciding between the principles of the Reagan (House) bill, which lays down certain fixed rules for the regulation of railroad charges, and those of the Cullom (Senate) bill, which proposes, in lieu of fixed rules, the appointment of a National Railroad Commission, whose duty it shall be to collect information, to hear complaints, to exercise moral influence, and to stand in the same relation toward the public and the railways as the Railway Commissions of England, of Massachusetts, and of New York—a relation rather advisory than compulsory—but with power to enforce its decrees. In the debates on the Reagan bill Mr. Cullom had decidedly the better case, and was supported by arguments which convinced the Senate that the regulation of railways and railway charges by statute ought not to be attempted without a wider examination of the facts, and a more precise generalization from them, than had yet been had under Congressional authority. Hence the present investigation.

Since the period of the Granger legislation ten years ago, there has been a remarkable change in the attitude and direction of public sentiment toward railways. At the time when State Legislatures, the majority of the press, and nearly all the organs of public opinion were demanding severe laws and statutory limitations upon railway managers and railway rates, a few persons not owners of railway property, but entitled by character and intelligence to a public hearing, insisted that the law of competition was ample to correct all the abuses complained of, and that the hasty and crude legislation demanded by public impatience would be productive of more evils than it would cure, and would eventually be repealed by the very men who had secured its enactment. Conspicuous among these unwelcome prophets were Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., Mr. Edward Atkinson, and the late Samuel Bowles, of Massachusetts. After the lapse of ten years we find all their predictions fulfilled and more than fulfilled. The Granger laws were passed. They proved worthless and fell into disrepute. The only law which remained in full vigor was the law of competition, which has been working with giant power day and night, year in and year out, to do the very things which the Granger laws attempted but were ineffectual to accomplish. This law has actually reduced railway charges on the most important lines in the country below the cost of carriage. According to a recent analysis, prepared by a well-known civil engineer (Mr. O. Chanute), the cost of carrying freight on the New York Central Railroad, through and local, taking all classes and all distances together, and including terminal expenses and insurance, is as nearly as possible eight and nine-tenths mills per ton per mile. This is the cost to the railway company. The freight charges of the company last year averaged nine and one-tenth mills per ton per mile. At the present time they are believed to be not more than seven mills per ton per mile. The West Shore and Buffalo Road carried in the month of April 190,000 tons of freight at an average rate of six and six-tenths mills per ton per mile.

It is not strange, in view of this state of things, that Mr. Fink and Mr. Blanchard favor legislation to protect the railroads against each other. They ask that the law of competition be throttled in the interest of investors. "The United States Government," says Mr. Blanchard, "owes fully as much protection to the investors in the securities of such roads as to the farmers, shippers, and receivers. Had the same protection been afforded to the investor as to the other classes, the losses of the past few years would have been avoided. I would give this national commission or tribunal a warning power to stop violations of its rules, and an arresting power to prevent any repetition of offences against it. If this system was adopted, and there was no change possible except after five days' public notice, and it was applied to inter-State roads

and water transportation, the effect would be apparent at once. Peace and prosperity would be the rule with the railroads rather than the present existing troubles."

Alas, Mr. Blanchard, there is no way to do it. Mr. Poor, in his blunt way, told the truth and the whole truth when he said, "The Government has nothing whatever to do with the calamity of one road or the prosperity of another." The country is full of suffering industries—bankrupt spinners, weavers, puddlers, rail makers, coal miners, paper manufacturers; all suffering from too much competition. Congress is as powerless to help them, to protect one against another, as it is to make a new world without any law of competition in it. To transfer the Joint Traffic Association to a committee room in Washington would be as futile as to erect a new Tower of Babel. The only fact which the present investigation is likely to disclose is, that railway transportation is cheap enough, that it cannot be made cheaper by statute, and that the wisest thing Congress can do is to keep hands off altogether, or at most to confine itself to the systematic collection and publication of statistics.

THE PEACE PROSPECT.

LONDON, May 14.

THE clouds of threatening war which covered the sky for seven weeks have vanished even more suddenly than they appeared; and men now talk of peace with Russia as assured—assured at least for the present, for in times like ours there is no use in speculating on what may happen more than a year ahead. Your readers have marked the different phases which the question of the Afghan boundary and the "incidents" that befell there have taken, so that it would be superfluous for me to recount the succession of events. I content myself with commenting on the state of the popular mind at the most critical moments, and on the general result so far as it affects the domestic politics of England and the reputation of her present Ministry.

Of these moments, the most critical was Monday, April 27, the day when Mr. Gladstone brought forward the Vote of Credit for eleven millions sterling for war preparations. For a fortnight previously the tension in the public mind had been extreme, although the demeanor of the nation was so calm that a stranger would have found it hard to realize, except by observing the eager curiosity for the slightest particle of news, and the swift and sudden fluctuations on the Stock Exchange, that we were on the eve of a tremendous conflict, which would have been carried on not only in Asia and Europe, but possibly also in our territories in Pacific North America and in Australia. This calmness was chiefly due to the general unity of sentiment—the Tories hating Russia and inclined to welcome a struggle which they have long believed inevitable, and the Liberals relying so implicitly on Mr. Gladstone's love of peace as to hold that any war he undertook must be necessary and rightful. For the few days before this Monday, nearly everybody had expected a diplomatic rupture, and it seemed almost certain that an appeal to arms would follow. Yet the faith in the pacific intentions of the Ministry had still so much strength that the solemnity, not unmixed with menace, of Mr. Gladstone's tone in moving the vote took men by surprise. His wonderful power of rising to the level of a great occasion was never more remarkably displayed. The speech, except in a few sentences toward the close, does not seem, to one who reads it in cold blood, to rise to a high point of eloquence, but the effect of his animated gestures and his wonderfully modulated and awe-inspiring voice was immense. So deep was the impression on the crowded House of Commons that no one rose to follow him, and the vote passed, not merely unanimously, but without a single word of comment. How much this unanimity told upon the country and upon Europe you are all aware. It seemed to express the strenuous resolve of a united nation. Yet it was really an accident. There were several members—some of them conspicuous persons—who had intended to speak, but one or two of them had gone out for the moment, expecting others to keep up the debate; while of those who remained, each waited for some one else to begin, and none ventured to be the first to break the spell which the great orator had laid upon the assembly he has swayed so long. On such accidents, and sometimes on accidents smaller than this, does the history of the world turn.

Before the end of the week which began in this dramatic way, it was felt that the sky was clearing, and when the Report (as it is called) of the Vote of Credit from the Committee of the Whole to the House came up on Monday, May 4th, Russia's acceptance of the English proposal to refer to arbitration the question of the Panjdeh fight between the Russians and Afghans, had become known. (This incident had been the chief point that threatened a rupture, and was chiefly dwelt on in Mr. Gladstone's speech, for it was understood that on the main issue of the delimitation of the frontier there was good prospect of accord.) The temporary harmony of parties disappeared in an instant, and Parliament echoed with angry recriminations, resumed at intervals during the few days following, and culminating in a party debate and division on Monday, the 11th.

The Opposition accused the Government of having obtained the vote of credit on a false pretence, the pretence of announcing a valorous defence of British interests and British honor by arms, when in reality the points in dispute were being surrendered to Russia. They ridiculed the reference to arbitration, which was couched in somewhat vague terms, as being substantially a surrender, a device for evading the question whether the Russian troops had not been the aggressors, and practically letting their aggression pass unpunished. The Ministry, denying this, was met by the demand for full information as to the communications that had passed and were passing between the two Governments; but Mr. Gladstone declared that it was impossible to produce them immediately, as an incomplete statement would be worse than no statement at all. The absence of this information, so necessary before the conduct of the Ministry could be fairly judged, made the debate a somewhat hollow one, nor did it excite much interest in the country. Meanwhile a Blue Book containing the despatches is being printed, and will appear in a day or two, so that the Opposition, should they find matter in it confirming their view as to the cowardice of the Cabinet, will have the opportunity of moving another vote of censure.

It would have been more prudent for the Tory leaders to have waited for these papers before launching their charges, because their hasty action has not only wasted some of their ammunition and taken the edge off any attack they may subsequently deliver, but has exposed them to the reproach of being anxious for war with Russia at all hazards. "They desire war," so say their antagonists, "partly from a blind hatred of Russia and general love of bloodshed, and partly because they believe that the expenditure it must involve will make the Cabinet unpopular, and give them a better chance at that approaching general election which fills every one's thoughts." It would be more just to say that the Opposition are so deeply persuaded of the weakness of the Cabinet and the disposition of its chief to truckle to Russia, so convinced also of Russia's bad faith and determination to extend her borders in Afghanistan, with a view to an ultimate attack on India, that they can scarcely help concluding any arrangement made between Mr. Gladstone and the Czar to be for the benefit of the latter. They had come to believe, as indeed nearly the whole nation believed, that a war was inevitable; and they argue that, as a postponement for two or three years will enable Russia to push forward her railway from the Caspian to the border which is now being settled, while it will not make it any easier for England to garrison Herat—the passage to which from India lies through unfriendly tribes—it is far more to Russia's interest than to England's that this breathing space should be interposed.

How far these arguments will tell on the country, or what verdict it will pass on the behavior of the Cabinet, cannot be determined till the papers with the despatches are produced. For the last few weeks, neither Parliament nor the people have known much more about the negotiations in progress, or had more opportunity of controlling them, than the people or Parliament of Queen Elizabeth had of her dealings with Spain. When foreign affairs become delicate and dangerous, England lapses back from the character of a parliamentary to that of a despotic country, only the despot is not the Crown but a Cabinet chosen by the people, and probably chosen for reasons with which opinions on foreign policy have nothing to do. Nor is it easy to see how the affairs of an empire like England's could be carried on upon any other system.

So far, the Ministerialists throughout the country are pleased at the prospect of a settlement, and applaud the pacific spirit of their leaders. However just a war might have been, they would have found it an unpleasant thing to defend on election platforms to audiences who remembered the declaration of Mr. Gladstone in 1880, and the condemnation of the bellicose and aggressive tendencies of Lord Beaconsfield which then determined the votes of the Nonconformists and the workingmen. Now, unless it should appear that the Ministry have really made England eat humble pie, or have sacrificed some frontier post of substantial importance, the bulk of the people will be glad to have avoided a struggle which must have involved heavy taxation, and might have seriously injured our mercantile marine. Trade is still languishing; we have no friend on the Continent except Italy; Egyptian questions may give as much trouble in the future as they have done in the past; so that we are well out of a war for objects which had not come home to the mind of the ordinary citizen, and which might have proved a long one, because neither of the combatants could easily reach the other to strike a decisive blow.

In one respect these Russo-Afghan troubles have been a godsend to the Ministry. They have turned men's minds away from the lamentable conclusion of the expedition to Khartum. The humiliating announcement that, after all the high language held three months ago as to the necessity of "smashing the Mahdi," the troops are to be withdrawn from the Upper Nile into Egypt as soon as the river has risen sufficiently to let them float down, and that the projected railway from Suakim to Berber will not be made, has been received with comparatively slight attention, because Africa had

ceased some weeks before to be the centre of political interest. Everybody is a little ashamed of the part we have played, yet nearly everybody feels that it would have been a mistake to go on "throwing good money after bad." The Tories will make full use of the death of Gordon and the unfortunate ending of the expedition to rescue him, in their autumnal campaign against the Government, nor can it be denied that these events have damaged the Government's reputation. Yet the mass of the voters care little for such topics; and it is lucky for our present rulers that their retreat from the Sudan should have been in a measure suggested by and covered by Asiatic troubles which were not of their making, and in which they may turn out to have shown more wisdom than has marked their African policy.

Y.

THE RUSSIAN MENACE AND THE DEFENCE OF INDIA.

LONDON, May 14, 1885.

IT is just a month since I wrote to the *Nation* a letter under the above heading. In the interval a marvellous transformation has been accomplished. The war-cloud, when it seemed at its blackest, has suddenly broken up and disappeared. Mr. Gladstone has announced in the House of Commons that all questions in dispute are as good as adjusted, and that nothing remains but for Russia and ourselves to shake hands and swear an eternal friendship.

Perhaps a brief letter in explanation of the cause which has wrought this astonishing change will not be uninteresting to your readers. It is to the bitter hostility of the Afghans that England owes its escape from a war in which it is hard to see how she could have come off victorious. As we have heaped wrongs and injuries upon the Afghans without number, an outsider might not unreasonably argue that this hostility was an element in the situation that might have been reckoned upon beforehand. But to argue thus indicates an imperfect appreciation of the national character. It is impossible for Englishmen to believe that any people can cherish a lasting resentment for injuries which they have endured, if those injuries have been the work of Englishmen. Accordingly, we had no sooner withdrawn our troops from Afghanistan than the belief became current, among the English in India, that the Afghans were convinced that we desired nothing but their welfare and freedom—that they had nothing to fear from us, and everything to dread from the advance of the Russians.

This singular belief was not disturbed by the fact that, when abandoning Kabul, we had rejected the petition of the Afghans to restore to them the son of Shir Ali, whom we held a prisoner; that, instead of this, we had forced upon them an Amir whom they hated, and who had since shown himself eminently worthy of their hate—a perjured and sanguinary tyrant who, but for British subsidies and British rifles, could not maintain his position for a month. All this was forgotten. The affection of the Afghans for us and their terror of the Russians were accepted as matters beyond all doubt, and were the foundations of the high and menacing tone which the Cabinet and the press took up in its relations with Russia. The Indian "experts" (so called) had persuaded themselves and misled the Cabinet into believing that a British column entering Afghanistan to fight Russia would be conducted to the theatre of war, in a sort of triumphal progress, by the applauding tribes along the line of march. The Amir was invited to meet Lord Dufferin at Rawalpindi to frame a plan of operations and make arrangements for the subsistence of the British troops. Nor did the Indian Bureaucracy awake to a consciousness of the truth until the Amir flatly refused to allow a single British regiment to cross the frontier. He stood, he told Lord Dufferin, absolutely alone in Afghanistan; and if an English army were to enter his territory, the Afghans would rise as one man against him and against the invaders—for such they would deem them to be, no matter what protestations to the contrary they might please to make. And as for Panjdeh, he was willing to cede it to the Russians without further ado.

It is hard to imagine a more ludicrous situation than that in which these unlooked-for declarations placed the Indian officials of the "Forward" school. Herat, according to their teaching, was "the key of India," the vital point which it behooved us to defend at all costs. For fifty years the chief aim and purpose of their Afghan policy had been to keep open the road to Herat. And here was the upshot of all their labors. Just when Russia was stretching out her hand to seize "the key of India," just when it was most urgent that a British force should move with all possible speed to Herat, those unreasonable Afghans insisted upon barring the way. Clearly, without the consent and assistance of the Afghans, it was impossible for a British army to march across a difficult waste and waterless country like Afghanistan; and that being so, there was no alternative but to make a complete "surrender" to Russia. This, accordingly, is what has been done. Russia is to get Panjdeh. She is also to get the frontier for which she has all along contended, and which M. Lessar was sent to London to lay before the London Foreign Office. In return for these substantial gains, she, on her side, is not unwilling to provide a golden bridge for a retreating enemy; and the conduct of General Komaroff in fighting the Afghans is to be submitted to an arbitrator. Russia can do this all the more willingly, as there is now little question that the menacing movements of the Afghans amply justified the action of the Russian commander. This result is not gratifying to the *amour propre* of the nation; but in all other respects it should be most fortunate for us, if only all that is involved in it be clearly perceived and established as the basis of our future action.

The first thing, then, that we ought to see and admit is, that Herat is now lost to us forever. The Russian outposts are within twelve days' march of that place; and, with every month that passes, the Russian position in relation to Herat will be rendered stronger. At present, it is true that Merv and the other most recent acquisitions of Russia in Central Asia consist of sparsely peopled, uncultivated wastes. But this want of cultivation is not due to the natural sterility of the soil, but to the insecurity of life and property caused by the forays of the Turcoman horsemen. All accounts agree that the forays cease as soon as the Russian flag is planted in one of these districts. The correspondents who accompanied General Lumsden say that they found unarmed peasants feeding their flocks, and unarmed merchants conveying their goods over tracts of country where, a few years ago, not a human being would have dared to show his face. A continuance of this order and security will, in a short time, cause these waste places to recover the fertility and population for which they were once celebrated; and when they do so, Russia will experience no difficulty in massing a large force of all arms within striking distance of Herat whenever she pleases to do so. Her Asiatic possessions have, moreover, this great advantage over our Indian Empire, that their frontier actually abuts upon the frontier of Russia proper. In the course of a few years, Merv, Sarakhs, and Panjdeh will be connected by railway with the Caspian and the general railway system of the Russian Empire; and when this has been done, it will be easier for Russia to assemble sixty thousand men upon the frontiers of Afghanistan than for us to send from England a similar force to Bombay or Kurrachee. When we add to this that the Heratees look upon their Afghan masters as aliens and oppressors, and that they would certainly rejoice to pass under Russian rule, the conclusion is irresistible that the policy of defending India at Herat, whether wise or unwise, is henceforth impracticable.

The other important fact which has been demonstrated by recent occurrences is, that Afghanistan is, so far as India is concerned, a hostile state. This hostility, so far from being diminished by our alliance with the Amir, is directly caused by it, and will go on increasing so long as the alliance endures. These two facts—the unapproachableness of Herat and the enmity of the Afghans—clearly show what is our only possible policy in the future. It is to withdraw ourselves from all entangling engagements with the Amir of Kabul, and to apply the money hitherto devoted to the maintenance of these futile and dangerous alliances to the strengthening of our defences along the proper frontier of our Indian empire. The alternative policies of the "Forward" and "Masterly Inactivity" schools have been tried by the test of experience, with the result that the "Forward" policy no longer exists as a practicable one. Twice has it tried to conquer Afghanistan, and on both occasions it has failed dismally. Then it had recourse to the expedient of keeping open the road to Herat by means of an alliance with the Amir, and this also has failed. The road is barred and Herat lies at the mercy of Russia. We have, therefore, no alternative except to frankly accept the policy of Sir John Lawrence, Sir Charles Napier, and Sir James Outram.

There is unhappily small chance of this alternative being frankly and fully accepted. And herein lies the danger of the situation. The determination of the policy that the nation shall pursue in Afghanistan and Central Asia does not rest with Cabinets, Parliaments, or the nation, but with the Anglo-Indian Bureaucracy; and there is no delusion too extravagant for this Bureaucracy to entertain as a reasonable conviction. Despite our recent experiences in Afghanistan, when it was found impossible to move large bodies of troops on account of the scarcity of food and the frightful mortality among the transport animals, the military authorities in India anticipated no great difficulty in transporting 50,000 men from Quetta to Herat. And just as they counted upon the cordial coöperation of the Afghans, so did they persuade themselves that an English force appearing in Central Asia would be the signal for a general rising of the Asiatic subjects of Russia. Under the influence of these fantastic dreams they converted Sir Peter Lumsden's mission into a display of military force, and an occasion for bribing the Turcomans wholesale to become the allies of Great Britain in the event of a war. The Indian authorities have, in short, worked for war all along, and are naturally much chagrined that their labors have been unavailing. To abandon our entangling engagements with a puppet Amir and rest contented for the future with the natural frontier of India, would be a confession of error on their part which they have no intention of making. The Amir, on the contrary, is to be more largely subsidized than ever. English officers are, at this moment, in Herat to strengthen the fortifications, and the army of Afghanistan is to be rearmed, at the expense of the Indian ryot, with Sniders and Martini-Henrys. This is precisely the policy that was adopted toward the unfortunate Shir Ali, and it must terminate in the same way. Shir Ali was fed for many years with sub-

sidies which hee xpended, as Abd-ur-Rahman Khan will expend them, in casting a prodigious quantity of artillery, in arming his troops with improved rifles—in making himself, in a word, "strong and independent"; and his country was invaded and he himself chased from his capital because he had become too strong and too independent. A similar fate assuredly awaits Abd-ur-Rahman Khan, and it is probably a fore-feeling of this which has made him so willing to cede Panjdeh to Russia, and so loth to take notice of the battle on the Khushk River. It is well, he thinks, to secure the support of England, but neither is it amiss to keep on good terms with Russia as well. An earthen pitcher between two brass pots must move very circumspectly indeed if it is not to be crushed to atoms. The greater the pressure on the English side, the more will Abd-ur-Rahman Khan bed riven to incline toward Russia—of whom, it must not be forgotten, he was a long time the guest and pensioner; and it is this that renders a third invasion of Afghanistan from India certain to be undertaken by the Indian Bureaucracy at no distant date.

R. D. Osborn, Lieut.-Colonel.

Correspondence.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM CATALOGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to correct two errors in the notice of the printed catalogue of the British Museum in your number of April 16? The printing of the general catalogue was commenced in 1881, not 1875; so that the 330,000 printed titles represent four years' work instead of ten. The years 1813 and 1819 are not the dates of two distinct editions of the catalogue, but of the publication of the first and last volumes of the catalogue prepared by Sir Henry Ellis and Mr. Baker.—Yours very truly,

R. Garnett.

London, May 12, 1885.

GARBLED "OPINIONS OF THE PRESS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have received this week two copies of a pamphlet published by E. H. Butler & Co., and purporting to contain "Opinions of the Press" on Mr. Scudder's 'History of the United States.' On the inside of the cover is a portion of the notice which I had the honor to write for the *Nation*. The publishers are not content with extracting what I said in praise of Mr. Scudder's book and omitting the rest, as they might, not reprehensibly, have done. They have selected and joined their extracts with improperly skilful ingenuity, so as to make the *Nation* appear to praise Mr. Scudder for one of the very characteristics which I thought, and still think, is a decided fault—a certain air of dreamy, artificial childishness and "writing down." This they have done with no signs of omission, *such as they give in other notices of the same book* when they do not copy entire.

We all know how publishers write all over the country for "opinions" of schoolbooks, which afterward appear in advertisement pages as columns of unmixed eulogy. But it is carrying it a little too far thus to patch, with no signs of omission, the criticisms in a really critical periodical.

The Reviewer.

Quincy, Mass., May 20, 1885.

JURY EVIDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While agreeing in the main with your editorial on the Munsell case, can it be correctly said that "any knowledge a juror has of the facts of a case he is sworn to try, he is bound to use in consultation"? I will illustrate my meaning by an actual example: A man was sued here for the conversion of his neighbor's cow. The evidence was all in and the jury retired to their room. Suddenly one of them remembered he had seen this man with this cow, and he told his fellow-jurymen.

Some of them doubted the propriety of this as evidence, and, after discussion, they sent word to the Judge that they wished further instructions. They filed back into the court-room and their foreman explained the matter, and asked the Judge what they should do. The Judge directed them to pay no attention to the recollection of the juror, as it was not in evidence before them, not having been given under oath nor under cross-examination.

The jury disagreed, the case was tried again at the next term of the court, and this juror was summoned as a witness and gave his testimony under oath. But under cross-examination he broke down entirely, and it turned out that it was another cow or another date he testified to, and the jury found for the defendant.

This instance well illustrates the danger of allowing a jury to consider any evidence except such as is given before them under oath and subject to cross-examination.—Yours truly,

A. M. E.

Providence, R. I., May 25, 1885.

[Here the juryman evidently had *not* knowledge. Our position was in regard to one who had.—Ed. Nation.]

THE WORKINGMEN AND THE CHURCHES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While I have not seen the article in the *Independent* answering your recent editorial on the alienation of the working classes from the churches, and so cannot claim to have heard both sides of the question, yet there can be little doubt that the general belief as to the facts strongly corroborates your statements. There are many reasons to be given for this condition of affairs, but one of the strongest is made very apparent by placing in juxtaposition two of the sentences you quote in your issue of May 21 from the Rev. Mr. Schauffler: "We find that the churches constantly tend to crowd their way into certain favored localities where, for various reasons, they can easily maintain themselves." "These poorer classes, herded together in huge tenement houses, have been for the most part left alone by the Christian community." In other words, the modern system—what has been well called the club-house system—of building and maintaining churches has been, I contend, one of the most potent causes of the disproportion between the growth of the population and of the church-going part of it.

Briefly, and speaking generally, this system works thus: A new part of a city is built up with "fine" houses; some of the wealthy citizens join together to build a church for themselves to worship in, and then, having had the building dedicated to the service of Him who they profess to believe is no respecter of persons, they perform the extraordinary inconsistency of dividing it up into small portions, called pews, which are rented or sold to those who can best afford to pay for them, leaving those who cannot out in the cold. This is called the business-like way of managing religious affairs, and truly so, if the object of church-building is to provide for one's own comfort; but would not such a system cause considerable astonishment (to say the least of it) to St. Paul or St. James, and their fellow-workers, whose teachings our pewholders profess to reverence? Perhaps, sir, you, whom I may be permitted to call somewhat of a Philistine, will not agree with me; but considerable acquaintance with the working classes leads me to believe this false method of carrying on religious work has quite as much to do with their indifference to church-going as infidelity of any and all kinds put together.—Respectfully,

Free Churchman.

Philadelphia, May 24, 1885.

CLARA BELL'S TRANSLATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A question having been raised as to the excellence of Clara Bell's translations, I enclose specimens from 'Uarda' which may do somewhat toward settling the doubt as regards accuracy. For the rest, every one will judge according to his notion of what constitutes a good style. Similar examples of unfaithfulness, if I mistake not, might be adduced from nearly every page. I call your attention to a few (more noteworthy when read in connection with the context than when taken in detached passages), that you may make use of them should it suit you to do so.

Yours truly, T. L. Lee.

Washington, May 22.

Aus der Zeit *von dem Grossvater des regierenden Königsentthronten Königsfamilie.*	the deposed royal race of the reigning king's grandfather.
Hast du ihm wenigstens Schebtifiguren mit ins Grab gegeben?	Did you bury the least bit of an image in his grave?
in die Nähe des Pharao, dem Leben, Heil und Gesundheit blühe.	the neighborhood of the Pharaoh, where life, happiness, and safety flourish.
Die Trennung, sagt das Sprüchwort, *ist der treue Feind.*	is the one enemy.
So ist die Würde des Mohar *erblich* wie die eines Reichsfürsten?	Is the rank of Mohar, then, *as high as* that of a prince of the empire?
eine Schaar von Stockträgern *zur Antreibung der Säumigen.*	to drive off the idle populace.
besonders zierlich erschien bei den Grösseren unter ihnen die Biegung des den Krug im Gleichgewicht haltenden Armes.	Nothing could be more graceful than the action with which the taller ones bent over with the water-jars held in both arms to the drinker.
da nahm ich mir vor den Baum zu neuem Leben zu erwecken.	I perceived that the tree was rising to new life.
Zaudernd, fast widerwillig.	Horror, almost aversion.
jählings.	timidly.
Ich weise sie nicht zurück.	I do not do them credit.
die Klippen nahmen *ähnliche Formen* an.	a semblance of life.
schalkhaft und doch nicht ohne Bitterkeit lächelnd.	with a smile full of meaning but without bitterness.
vertraulich.	in joke.
mit hohen Thorbauten verziert.	fortified with towers.
In wenigen Wochen würdest Du die Anstalt ohnehin verlassen, *und, so befahl es der König, dem Leben blühe, Heil und Kraft, das Uebungslager der Wagenkämpfer bezogen haben.*	and by the king's command have transferred your blooming health, life, and strength to the exercising ground of the chariot brigade.
ein freundliches Herz, das *nichts verbrochen als ihn zu lieben.*	never ceased to love him.
er dachte nicht mehr an die Verunreinigung die Bent-Anat von Seiten des Paraschiten dröhe, *sondern ausschliesslich an die Entweihung welche von* IHRER *Seite den heiligen in diesem stillen Raume lebendigen Gefühlen bevorstand.*	but exclusively, on the contrary, on the initiation which she might derive from the holy feelings that were astir in the silent room.
der Arzt, welcher *den Vorwurf des Zwerges nicht unberechtigt fand.*	thought the dwarf's reproach uncalled for.

CABINET RESPONSIBILITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As I expected, "B." resorts to the toothache for his counter argument. This being so, it remains to be shown who proposes to cut off

the patient's head, and who to remove the unsound tooth. He says, "It would be a public misfortune to create a belief that Presidential and Cabinet responsibility cannot be fixed without action by Congress." I cannot see the misfortune of leading the public to believe what is true. On the contrary, the real misfortune is that the present working of the Government only serves to disguise the real truth from the people, and to leave them in the condition of not knowing what to believe.

According to "B.'s" own showing, the responsibility for all appointments now comes back to the President. It is he who is to warn the Cabinet against bad appointments, to compel them to revoke any such if made, and to punish them if they do not yield. It is important to understand fully what this means. It means that in many thousands of cases the President has to decide, of his own motion, what *is* a bad appointment. He has to do this, not according to any fixed rules, but according to an arbitrary and indefinite standard of what constitutes good and bad conduct in office—a perfectly undetermined limit, within which party claims are to be considered, with the absolute certainty that, whatever he does, one section of the press will raise a howl. It is useless to say that this is of no consequence, for in fact there is nothing by which the Administration at this time can be judged except the appointments, while the public have no means of judging except by what the papers say. As newspaper controversy for the President is out of the question, no word of explanation or defence is possible, no matter how bitter or how insidious the attacks may be.

Again, how is the President's control over his Cabinet to be exercised? Suppose they take a different view from his of party obligations, and commit offences. He may give them what we used to call in college a "private" (admonition); but if they urge necessity, and are obdurate, he has no means of coercion except dismissal, and if he has selected them for reasons of policy, he will hardly do this on account of an appointment, especially as, unless the parties get into a newspaper controversy, the public will never know or give him credit for any such Spartan virtue.

But suppose the President does keep up such a losing battle, in which he is pretty certain to displease everybody, it is not an improvement of system, but depends only upon the individual. The process may be reversed by his successor, unless the public agitation is kept at a white heat upon the civil-service question, to the exclusion of such subjects as tariff, coinage, bank, Indian, naval, and many other reforms; in other words, unless the whole strength of the country is expended upon keeping the machinery in order, with an utter disregard of the product for which that machinery is supposed to exist.

What is there so terrible, on the other hand, in the idea of Congress enforcing responsibility upon the Cabinet and the President? It seems to me that that is one of the main reasons of the existence of Congress. The enforcement of responsibility would be just as much the other way. Each side would stand guard over the other, the public looking on as arbiter. Then for the first time we should get the true popular judgment, because for the first time the people would know the merits of the case. Let us leave, however, the abstract for the concrete. Suppose the Secretary had to meet Congress face to face next December. The first thing he would encounter would be inquiries, not from a party majority, which, if it were on his side, would by no means take such a course, but from individuals, with their spurs to win, as to his use of the offices. A man who had a clear consciousness that, though he might have made mistakes, he had acted from no motive but the public good, would have an enormous superiority over one who had used the offices for party purposes. The public would be quick to distinguish and support the purer official, while members who had tampered with the departments would be liable to have their intrigues exposed. The whole process would be so vexatious that the Cabinet would demand to have the civil service placed beyond suspicion. And the longer it was kept so, the more difficult it would become for any Administration to return to the old courses. Some years ago Lord Beaconsfield was suspected of having improperly appointed a relative to an office. The Opposition members were after him in a moment. He escaped by one of those skilful evolutions of which he was such a master, but the incident was a warning to all ministers that such a thing was dangerous even for him to repeat. Not the least advantage would be that it would give the President time to devote to matters of policy, instead of having his life-blood drained by these miserable details, though he would still be in a position to warn his Cabinet of rocks ahead.

To allow the tooth to go on to ulcerate, and fester, and gangrene till it becomes fatal—this seems to me the equivalent of cutting off the patient's head; while the remedy proposed is like going to a dentist and having the pain allayed with lotions, and a good gold filling inserted, procuring the restoration of the unsound tooth to its natural function without having it pulled out at all. G. B.

Boston, May 23, 1885.

Notes.

The invaluable 'American Catalogue' initiated and successfully carried through by the late Frederick Leypoldt, included, so far as was possible, every book in print in this market up to July 1, 1876. We now greet with pleasure and with pride a continuation of the same work, on the same general plan, compiled, under the editorial direction of Mr. R. R. Bowker, by Miss A. I. Appleton. The new 'American Catalogue' (New York: Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*) preserves for all time the titles of books that have appeared since the above-mentioned date to July 1, 1884. As before, it embraces many works not strictly American—reprints and the importations of English houses having established branches in this country. The list of Government publications starts from January 1, 1881, and will prolong the list compiled up to March, 1881, by Mr. Ben. Perley Poore, from the beginning of the Republic. The latter, a vast and national undertaking, is now ready to be put in type. Another novel feature of the present Catalogue is a list of "series," and another of "societies" which publish. Finally, we remark that three ladies have borne the burden of this most important and creditable contribution to American bibliography.

We bespeak support for another praiseworthy bibliographical undertaking, 'The Issues of the Press in Pennsylvania: 1685-1784,' in two volumes, by Charles R. Hildeburn, Philadelphia. The work aims "to present full and accurate titles and collations of all the books, pamphlets, and broadsides printed in Pennsylvania during the hundred years following the introduction of printing into the middle colonies." The 4,000 titles already collected will be arranged chronologically and fully indexed.

D. Appleton & Co. announce that the second volume of McMaster's 'History of the United States' (1790-1804) will be ready for delivery about June 1. They also announce 'Colonel Enderby's Wife,' by Mrs. Harrison, daughter of Charles Kingsley and author of 'Mrs. Lorimer'; 'The Tinted Venus: a Farcical Romance,' by F. Anstey; and 'The Common Sense of the Exact Sciences,' by the late William Kingdon Clifford.

Messrs. Macmillan have stated their willingness to publish the MS. of the second part of the late Professor Clifford's 'Elements of Dynamics,' and, after a reëxamination of it, his literary executor, Prof. R. Tucker, intends putting the work into their hands for printing. When this book is got out and other lectures recently come into the hands of Professor Tucker have been published, the mathematical world will be in possession of all that can be now looked for from the hand of this great master.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, will publish next month a new 'Elementary Physiology,' with special reference to the effects of alcohol and tobacco, by Richard J. Dunglison, M.D.; a new and revised edition of the 'Children's Book of Poetry,' compiled by Henry T. Coates; and a new edition of Smith's 'Bible Dictionary,' edited by Peloubet.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will issue the Book of Psalms, according to the preferred version of the American revisers of the Old Testament.

A 'Riverside Parallel Bible,' with old and new versions side by side, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They will also publish shortly a collection of papers on birds and bird-life, called 'Birds in the Bush,' by Bradford Torrey, of Boston.

A new work, chiefly relating to Alaska and the Alaskans, is in preparation by Miss Margaretha Weppner, author of 'The North Star and the Southern Cross.' She has resided among that people for a considerable time.

A paper-cover "Traveller's Series" issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons is introduced by J. J. Jarves's 'Italian Rambles,' Edmondo de Amicis's 'Studies of Paris,' and H. M. Robinson's 'The Great Fur Land.' The last is a timely revival, and Amicis's work hardly less so, considering its long "appreciation" of the late Victor Hugo.

Three more of the dainty volumes of the Riverside Aldine Series have reached our table. Mr. John Burroughs's 'Wake-Robin' makes one, and Mr. Howells's 'Venetian Life' fills the other two.

The New England Historic Genealogical Society (Boston) has done well to reprint in book form the already noteworthy results of Mr. Henry F. Waters's 'Genealogical Gleanings in England.' These gleanings among the probate records of the mother country began to be published in the quarterly organ of the Society, the *Register*, in July, 1883; and the volume before us covers the latest instalment in the number for April, 1885. An index of names has been furnished which makes the volume available to the many—to a multitude, we might say. To this work, which is called part 1 of vol. i, and its successors all seekers after a connection between American and English families of the same name must hereafter turn first of all. It marks a new era in the study of genealogy. Moreover, Mr. Waters's incidental discovery of historical documents has already been worth the whole cost of his maintenance up to this time. The fund which the Society has raised for this purpose ought to be recruited from every purchaser of the present work.

Mr. Fitzgerald Molloy's 'Court Life Below-Stairs; or, London under the Last Georges, 1760-1830' (Scribner & Welford) is in continuation of a former work in which the scandalous lives of the first two Georges were fluently compiled from all sorts of sources. It has the same quality of readableness and substantial authenticity, but the work does not appeal to the student of history. Dates are rare, there are no footnotes, nor any precise references for the quotations; there is no index, nor even a table of contents. The

narrative is as decent as the subject and the author's aim at piquancy permit.

In everything that proceeds from Mr. Hamerton's pen, the literary quality predominates over the technical, even when art is his chosen topic. This is eminently the case with his 'Landscape,' which we recently reviewed at length from the illustrated *édition de luxe*. Hence the work suffers little as a mental delight when reduced to bare simplicity of print, without pictures. It is issued in their familiar form of this author's works by Roberts Bros., Boston, with Mr. Hamerton's consent and approbation. As such, it makes a compact volume of 440 pages, index included.

From the same publishers we have Pascoe's 'London of To-day,' an unconventional guide-book, with humorous illustrations in the text, and several full-page process reproductions of photographs, one of the lions in Trafalgar Square being a favorable example. The orderly arrangement as shown in the table of contents does not quite compensate for the lack of an index.

The 'Ingoldsby Legends' have been brought out by T. Y. Crowell & Co., in a red-line and gilt-edge edition.

A stout volume containing the 'Seven Lamps of Architecture,' 'Lectures on Architecture and Painting,' 'The Queen of the Air,' and 'The Ethics of the Dust,' is issued by John B. Alden as a sample of his illustrated library edition of Ruskin's works. The print is clear, and the illustrations fairly good process-work; but if both were better, they would not reconcile the author to this unauthorized reprint.

Mr. Christern sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Salon for the present year, containing the usual memorandum sketches, some 300 in number out of a total of 4,338 pieces.

We can hardly keep pace with the issues of the several German lexicons now publishing simultaneously. The lesser Brockhaus ('Kleines Conversations-Lexikon,' New York: L W. Schmidt), has reached its sixth part, ending with "George Bancroft," the pronunciation of whose name, by the way, is indicated for the first syllable by "bännk"—not quite accurately. Parts 2-4 of the fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon' (Westermann), end in *Akkord*, and chance to embrace three burning topics of the day—Egypt, Afghanistan, and Africa, all treated with great fulness, and the first accompanied by a fine general map together with one of Alexandria. Athens, also, is mapped, for the ancient and the modern city. Other important articles are those on the nobility (*Adel*), and on the various learned academies the world over. American biography is well looked after under Adams and Agassiz.

Great pretensions are made by the new *Deutsche Encyklopädie* (Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: Westermann). Its form is larger than the lexicons just noticed, with broad double columns, and each of the hundred parts is sold here for twenty-five cents. Illustrations and maps outside the text are to be discarded. The writers sign their articles. Special attention is paid to the bibliography of the several topics. The traditional scheme of the French encyclopædias is abandoned in favor of a more free and living compilation. Just how much more this means than that the editors will carry out their own ideas of what such a work should contain, it is not easy to determine from Part 1. Still it is clear that the difference as to contents will be considerable, that the work will be cheap, and that the writers—a formidable list—are competent.

The two leading articles in *Le Livre* for April are by G. F. Vidocq fils and L. Derome. Though the former adds "bibliophile" to his signature, it does not surprise one to find his subject to be "La Police par les Policiers"—a bibliographical contribution to a history of the police. Of the Memoirs of Vidocq (1828) he says that they manifest more imagination than literary aptitude. M. Derome, on the other hand, portrays, not very skilfully, the life and character of Lacurne de Sainte-Palaye, a forerunner of Littré, who had the use of the former's great MS. collection lately published under the title, 'Dictionnaire historique du vieux langage françois,' a glossary coming down to the age of Louis XIV. An interesting etched portrait of Sainte-Palaye and his twin brother, from the original painting in the musum, at Auxerre, accompanies M. Derome's narrative.

The "misused H" comes ludicrously to the front in a report of the doings of Parliament in the London *Times* of May 6. Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice is alleged to have made a statement concerning Sir W. *Hay* White, the present British Chargé d'Affaires at Constantinople. William Arthur is the name of this accomplished diplomatist. Whether Lord E. Fitzmaurice or the reporter (by oral transmission) is responsible for the aspiration of Sir W. A. White's middle initial, it is not for us to determine.

Mr. Edmund Gosse's services to Scandinavian literature have been handsomely repaid by a very elaborate bibliography of his writings from the pen of Mr. Thorvald Solberg, printed in the *Literary World* for May 16.

In a recent issue of *Nature*, Professor Ewing, of the University College, Dundee, relates the very interesting circumstances of an unusually great earthquake felt in the region in and about Tokio, Japan, on October 15, 1884. A reduced copy of the autographic record of the disturbance, made with the seismograph of the Observatory of Tokio, presents the prominent features of the earthquake in a most striking manner, as it is shown that in the present case the amplitude of the earth's horizontal movement far exceeds anything that has been recorded since observations of this kind were instituted in 1880. The delicate seismic apparatus indicated a movement of the ground, from one side to the other, of no less than 4.3 centimetres; and while the most violent motions were over in about ten seconds, the oscillations continued for some minutes thereafter, with a very extended amplitude. These being unusually slow, the earthquake was prevented from being excessively destructive. It was felt over an area of about 20,000 square miles.

Rev. Dr. Hyde, of Honolulu, writes that an effort is to be made by educated men there to establish a society for the study of the archæology and philology of Oceanica.

The Proceedings for May of the Royal Geographical Society contain a third paper of "Geographical Notes," by Major Holdich, of the Afghan Boundary Commission, descriptive of the country lying between Herat and Panjdeh. The Russian envoy, M. Lessar, was present, and opened the discussion which followed the paper (written of course before the engagement at Puli-Khisti), with a fuller account of the soil of the country, and an explanation that the changes in the Russian maps were simply owing to the results obtained by recent surveys. Sir Henry Rawlinson, who was Resident at Herat in 1841, spoke of this city and what was necessary for its defence against a European army, and gave his understanding of the boundary line agreed upon in virtue of "a certain political arrangement" in 1872. This statement was corroborated by Sir Richard Temple, who said that "He was a member of the Government of India when that boundary was settled, and nothing could be more explicit than the understanding that it ran from Sarakhs on one side to Khoja-Saleh on the Oxus, and that the line was to be drawn as straight as an arrow." He also strongly commented on the lack of accurate geographical knowledge in the English service, especially as compared with that shown by Russian officers, leading to "political consequences that frequently placed England at a great disadvantage."

In the same number is an elaborate discussion of the purely geographical problem of the outlet of the great Tibetan river, the Sanpo. Mr. Robert Gordon, a civil engineer and author of the valuable 'Report on the Irawadi River,' favors the Irawadi, chiefly on account of its enormous water-discharge. General Walker, late head of the Indian Survey Department, on the other hand, asserts that the Sanpo is the head-waters of the Brahmaputra. In this opinion he is supported by nearly all recent authorities. Each speaker, however, held that the observations made by the last explorer of those regions, the Pandit A——k, supported his view. The difficulty of settling this question lies in the fact that the mountains through which the Sanpo runs after it leaves the central table-land, are held by a savage race who have hitherto successfully prevented the passage by the river from Tibet to India of any traveller, whether European or native.

Wise people when they go to Rome do as the Romans do. The English carry this a step further: when they go to Egypt they do as the Romans did. They establish a camel corps, just as the Romans established the *Ala prima Valeria dromedariorum* and the *Ala Antana dromedariorum*. The French antiquaries have been the first to point it out.

The attention of Anglo-Saxon scholars should be called to a very important bibliography of Anglo-Saxon literature just published by Professor R. Wülker, of Leipzig ('Grundriss zur Geschichte der Angelsächsischen Litteratur,' Leipzig). Volume i, so far as printed, gives exhaustive lists, with comments, of all works hitherto printed on the subject (1) of old English linguistics, (2) aids to the study of both language and literature, (3) bibliography of publications (essays, dissertations, texts) connected with Cædmon and his circle, Bede's death-song, Cynewulf and his circle, and the Exeter Book. These lists, with the discriminating remarks which accompany every important book or essay, are simply invaluable to the historical student of English. Nothing seems to have escaped the vigilant eye of the Leipzig professor. The work of American scholars in this particular field is cordially recognized, and contrasted with the apathy that has long existed in England. Colleges and universities which are making collections for their alcoves of *Anglo-Saxonica* will find this manual—for such it is—indispen able.

—The reviewer of Lenormant's 'Monnaies et Médailles,' in No. 1034 of the *Nation*, sends us from London, on May 15, the following comment on M. Feuardent's remarks about the striking of ancient coins in No. 1035:

"There is no evidence that coins were struck hot, and the appearance of the great majority of Greek coins distinctly negatives the theory. Silver, like bronze, requires to be annealed after drawing, hammering, or striking before it can be struck again, and there are numerous cases which show that the coins were struck more than once before the impression was complete. The striking of either of these metals, and to a certain extent of gold also, at a high heat is impossible, for they fly into fragments. When annealed, they may possibly be struck at a moderate temperature, short of entire cooling, but there is absolutely no evidence whatever of such having been the case in the coins themselves. I have just examined what are known as the 'reticulated' coins in the British Museum, and am entirely convinced that the so-called reticulation (which occurs on the reverse of the incused coins only) is simply the half-effaced indication of the preparation of the flan either by a toothed hammer, which will spread the metal better than a

smooth one, or by the use of something analogous to a file for reducing the weight; but in either case by the producing of a roughened surface, and subsequently striking it with a polished instrument and the incuse punch. For the 'reticulation' is always nearly effaced, and is a rare thing in any state, while no trace of it is seen in the obverse or relief of the coin where, if it were the effect of hot coinage, it should equally appear. Nor are the experienced numismatists of the British Museum, certainly as high authorities on such a matter as any in the world, of the opinion that the coins show any evidence of hot coinage. In striking pure silver, which is of extreme softness, there is no utility in hot striking, as the bronze dies, by heating from the contact with the hot metal, would deteriorate far more than would be compensated by any advantage supposed to be derived from heating the coin metal, while the cold metal gives a better impression even than the moderately hot."

—We regard it as a very hopeful sign that the pastor of a church in Providence, R. I., should have felt moved to institute a public course of lectures on political and economic topics, under the auspices and at the expense of his parish. Observation of the late Presidential campaign naturally led him to reflect on the narrow and unintelligent view of the great questions involved taken by the newest class of voters. It then seemed to him that his church, at least, had a function unfulfilled, so long as the young men whom it could reach went uninstructed in the duties and privileges of citizenship. The result was an unpretentious series of discourses—mostly by citizens of the town—on "The Study of Political Economy," "The Organization and Administration of the Federal Government," "The Relations of the Citizen to the National Government," "The Spirit of the Common Law as seen in its Maxims," "How are Inventors Protected?" "Free Trade," "The Nation's Resources," "Communism and Socialism," "Wages, Strikes, and Labor Unions," "A Protective Tariff," "The Banking System and Monetary Exchange," "A Study of the Constitutional History of Rhode Island," "How the Law is Applied by Lawyers, Judges, and Jurors to the Protection of Private Rights," "City Government." The course, begun in November last, has just closed or is about closing. In order to sustain the interest felt by the auditors, and to stimulate further and original study of the topics discussed, a pamphlet has been prepared for gratuitous distribution, consisting of "References to Political and Economic Topics," in the sequence of the several lectures. These have been prepared, with his accustomed thoroughness, by Mr. William E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, himself one of the lecturers; and not only are the proper works cited, but the public libraries in which they may be consulted are duly indicated. We have heard a good deal about the coöperation of the common schools and the public library, but less about a similar partnership between the public library and the churches. We commend the Providence experiment in this respect, as well as for its example of intervention by the pulpit in politics, in a perfectly unobjectionable way.

—In a long article entitled "Three Modern Authors," contributed by Helena Nyblom to the January number of *Ny Svensk Tidskrift*, ten pages are devoted to a favorable notice of Henry James as a novelist, more especially reviewing the recent Swedish translation, by Erik G. Folcker, of 'The American.' The rarity with which one meets with a happy book, the writer thinks, is due to the fact that, with mankind as with the individual, it becomes impossible, growing steadily older, to look upon life with the bright hopefulness which belongs only to youth. With years come bitter experiences, and with these the sharpened sight which sees that everything that glitters is not gold. It is therefore natural that the youngest people should be the most cheerful, and hence American authors possess, as yet, the whole charm of youth in their perceptions of life. There is no bitterness in their interpretations of the sorrowful circumstances or misfortunes which they may depict—no hopelessness in their view of life—because they have a belief in the future, as well for the individual as for the race, and because they are, "first and foremost, true men, who neither see double nor half, but, with a pair of strong, clear-seeing eyes, look directly upon nature itself. They possess that freshness which belongs to the Anglo-Saxon race in its best utterances, good nature, a warm, hearty feeling, a large portion of humor, which can change into a noble pathos, but which never becomes sentimental, and is never raw—men who believe in human instincts, and for whom such words as religion, duty, and culture are not entirely old-fashioned, but stand for eternal principles." But Europeans belong to a *blasé* race, an old and tired society, and so, also, are nearly all their authors old and tired, sour or melancholy. It is not *comme il faut* for a Scandinavian writer who wishes to be considered interesting, to exhibit in his books any joy of life.

—To this vitiated taste is to be ascribed the lack of interest manifested by Scandinavians in modern American literary work, the simplicity of which cannot satisfy readers brought up on the highly seasoned literary diet of Europe. The reviewer complains that the Scandinavians, notwithstanding the peculiar interest which they have always taken in things American, have gone to little trouble to acquaint themselves with the modern American authors. When, however, she enumerates the works of Mark Twain, Bret Harte's stories, Howells's 'The Lady of the Aroostook,' and two novels by James ('Roderick Hudson,' and 'The American'), as a complete list of the Scandinavian translations of American works of fiction, she does her countrymen injustice, for to these authors can be added, among others, the names of Longfellow, Poe, Mrs. Stowe, Cooper, Cable, Aldrich, Mrs. Prentiss, Habberton, Boyesen, Miss Phelps, Miss Cummings, and Edward Eggleston. She claims for America two authors of first rank, Henry James, jr., and W. D. Howells, who are declared to be "highly gifted, original artists, who, in powers of observation and style, have not been matched by any European writer since Turgeneff. Which of these two is to be placed first is a matter of taste. They have each great merits and unusual gifts, and are complete masters of their materials." 'The American' is reviewed as a delineation of the strife between new American and old European ideas which will not unite; and the hero, Mr. Newman, is taken as a typical American, and, as such, an admirable specimen of an admired race. The two authors who complete the reviewer's trio, are Henrik Ibsen, whose last drama "Vildanden" (The Wild Duck) is noticed; and Turgeneff, whose novel 'Elena' is reviewed in a late Swedish translation.

—When Mr. Albert M. Palmer passed from the Union Square Theatre to the Madison Square, people were surprised, and it was predicted that he would fail because his success had been obtained with the French style of drama, and the Madison Square audience were accustomed to and cared only for highly moral dramas. Whether that public changed its taste, or a new set of theatre-goers came, the new policy was pecuniarily highly profitable. The man who succeeds is, of course and necessarily, the man who is in harmony with his age; who floats on the world-current; who feels, consciously or unconsciously, what is and what is to be the trend of the public taste. Mr. Palmer is really taking advantage of a universal tendency. To say nothing of England, where it is evident enough, and France, which is the source of all the evil—if evil it is—Germany has entirely revolutionized its theatrical habits. In Berlin, where, thirty years ago, six theatres were half empty, now more than a dozen large theatres and several smaller ones are crowded, especially on Sunday. And the reason is that the theatre no longer attempts to preach morals or to teach politics: it is content to amuse, by story, by scenery, by costume, and in some theatres by want of costume. The idea that the stage can and should have an elevating influence has vanished, say the pessimists. The enthusiastic young men who could share the aspirations of Wilhelm Meister are not to be found nowadays; if any capable of such *Schwärmerei* exist, they are utterly without influence—too few to dare to raise their voices. Indeed, in the present surroundings, it would be impossible that such capacity should be developed. So laments the critic of the *Rundschau* in Germany. In this country the critics are gradually ceasing to lament.

—The Slavs of both the Catholic and Greek persuasions have been celebrating the thousandth anniversary of the death of St. Methodius, "the Apostle to the Slavs," who is believed to have died in 885. Methodius, like his brother and coworker Cyril, who is considered the inventor of one of the Old-Slavic or Church-Slavic alphabets, is a saint of both churches, the two brothers having been Byzantines by birth and education, and Apostles under the direction of the Popes of Rome, at a time when the great religious schism between the East and West was, through the ambition of the Patriarch Photius, rapidly approaching consummation, but not yet consummated. They converted the people of "Great Moravia" and other western Slavs to Christianity, preaching to them in their vernacular, teaching them the art of reading and writing, translating the Gospels, and thus laying the very first foundations of Slavic literature. Hence it is but natural that Russians and Poles, for instance—though their conversion is of later date—should vie with Bulgarians, Czechs, and Serbs in paying honor to their memory. The celebration is, however, far from being carried on in concord. On the contrary, it has assumed a character of rivalry with pronounced antagonism, the dividing line being both religious and political. The Czechs, Poles, Slovenes, Croats—all Catholics—have selected Velehrad, a small town of Moravia, for the centre of their celebration, and turn their gatherings into a demonstration in favor of West-Slavic federation under the auspices of Austria; while the celebration which took place in the latter part of last month at St. Petersburg was intended to be a declaration in favor of Panslavic union under the ægis of the Czars. The St. Petersburg assemblage was an impoisng affair, directed by the Slavic Benevolent Society, and attended by deputations from Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and even Austrian Galicia; but, failing to enlist the sympathies of Catholic Slavs, it failed of its political object. Conspicuous among the foreign visitors were the Servian ex-Premier Ristitch and the Ruthene Naumowicz—both well-known enemies of Austria.

—"Terror ceased, laughter and scepticism began, with Boccaccio," said an Italian epigrammatist—a judgment which partially sums up the beliefs of one school of *Boccaccisti*. On the other hand, there is a rancorous controversy prevailing in this *petit monde* of Boccaccio lovers and students upon the vexed question how far the delightful story-teller really was in advance of his age; how far he believed in the superstitions commonly credited by his contemporaries; and what part of his life and career—if any—showed themselves particularly open to suggestions of the

supernatural, to astrological vagaries, and to belief in dreams and portents. Anton Graf, in a recent number of the *Nuova Antologia*, descends vigorously into the mêlée, and triumphantly vindicates his favorite from the charge of excessive superstitiousness. Körting had tried to prove that Boccaccio was a profound believer in dreams, in the spirit of prophecy as communicated to dying persons, in astrology, in strabism of the eyes as indicative of a perverse disposition, and in apparitions of devils under the disguise of exorcised spirits. He was held, also, to believe that Æneas had really descended into hell, and that Virgil was a constructor of magical machines, etc. Graf shows that these charges are only partially true, and that the 'Decamerone' is a just picture of human life in Italy in the thirteenth century, mirroring all its phases, aspects, and beliefs, without necessarily bringing its author under the compulsion of believing what he simply reflects in his wondrous looking-glass. He shows pretty conclusively, in fact, that Boccaccio, *quoad* superstition, is not only far behind his age in credulity and in appetency for the marvellous, but that one great purpose of his matchless art was to ridicule and smile out of existence the gross follies and absurdities in which monks and burghers of that age alike believed. Boccaccio may stand behind the more enlightened Petrarch in positive denunciation of these things, but he is not far behind him; and it is unjust and unhistorical to place one thinker and artist on the highest summit of sane and illuminated thought, while the other grovels below in the valley of superstition. Neither writer is absolutely new and free: both are bound to the past; both revolve in and around it. Boccaccio, to be sure, grew old and recanted, turned his back on the delicious creations of his prime, and tried to cast the mantle of piety and asceticism over the too luxuriant imagination and humor of the 'Decamerone.' But—Boccaccio was old; that is all. And old people are notoriously prone to "take back" things—"go back on themselves," in modern parlance—and abjure their juvenile follies. In his prime Boccaccio was really an iconoclast, and even an advanced liberal.

BAIRD'S HUGUENOT EMIGRATION.

History of the Huguenot Emigration to America. By Charles W. Baird, D.D. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1885. 2 vols., pp. 354, 448.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes will doubtless long remain one of the greatest evidences of national bigotry which English-speaking historians can cite. Although its influence was greatest in France, it may be doubted if even now the full importance of the act is felt by Frenchmen. France is still Catholic, and the ill-timed victory of that faith is naturally passed over as quietly as possible by her historians. But in English literature, on the contrary, an undue prominence is given to the matter, partly from the lack of a parallel case in British history, and partly from the continuance of a genuine sympathy for the sufferers in the cause of Protestantism. It is always impossible to predict the event which will first seize upon the popular mind and memory, but certainly the relative importance or value of the matter seems to have little to do with it. The Covenanters, the Cavaliers, the Huguenots, the Acadians—each group has a prominence in history hard to explain, but undeniable. Despite the enthusiasm of historians, it is impossible to prove that the influx of Huguenots into Great Britain influenced in any degree the affairs of that nation; and it may be added that in the Northern colonies of our own country the effect of the immigration is almost or quite imperceptible. In New England, certainly, the Huguenots disappeared as a distinct element in the second generation, not from any dislike on the part of their English hosts, but because their distinctive points could not be maintained. The very warmth and fulness of their reception extinguished all national peculiarities. Here and there can be traced to-day the distorted signs of French patronymics, but the bearers are apt to be most unmistakably Yankees. Like the Normans in Ireland, more Irish than the Irish themselves, the Huguenot has become a component part of the nation.

Owing to the inexplicable vagaries of fashion, there has recently been a revival of interest in the history of this immigration, and Doctor Baird's handsome volumes not only are a sign thereof, but will be the means, doubtless, of extending the feeling. The family records of many a name will be explored, and many a man will take a new interest in one of his many great-grandmothers. It is a good thing to awake such an interest: the records will be of a community pure, devout, and brave; but we must not be led into an overestimate of its importance. The fact cannot be too plainly set forth that the French immigration was vastly inferior to the English in amount, in quality, and in results. So far as we can judge, had a Huguenot colony been attempted independent of English foundation and preparation, it would have utterly failed. Parkman has shown the limited success of French Catholic colonies, fostered by the Church and the State; deprived of such powerful support, what could the fugitives from Rochelle have established?

In looking through Doctor Baird's volumes, the reader is at once reminded of the great difference between France and England. In the latter country we find a society of infinite gradations, socially, from the highest to the lowest, all connected by ties of blood and community of interest. In France there was a nobility and a peasantry, with hardly a trace of intermediate classes. It is not without reason that history is so taken up with the records of the rich: the individual disappears in the lower ranks. The philosophical student nowadays affects to despise the records of courts and parliaments, and clamors for the history of the people; but the most he attains is a record of the shifting sands that have obliterated villages, of the insatiate waves that have engulfed the seaside cliffs. Results appear, but the instruments are lost. And the more closely the work of nations approximates to that of the mighty powers of nature, so much more scanty and monotonous must be their annals. Circumstances, perhaps, have favored the English race, but it seems to be replete with individuals. Each family becomes a unit, each pedigree a distinct strand in the great web. But a few years ago the historian of England's share in the Crimean War issued his volumes on a scale apparently disproportionate to the subject. Critics remarked with a sneer that every ensign who fell on Russian soil was described as fully as though he were a marshal of France. Yet this insistance on individuality goes far to explain the continuous importance of the race. "Every French soldier carries his marshal's baton in his knapsack"; but if he miss of the supreme end, he falls unrecognized.

In the history of the Huguenots we find mainly the brief annals of the lower classes. Few noblemen remained true to the faith under Louis XIV. The great mass of the Protestants were of the common people. They were brave, honest, and faithful to death, but they were of the class of the Covenanters rather than of the Puritans. Their history should be studied in the mass rather than in detail, so few can be segregated and the differences are so slight. It is but just to Doctor Baird to say that he seems to have done the best possible with the meagre materials in his possession. He has brought out much new information, and he has drawn touching pictures of men who relinquished every worldly blessing at the demand of their religion. But when he tries to give us the details of their history, the wherewithal is lacking. A scanty trace of one or two generations in France can be found in a few cases, but in others all that remains is the mere mention of the place of emigration.

If we were disposed to find any fault with the way in which Doctor Baird has performed his task, it would be in the lack of clearness in his arrangement. His citation of authorities is not sufficiently ample, and his notes are too fragmentary. He treats at one time of the localities whence the emigrants came, at another of their new homes, but under neither heading does he bring together all his information into one focus. These two volumes are a valuable and interesting contribution to our history, but we venture to predict they will be more appreciated by the genealogist than the historian, and for the genealogist they do but indicate the need of further search. It may, however, well be that in treating of those Southern colonies in which the Huguenot element was more important, Doctor Baird will be able to present more valuable results. At least, so little has been done in the way of publishing local histories in those colonies, that the first comer will seem to possess the whole territory.

MARLOWE.—II.

The English Dramatists: The Works of Christopher Marlowe. Edited by A. H. Bullen, M.A. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. 3 vols.

In these plays, as might be guessed after what we have said, is no real fun-making of any sort, nor is there a single character in them capable of the making or enjoying of fun, or of knowing it when he sees or hears it. There are, indeed, certain "situations" which perhaps were meant to be funny, and most likely were so to the men of the time, who shouted their lungs out over the kings in harness and *Tamburlaine's* cry to them: "Hola, ye pampered jades of Asia!" Thus—to take an instance out of a stage direction—"*Mycetes*" (whose army is on the ground) "*comes out alone with his crown in his hand, offering to hide it,*" and *Tamburlaine*, with another great army there to fight *Mycetes*, joins him, asking: "Is this your crown?" Of unintended funniness is this, where the hitherto shepherd *Tamburlaine*, at the outset of his great march across the Eastern World, has the Princess *Zenocrate*, daughter of the Soldan of Egypt, a prisoner, beseeching him as a "shepherd" (for by his "seeming" he is "so mean a man") to "pity her distressed plight," and presently, without the slightest stay in their talking, he says:

> "Lie here, ye weeds that I disdain to wear! [his pastoral garments]
> This com'plete armor and this curtle-axe
> Are ad'juncts more befitting Tamburlaine";

as if the intermediate process—whatever it might be with a Scythian shepherd—between the wearing of a garb which betokened him so mean a man as a keeper of sheep, and the appearing in full effulgence of a warrior's armor, had been rehearsed while he stood there talking with the Soldan's daughter. Other things of this sort might be found if looked for.

Now, that the bringing in of fun and frolic to offset sharply the mournful and heart-harrowing of the play brought wondrous life-likeness into our English tragedy, others can see easily besides ourselves; and that a new zest for readers, as well as for seers and hearers, of plays in our tongue has come with that bringing-in. Our thoughtful, all-prodding, all-weighing cousin-Germans were drawn, without a will for it, to

English tragedy, and Frenchmen, too, whose kindred to us and to our tongue is further off a good deal, were drawn to it against their will. And, whatever critics may have said about "unities" and dignity, all the world likes it better, and will keep it in a warmer place in the heart, because its gloom is not all gloomy. Oneness of mood, which must last long unchanged, as of iron or clay, does not belong to men. In the glimmer of darkened rooms from which the dead has been lately borne, will come out a burst of mirthfulness at unawares, and this from no "widows of Ephesus," but from true mourners. Sometimes the merriness is a fitting and most touching element in the action and passion. In that poem truly dramatic, though no drama, and of marvellous beauty and sadness, 'The Bride of Lammermoor,' the mirth made by and through old Caleb Balderstone belongs as truly to the sadness of the tale as the white satin or silken lining, or the work in bullion thread, belongs to the black velvet of the pall.

The Greeks and Latins, as we know, unlike our own greatest writers, held these dark and light things wide apart, one from the other; keeping sad steadily to sad, merry to merry. So Frenchmen of the classic rank, whose tongue is still less than they are either Greek or Roman, have held, with might and main, to the same rule. Their French speech often stumbles in trying to march stately on sublime heights; yet one can never with their leave smile in one of their tragedies. Any funny thing must have slipped in in spite of the author (as there will be sometimes one too sly for him); but can we help smiling when the Cid, who has killed in a duel the father of his betrothed, and is now formally pursued by her as the avenger of blood, makes his way to her in some absence of the never-absent duenna of Spanish maidens, and proclaims that to his true love's champion in the lists (whom she insists upon his doing his best to kill *for his own glory's sake and to prevent her having to marry her victorious champion, who is hateful—poor fellow!*) he, the Cid, her lover, will present not his *vie*, his *âme*, his *tête*, his *cervelle*, his *poitrine*, or his *poumon*, but his "estomac ouvert," "ravished with the thought" that it is for her "honor" that he is thus putting in use his very best knowledge of anatomy?

Frenchmen, beside Molière, can make fun, and even the writers of some of their best tragedies; but never, of their own will, in their tragedies. Marlowe could not, at any time. But one thing stands out steadfast in our minds after his scenes and characters all are gone, and that is the *Verse*. With this the poet sometimes throws a flash of glory upon a mountain-top, sometimes a golden gladness over all the heavens; he pours a torrent, splashing and roaring and glittering, down a cliff's front, or through a winding glen; he shows a wood waving with green, or standing thick with cool shade; within sight of the many-towned shore he makes a sea heaving with broad-sailed, deep-hulled merchantmen, laboring toward some great mart; he draws a throbbing, boding gloom over earth and sky, or makes the spring or summer landscape cheery with bird-song and with the flitting of birds' wings. All comes to us as it went from him: the angle of reflection to the reader's eye, as elsewhere in optics, is the same as the angle of incidence from the author's mind. He can do, in verse, anything that he knows, and we see all done, and wonder at the man's strength of bodying and uttering—as great, when at its best, as in Lucretius, but not so often at its best as in Lucretius. So Marlowe made Blank Verse almost what it was ever afterward.

By the time of Shakspere's best play-writing, and, of course, long before Milton's time, that measure knew itself and was known in the realm of English poetry, and came at call in it; and it wore, always, much the same outward likeness. In Marlowe's plays we find it learning to have a life, and to live its own life; we find it growing, and taking shape and character. With him it is most often dignified, sometimes impressive and even splendid; now and then, indeed, it is fairly sublime. Often, however, Marlowe's verse is awkward and ungainly, and—alas! not seldom—laughable or paltry—coming to the ground with the thought (which it ought to have carried) underneath. This one does not like to say of a man strong and skilful, who has done much good work; but it is only plainer than most plain things that sometimes he himself, as one might do who was ashamed or afraid of having wrought some of his work too well, would with his own hand mar it after the doing. This fear or shame, though not often true of any man, might perhaps have been true of him, for his fellows and comrades were mostly a roystering, reckless, chaffing, scoffing set. Not a few of them were nasty, and slippery, and cold-blooded as fishes, and, like fishes, ready to snatch at and tear, and to gulp down in gobbets, and batten themselves upon, any unlucky one of their own kind who chanced at the time to be swimming weakly or sickly. Among such comrades a man might easily be shamed for having shown too lofty thought or too good feeling, or be afraid of showing them. In most ways Marlowe was not better than the rest: there were sad things enough about his whole life, and they were crowded thick enough about his death, to make him seem almost the worst among them.

The want in Marlowe of that finest fashioning and fitting, together from which spring freely forth, ever fresh, mirth, harmless as happy; sadness needing to be soothed; quick sorrow with those who are hurt; love, through all the blood, for what is great and true—the want of this best making-up, and the want of much growing toward it, or effort after it, as life among men went on, was likely, more than scoffing ways of his comrades, or even the "drink-drowned"-ness of "spright" (spirit) which Hall gives him, to make him mar his better work. The "spright," in that state, "rapt to the threefold loft of heaven-hight," as Hall says, might have one headlong downfall at a time, for it is unsteady, unsafe treading on the clouds, then; but not a soaring high aloft, and tumbling, and soaring, and tumbling, between lines following each other closely. The best genius, from being fully akin to others of man's kind because it has so much of mankind in it, can easily go along one or other of the many channels that lead into its fellows, and look back at itself and its work from that side. This Marlowe could not; and if it be he that tries to make us laugh, as in "Faustus" by a leg coming off the wizard, and elsewhere by such worse than clown's play, it is beyond bearing. The likelihood is that the worst of this is not his; for not only were players and playwriters wont to take and use one another's thoughts and words, much as fellows of some college-clubs borrow, without asking, of one another, and wear, shirtstuds, or neckties, or waistcoats, even, but any of them almost might write any clownery into any one's play that was on the boards, and anywhere in it. That borrowing and using Shakspere did, in a large, free way, and the putting in of what was meant to be witty or droll, to any one else's plays, was often done and known to be done; sometimes *ordered*, of some one or more who happened to have the time and will.

The history of blank verse in English is but short. We had had our ten-syllable verse in plenty—in Chaucer as well as afterward in Dryden or Pope; but everything with our fathers rhymed; for rhyme had got hold of the ear of Christendom. Their Latin measures, even, had been turning into rhyme, for hundreds of years. Happily, just as it was growing early summer to the thought and fancy of the English race, the Earl of Surrey, a gallant, clever, and accomplished knight, and a deft worker in English rhyming verse, of many sorts, found, when in Italy, a measure of another sort than any used in England. Rhythmic it was; dignified, and yet easy; free from all bondage to rhyme, where rhyming might be a bondage. Of this great fault glaring example may be found in plays (as of Racine and Corneille—great writers both) where the life-likeness is hindered very much by the rhyming of the speeches, and where a frequent change of speakers makes the sudden flinging of the rhyme from one to another tiresome and absurd.

Our English poetry, as we find it in Chaucer, is a supple, lively thing, that would bear cutting and bending and pulling, like every young language—like Homer's Greek, where the many vowels, blending sometimes, sometimes sundering; the various alternative endings; the various inflections for the same verb or noun, make it, for sweetness of sound, with freedom and strength, the most perfect vehicle for uttering thought and figure, and telling and pleading and love-speaking, and for fastening upon the memory, that ever was in the world. Our English, though never so free as Greek, and very far less melodious, yet was strong and lively in Chaucer's time, and freer than now, because it had, side by side, old forms and new of the same word; could cut off and put on, now sound a vowel and now keep it still, and had more double endings than we have. The Italian had much the same qualities, one by one, that we have given to the Greek: its verse, therefore, had much the same character as the Greek, and this whether rhyming or unrhyming. All its verse had kept the double ending, which we have so much lost, though with the Germans it is still, and may be forever, easy. In the Italian blank verse the last foot is that of the old Greek and Latin heroic and trochaic measures—a long and a doubtful syllable; its rhyming verse only takes on another grace. It has the double ending always—perhaps too much; certainly too much for any but a speech flowing with vowels. Here is a bit (unrhymed) of about the time of Surrey, taken at first glance:

> "Quindi uscian fuor voci canori e dolci
> E di cigni, e di ninfe, e di sirene;
> Di sirene celesti; e n' uscian suoni
> Soavi e chiari, e tanto altro diletto,
> Ch' attonito, godendo ed ammirando,
> Mi fermai——." —*Tasso, 'Aminta.'*

Even the eye sees the soft melody of these words; but let a gentle voice read them to the ear rightly!

This measure Surrey took, without the double ending but admitting it, and set over, into the first blank verse that ever was used in English, two books of the 'Æneid.' A fair specimen, perhaps, is this:

> "As when Apollo leaveth Lyciã,
> . . . . . .
> When that he walkes upon Mount Cynthus' toppe,
> His sparklĕd tresse represt with garlandes softe
> Of tender leaves, and trussĕd up with golde,
> His quivering darts clattering behind his backe—
> So freshe and lustie did Æneas seme."

Let Surrey, who brought over for us this measure from Italy, have his credit; and that it was a poet who saw the worth of it, the spirit and strength of these few words shall witness: "His quivering darts clattering behind his backe" is Virgil's "tela sonant humeris" (his weapons sound, on his shoulders). Of course, a little bit like this above can give no sufficient acquaintance for a critical analysis: for this a good deal more must be read, and will be pleasant reading.

Marlowe took this verse as it came from Surrey's hand, and what he made of it let our readers see in "Tamburlaine" and elsewhere. A little bit, like that from Surrey, and of exactly corresponding character, we give;

"As when the seaman sees the Hyades
Gather an army of Cimmerian clouds
(Auster and Aquilon, with winged steeds
All-sweating, tilt about the watery heavens,
With shivering spears enforcing thunder-claps,
And from their shields strikes flames of lightening),
All-fearful folds his sails and sounds the main,
Lifting his prayers to the heavens for aid
Against the terror of the winds and waves—
So fares Agydas——."

RECENT SOLAR RESEARCH.

CAROLINE ISLAND is situate in the South Pacific mid-ocean, in latitude 10° south, and in longitude 150° west of Greenwich. Before their arrival there, the island was only known to the astronomers of the American eclipse expedition of 1883 to be "seven to eight miles long and two to three miles wide, well covered with cocoanut and other trees, to consist of many islets encircling a lagoon, with no anchorage, but a landing (not always safe), and to have about thirty inhabitants, including a single European resident." When we recall the fact that total solar eclipses, all-important to the astronomer who would study the sun and its surroundings, occur about once in two years, and that the average duration of the total phase of such eclipses is less than three minutes, never, under the most favorable conditions, being so long as eight minutes, and rarely so long as five or six, there will be no surprise at the enthusiasm which conducted a party of astronomers to so forbidding a spot. For prediction showed them that, if the sky were propitious, they might on May 6, 1883, enjoy the uninterrupted observation of the totally eclipsed sun for a period nearly six minutes in duration. The path of this eclipse, otherwise most favorable, lay entirely upon the waters of the ocean, save only this little island. Unless it could be occupied, the unusual opportunity for solar research must pass by unused.

It is worthy of note that the conservatism of astronomers would without doubt have resulted in the utter neglect of this eclipse, had not Mr. Charles H. Rockwell, of Tarrytown, urged the organization of the expedition. At his suggestion Professor Young brought the subject before the National Academy of Sciences in November, 1882, which body commended the project to the Navy Department for such aid and facilities as could be best afforded. Private subscription failed, and the readiness of the Navy Department to coöperate led to the presentation of a memorial to Congress which gave a grant of $5,000—with such delay, however, that the necessary advance of a considerable portion of this sum had to be made by the trustees of the Bache fund of the National Academy. Prof. Edward S. Holden, Director of the Washburn Observatory of the University of Wisconsin, was appointed the scientific chief of the expedition, and the party left New York on March 2, bound for Callao via Panama. From Callao they were transported in the U. S. S. *Hartford* to Caroline Island, arriving there on April 21. In company with Professor Holden were Doctor Hastings, then of the Johns Hopkins University, Mr. Rockwell, Mr. Upton, then of the Army Signal Office, and others. At Panama they were joined by Mr. Laurance and Mr. Woods, delegates of the Solar Physics Committee of the Royal Society of Great Britain, who were charged with the conduct of special photographic observations. A French expedition, under the command of Doctor Janssen, of Paris, came to the island shortly after the arrival of the English and American observers.

The interesting memoir of the National Academy ('Report of the Eclipse Expedition, etc.') is much more than a technical report on the dry scientific details of the work of eclipse-observers. In connection with his narration of the ocean voyage of 4,300 miles from Callao to the Islands, which occupied twenty-nine days, and during which neither sail nor land excepting the Magdalena Island of the Marquesas group was sighted, Professor Holden aptly cites the entry of Darwin in his 'Journal of a Voyage in the *Beagle*,' under date of December 19, 1835:

"We may now consider that we have nearly crossed the Pacific. It is necessary to sail over this great ocean to comprehend its immensity. Moving quickly onwards for weeks together, we meet with nothing but the same blue, profoundly deep ocean. Even within the archipelagoes the islands are mere specks and far distant one from the other. Accustomed to look at maps drawn on a small scale, where dots, shading, and names are crowded together, we do not rightly judge how infinitely small the proportion of dry land is to the water of this vast expanse."

Professor Holden prefixes to the report a history of the island, necessarily brief, for it was first seen in 1795, by Captain Boughton, and not much is known of it until 1868, when Captain Nares, R. N., made it a part of the British possessions. The present lessee of the island, Mr. Arundell, of New Zealand, has contributed to the Report some drawings of very curious old marais—burying or sacrificial places, which were originally found in the progress of guano operations on the island. The blocks and walls of these graves are built of coral and coral conglomerate, in some of which, when first discovered, were found "stone axes, and highly polished green stones, such as are used by the Maoris of New Zealand, and spears of the same description." These places must have been built by a native population, but no natives were known to inhabit the island at its first occupation by the whites.

Lieutenant Qualtrough's survey and description of the island as it was in 1883 follow, from which we learn that "the atoll consists of a chain of twenty-five little islets, well covered with trees and shrubbery, the whole forming a quiet scene of grove and lake, charmingly set off by the contrasting ocean." A few photographic views are so reproduced as to show the characteristic vegetation and reef-beaches with fine effect. The eclipse party left the island inhabited by seven persons—four men, one woman, and two children—who plant and take care of the young cocoanut trees. The climate of the island was found to be warm, with an equable temperature and occasional sudden showers.

Mr. Upton's contribution to the report is a copious article on the meteorology of Caroline Island during the entire period of the party's sojourn, as well as on the day of the eclipse. The botany of the island received the attention of Doctor Dixon, United States Navy, whose collection of specimens is discussed by Professor Trelease, of Madison. Also, the zoölogy of the atoll is abundantly dwelt upon by a number of members of the expedition, particularly the lepidoptera being well cared for by Doctor Palisa, of Vienna, who accompanied the French expedition, and presented to the American party a nearly complete collection of duplicates.

The physical and astronomical observations of the eclipse are related in about fifty pages—the concluding third of the volume—and the more important results must be summarized in a word. Professor Holden's method of attack closes discussion on the subject of the mythical Vulcans. Doctor Hastings's spectroscopic and polariscopic observations of the eclipse constitute the most valuable feature of the work, and are ably discussed with reference to his diffraction-theory of the corona, which physicists who have heretofore doubted will now be obliged to recognize as replacing to a very wide extent the older theory of an outer solar atmosphere. Doctor Hastings has also supplemented his work with a general review of all the results of previous observations of the corona, of whatever sort—a task which his thorough acquaintance with the subject has enabled him to execute in a satisfactory and permanent form.

The work of Professor Langley in the fields of solar inquiry is now too well known by the casual reader and too fully appreciated by the scientific investigator to call for more than a brief characterization here. The Mount Whitney expedition was the naturally evolved result of specific researches in the absorption of heat in the spectrum, made at Allegheny. These in 1880 had led to conclusions, of interest to astronomy and meteorology, which it was found desirable to verify by experiments on a very elevated mountain. The necessary instrumental outfit had been provided by the liberality of a citizen of Pittsburgh, when, the bearings of this research on the general objects of meteorological inquiry becoming known to the Chief Signal Officer of the Army, the expedition received material assistance from the Signal Service, and proceeded in July of 1881 to Mount Whitney, in Southern California, under the official direction of General Hazen.

We cannot more fitly summarize the bearings of this research on meteorology in its broadest sense than Prof. Langley has himself done in the initial paragraphs of his introduction:

"If the observation of the amount of heat the sun sends the earth is among the most important and difficult in astronomical physics, it may also be termed the fundamental problem of meteorology, nearly all whose phenomena would become predictable if we knew both the original quantity and kind of this heat; how it affects the constituents of the atmosphere on its passage earthward; how much of it reaches the soil; how, through the aid of the atmosphere, it maintains the surface temperature of this planet; and how, in diminished quantity and altered kind, it is finally returned to outer space. Meteorologists have till lately occupied themselves more with the secondary effects of this solar radiation than with the considerations just referred to, though this primary study will at least enable us to survey subordinate and familiar phenomena from a more general point of view, and will correct some errors. The knowledge that the solar heat finds its way in more easily than out, and the inference that our atmosphere acts like the glass of a hot-bed in raising the temperature of the soil—even this knowledge, imperfect and misleading as it may be when thus stated, has been most useful in giving us a key to subsidiary phenomena."

The results of experiments at the Allegheny Observatory in 1880 and 1881 showed that the thermal phenomena on which the existence of organic life depends are due to the selective absorption of the atmosphere, without which the temperature of the soil, even in the tropics at midday under a vertical sun, would fall to some hundreds of degrees below zero; and this would still be true even if the atmosphere were supposed to retain all its present constituents and to transmit all the heat it does now.

The constant of the solar heat was, then, the next thing to be determined, and it could be measured directly if it were possible to ascend above the atmosphere. But since we can only experiment upon the amount received after absorption by that part of the atmosphere above us, the exact determination of this constant presupposes a minute knowledge of the way in which the sun's heat is affected by the earth's atmosphere:

"With whatever pains we measure, however, we remain at the mercy of the fluctuations of our lower air, and are compelled to make assumptions which we would gladly avoid. . . . On many points we know just enough to distrust our own enforced assumptions, without being able to positively verify or disprove them. Besides such difficulties as these, arising from our ignorance, we are met with almost insuperable physical ones, coming from the incessant clouds, mist, and changes of our lower atmosphere, . . . which make it literally true that not one day of unexceptionable conditions is to be found in an average year, while yet daily observations must be commenced with every clear morning, since

we never know which is the day which may prove fair to its close."

Professor Langley's investigations of the heat in the spectrum having proved the best thermo-pile entirely inadequate to measure such delicate thermal conditions, he was soon led to the invention of the bolometer, or force-measurer, an instrument now well known as an adjunct in spectrum research, and so sensitive in its construction that, under an apparently clear sky, it "constantly sees clouds which the eye does not." The capacity of the means of research at low altitudes being soon exhausted, a wholly different method of observation became necessary, viz., that of ascending a very high mountain and comparing observations at its summit with others at its base, thus directly measuring the absorptions which the rays have actually undergone. Clear air, great altitude, a dry climate, and southern latitude were the chief desirable conditions, together with abrupt rise, so that two contiguous stations with very different altitudes might be occupied.

After a number of points had been carefully considered, finally, upon the advice of Mr. Clarence King, and with the concurrently favorable opinion of officers of the Coast Survey and others familiar with the region, Mount Whitney, in the Sierra Nevada range of Southern California, was selected as the most eligible eminence for the prosecution of the research. It was desirable to leave at least one-third of the entire atmosphere beneath the elevated station, implying a height of some fourteen thousand feet, and the summit of Whitney was known to be elevated nearly fifteen thousand feet. Professor Langley, in his report ('Researches on Solar Heat,' etc.), presents, in the form of a diary full of exciting adventure, the events of each day of the ascent of the mountain. Camp was established on an excellent site at an elevation of twelve thousand feet, in a well-watered meadow about two hundred yards in diameter, and surrounded by precipitous cliffs a thousand to fifteen hundred feet high, forming the base and flank of Whitney Peak. Carefully scrutinizing the limb of the sun at this great altitude, Professor Langley's trained eye found the air filled with motes between the place of observation and the diffracting edge of a distant peak, showing that the dust-shell which encircles the earth exists at an altitude of nearly three miles, notwithstanding the favorable conditions for purity of the atmosphere. Professor King has expressed the opinion that this dust above the Sierra Nevadas has been borne across the Pacific, and owes its origin to the "loess" of China.

Owing to a chain of unfortunate circumstances, the 22d of August arrived before Professor Langley found himself able to ascend the peak of Whitney. He found the summit an area of three or four acres, but existence would only be possible there with permanent shelter from the wind and cold; and it was evident that all hope of making regular observations on the peak that season must be foregone, and that operations must be confined to the mountain camp. Attempts were made, with specially constructed apparatus, to observe the solar corona in full sunlight, but a disheartening accident rendered it impossible just as success seemed near. With the other instruments, however, the observations most essential to the purposes of the expedition were secured, in spite of adverse circumstances; and by the 8th of September, the purity of the air being already much impaired by the prevalence of forest fires, immediate descent was decided upon.

The chapters following this introductory portion of the report relate all the observations in detail, and contain the necessary discussion of them together with the results arrived at. For the value of the constant of solar heat, derived from the labors of the expedition, and carefully considered in connection with the work of previous investigators, Professor Langley finds an equivalent of *three calories*, which, expressed in terms of melting ice, implies a solar radiation capable of melting an ice-shell 54.45 metres deep annually over the whole surface of the earth. In conclusion, Professor Langley urges the occupation of the summit of Mount Whitney as a permanent observing station for the derivation of results in this and allied lines of research, which would be of the greatest service in the solution of the intricate problems of meteorology and solar physics. If his noble enthusiasm in this work had done nothing more, it would have been enough to show the falseness of the positions held by previous investigators, and to assure future workers in the same fields that the action of an atmosphere is incomparably more complex than the ordinary theory assumes it to be. He surely has made plain the best of grounds for his own belief that Mount Whitney is the most admirable site on the North American Continent for the conduct of research of this character, and he has no hesitation in asserting that neither the Italian Government, with its observatory on Ætna, the French with the Puy de Dôme, nor any nation at any other occupied station, possesses a site to rival Whitney in its advantages. It is gratifying to observe that Professor Langley's recommendation that it be declared a Government reservation has been favorably considered by the President, and that Mount Whitney is now available for research in this and similar fields of inquiry. It is to be hoped that our Government will speedily take such action as will lead to the thorough development of the extraordinary facilities of the site.

The Religious Aspects of Philosophy: a Critique of the Bases of Conduct and of Faith. By Josiah Royce, Ph.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. 484.

THE brilliant lectures on ethical philosophy that attracted so much attention in Cambridge when they were recently delivered there by Professor Royce, were well worth presenting to a larger audience in book form. They were not at all in the line of ordinary college text-books. They were written to set forth a new basis for the moral law, and a new conception of its divine source. The title is too modest. The atmosphere of the best modern thought, both philosophical and poetical, is felt on every page, but there is no attempt at any systematic review or criticism of it, except so far as is necessary to help forward the argument.

Starting from scepticism, Mr. Royce works his way out into an idealist position, though one that is nearer to transcendental theism than to conservative orthodoxy. The first half of the volume takes up the ethical basis of conduct, and is written in an extremely animated and forcible style, and we do not know of any recent essay in ethics at once so incisive and so incomplete. Mr. Royce feels the necessity of connecting rules of conduct with human needs, but he is unwilling to accept the pleasure-and-pain theory on account of its selfish tendencies, taking issue with Spencer here because the egoism which seems so unobjectionable to the English evolutionist is quite intolerable to him. In the same way he feels the necessity for strengthening his ethical system with the strong force of sympathy, which has so much power in modern life in the suppression or decay of the hotter elemental passions; and yet he sees the sentimental weakness in which it is so apt to end, and gives a lively description of several of its worst forms. There is the shallow one in which the tender-hearted avoid the sight of those more serious forms of suffering which it would be difficult to cure, too fond of their own sensitiveness to be anything but "selfish in this world of pain. They must forget that there is suffering. Their pity makes them cruel"; and they feel bound to insist "that the police shall prevent people like Lazarus, covered with sores, from lying in plain sight at the gate." Then there are those whose pity irritates them to selfish hatred at the sight of suffering, and those who love to pose as humane commentators or heroic endurers of sorrows they do not really share. "They rejoice to find some one overwhelmed with woe. The happy man is to them a worthless fellow. High temperature is needed to soften their hearts. They would be miserable in Paradise at the sight of so much tedious contentment; but they would leap for joy if they could but hear of a lost soul to whom a drop of water could be carried."

The end of all this for them is selfishness; and for us the painful scepticism naturally resulting from the failure to harmonize such jarring aims. And yet this very scepticism, urges Mr. Royce, assumes that they should be harmonized, and thus makes way for a new moral principle, which should straightway become the basis of our conduct—namely, to get such a realizing insight into the character of others that we can make their will our will, and aim our acts at their good, whether it involves happiness or not. The duty of acquiring and acting upon this moral insight into the will of others is the theme of the first part of the volume, and Mr. Royce presents it in a very eloquent and forcible way; but it hardly seems solid enough to serve his purpose as a basis for the whole moral code, for it does not escape the difficulties which attach to every attempt to reach altruism from individual instinct. Why should one seek this moral insight, or, having attained it, why should he yield to it, if following the general will is to be at the cost of trouble to himself? If Mr. Royce's sceptic dwelt on the folly of such an unprofitable yielding to sentiment, he would hardly feel his doubts satisfied with the dubious intellectual instinct to harmonize jarring aims; and he would probably go on to say that the lack of authority was not the worst defect in the scheme. The will of other men seems too human, too mediocre, too deficient in the loftier attributes which the Christian finds in the divine will.

Suppose that by this moral insight we have brought ourselves into harmony with a friend whose character is cruel: are we to become so too? Or if we had lived in the sensual days of Imperial Rome, ought we to have adopted that corrupt universal will as a standard? Evidently Mr. Royce's form of the ethics of sympathy would not work much better than the ones he rejects, unless some means can be found of raising it above mediocrity. But he does not seem to see this clearly, apparently because, without his knowing it, there has crept into his conception of that conjoint will which is to result from the merging our neighbor's will with our own, the assumption that the common aim will then be the highest good. As he leaves the subject in his first part, it might be expressed in Pope's well-known couplet, with a few variations:

> "And spite of pride, in erring reason's spite,
> One truth is clear—whate'er all wish is right."

But it should be said that in the latter part there is a short passage referring to the need of exact science to determine the true connection of facts in the divine mind, which indicates that the author passes in some way from the universal human will to the divine will. This faith in the will of collective humanity is an old and a proud one, appearing in many forms—in the deference paid by the Romans to the law of nature, and by the Catholic Church to the council, for instance;

but it is rather out of date, notwithstanding the ingenious and original way in which Mr. Royce treats it. The metaphysical basis has not the strength of the other beliefs—either the religious one, with its divine sanction and divine superiority, or the Positive one, in which morality is treated as the demand of the race to have those rules obeyed which science shows to be necessary for its life and growth. It is not that Mr. Royce's theory is untrue, but that it needs to be supplemented by a profounder guiding principle, either of revelation or science.

In the second part of the work, Mr. Royce pursues much the same method. He gives a clear description of the difficulties that scepticism raises about the existence of evil, and the knowledge of what is right and true. He thinks that the old design argument loses its force in the face of evolution, and that evolution itself, with its long alternations of growth and decay, and its prospect of final dissolution, is as empty of religious significance as the rise and fall of the tide. He sees no care for individual life or even the immortality of the race; but evil surrounds us, and, in the absence of any certainty about the external world, we have no test of truth or falsehood, for we cannot be sure that there is any real relation between our ideas and the objects they refer to.

In these doubts, however, lie the seeds of faith; for under them and implied in them is the conviction that there is a test of truth somewhere, a real connection between our thoughts and their objects. And the thing to which this belief really points, Mr. Royce thinks, is an idealistic conception akin to Bishop Berkeley's, of an infinite divine mind in which all things, both material and immaterial, exist as thoughts, and outside of which there is nothing. To this infinite Intelligence the past, the present, and the future all are one, and the actual and the possible fall together in one truth. Truth is God, and we are to aim at losing our lives in the life divine. The world must be not only good but best, for no unsatisfied desire can exist in the Infinite. Death, pain, and even weakness of character are only seeming evils, which we are to look at with stoical superiority, convinced that they are really part of the universal good. Our own bad wills are the only evils, and their conquest is goodness recognized by God and rewarded by his infinite rest. And as practical life required first of all the moral insight into the universal will of man, so religious life requires first of all a spiritual insight into the divine Intelligence and a realization of the Eternal life.

Certainly, there is much that is fine in this unemotional and scholarly conception of the divine Essence, and it is urged with a Carlylean earnestness of phrase that makes it seem more warm and more alive than our transcript. But, after all, to the common-sense Yankee reader it will all seem very remote and unsubstantial—too sublimated and metaphysical, indeed, for daily use. In this passionless sphere of pure intellect, where God is all and truth depends merely upon his thinking it; where the world of matter, and even our own souls, are only thoughts in that other Intelligence, with no reality corresponding to them; where life is to be the adoption of the will of others, strengthened by stoical indifference to external suffering, and ending at last in the infinite rest—in all this, optimistic and lofty as it is, there is more of a student's dreamland than of satisfaction for the cravings of the human soul.

Papers of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Vol. I. 1882-83. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1885. vii, 262.

THE unbounded enthusiasm of Doctor Schliemann has met with much criticism, and indeed the sober judgment must shear and pare on all sides when approaching his works; but enthusiasm has its value even when carried to excess. It interests and excites by its own fervor, if in nothing but to oppose and find arguments to answer it. It draws attention to the subject, where volumes of calm exposition might sink into the oblivion of the special and narrow field of its followers. The widely increased interest in active archæology within the past ten years is no doubt in part due to the success and enthusiasm of the excavator of Troy, Mycenæ, Orchomenus, and Tiryns. Within that period the Archæological Institute of America has been founded, and its offshoot, the School of Classical Studies, has been established at Athens. How this lodgment was made in the very heart of the classical world was told last year by the facile pen of Professor Goodwin, the founder and first director, in a bulletin of the school. We are now presented with a considerable volume containing the major part of the work accomplished during the first year, comprising five papers of the students and one from the director, under the editorship of Professor Goodwin and Mr. Thomas H. Ludlow. The first paper contains the inscriptions discovered at Assos by the American expedition, twenty-four of which are now in the Boston Museum. These have been edited by Doctor Sterrett with translations and notes, and the most important are given in facsimile. Four have a philological interest, since they are couched in the Æolic dialect. As the editors tell us, "grammarians will rejoice that the Æolic dialect has been enriched by one important verbal form." Not even so much as this can be said of the remainder. One probably warmed the cockles of a Roman emperor's heart, heaping upon Caligula, as it does, the fulsome flattery for which he so much thirsted. We must be pardoned for rating it less highly, knowing his character as we do. The second paper contains a series of inscriptions copied at Tralles by Doctor Sterrett and Professor Ramsay, already published in the *Mittheilungen* of the German Institute of Athens. Many are badly mutilated, and afford opportunity for ingenious restoration. Doctor Sterrett has won an enviable name as a scholar and as an active and efficient explorer.

Next follow three articles, each descriptive of a famous building, the Dionysiac Theatre, by J. R. Wheeler, the temple of Olympian Zeus, by L. Bevier, and the Erechtheium, by H. N. Fowler. These do not lay claim to much originality, but are careful studies of these structures on the spot, and are intended to relate their history and describe their present condition, with some discussion of the varied opinions held in relation to them by those who have preceded them in such work. They are useful contributions to a general knowledge of the subjects, and are well worthy of the space they occupy. Among other points that we miss may be instanced any allusion to the seating capacity of the great theatre. The vague statement of Plato and the loose calculation of Dyer are unsatisfactory. In the bibliography of the subject of the Erechtheium no mention is made of the discussion of it by C. T. Newton in the British Museum Inscriptions, except under the general head of reference to "inscriptions." It deserves more consideration.

Professor Goodwin has attacked a long-standing and much-vexed problem, the relative position of the Greek and Persian forces at the battle of Salamis. The ancient authorities of chief importance on the subject are Æschylus, Herodotus, probably Ephorus in Diodorus, and Plutarch—the first an eye-witness, the second a generation, the third a century later, while Plutarch, appealing also to other authorities, belongs to the second century of our own era. To reconcile these authorities with each other and with the actual geography of the place is the task which many have tried to accomplish, but felt constrained to abandon. Our elder historians, like Thirlwall, describe the Persians as blockading the exits from the Bay of Salamis on the night preceding the battle, after Themistocles had given them the information that the Greeks were planning to slip away and sail for the Isthmus. This manœuvre was effected by despatching a squadron of 200 ships to the western or Megaric strait, and leading up the main body to the eastern exit about the island of Psyttaleia, whence it advanced to the conflict in the straits on the following morning. Leake, however, came to the conclusion that the words of Herodotus must be interpreted differently, and maintained that the Greeks were enclosed the previous night by the Persians pushing forward their fleet along the Attic coast within the straits until their advance guard rested upon the island to the west of the town and their opponents. He accordingly inserted a map in his 'Demi of Attica,' representing the Persians drawn up in this long line on the Attic shore, and the Greeks facing them toward the north, ready for battle in front of the town of Salamis, and within the bay. The tyranny of the pictured thought is even greater than the tyranny of the written word. This map has been repeated with slight variations to the present time, and its positions have been accepted by most of our historians and commentators, notwithstanding its ignoring Diodorus and bringing Herodotus into conflict with Æschylus. Professor Goodwin has studied the matter on the spot, making frequent excursions to Salamis and the opposite Attic shores during the autumn and spring of his residence at Athens, and contends, with a wealth of argument and exact acquaintance with the topography, that the movement of the Persians into the Bay of Salamis could not have taken place the night before the battle. He urges three general objections:

"(1) The channel which is thus made the scene of the battle is so narrow in some places that, if the Persians had taken up the supposed position in the night, the Greeks could not have embarked and formed their line in the morning directly in the face of the enemy (only a few hundred yards distant) without interference. (2) It would have been impossible for the supposed movement to be effected without alarming the Greeks at Salamis, especially as it was almost certainly a moonlight night. And yet they suspected nothing of the movement (and even Themistocles, who had advised Xerxes, knew nothing of it) until Aristides informed them that they were already shut in. But Aristides had come over from Ægina to the west or the southwest side of Salamis, having escaped the Persians on his way with great difficulty; and he knew only of movements in that direction, and nothing of any enemy within the straits. (3) The occupation of Psyttaleia by Xerxes shows that he expected this island to be the centre of the sea-fight; and Plutarch gives his own opinion that it actually was so. Æschylus beyond doubt represents the Persians as *entering* the straits of Salamis *after daybreak* to begin the battle. This is confirmed by Diodorus (*i. e.*, Ephorus) and Plutarch. Their line or 'stream' fell into some confusion in entering the narrows; and they never succeeded in regaining their order of battle, being immediately met by the Greeks as they passed the long point of Salamis."

Although this view is inconsistent with the common interpretation of Herodotus, Professor Goodwin is not content to reject the authority of that writer, like a noted English editor of a recent edition, who pounces upon every opportunity with all the avidity of the pseudo-Plutarch; on the contrary, with the spirit of the true scholar, he queries if the discrepancy be not in ourselves, instead of in the ancient writer. He knows full well that language is a feeble instrument to convey facts, and that indefinite topographical expressions, plain enough to the writer himself, are easily misunderstood by others, especially if they have never studied the localities

themselves. To be convinced of this we have only to compare the commentators of Herodotus upon the passage relating to the Samian aqueduct, with the recent account of it as reopened and fully investigated.

From a minute examination of the original text Professor Goodwin concludes that it is the commentators that are wrong, and not Herodotus; that of the two crucial passages, Hdt. viii. 76, and viii. 85, the first describes the Persians as bringing up their west wing to Salamis, encircling it to the south, and posting a squadron at the Megaric Straits during the night before the battle; while the other calls the Persian right, at the opening of the battle the next day, "the wing toward Eleusis and the west," and their left, "the wing toward the east and Piræus"—the line in which they streamed through the narrows to attack the Greeks who were drawn up across the bay from northwest to southeast. This interpretation, of which the original will fairly and legitimately admit, will, it is hoped, hereafter be accepted.

Patroclus and Penelope: a Chat in the Saddle. By Theodore Ayrault Dodge, Brevet-Lieut.-Col. U. S. A. (retired list), author of 'The Campaign of Chancellorsville,' 'A Bird's-Eye View of Our Civil War,' etc., etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. Pp. 167.

Colonel Dodge has given the beginner in the art of horsemanship the best possible introduction to his pleasurable task. There are many overlearned books on the subject, which baffle the beginner by their details: they make a serious business of sport, and are about as agreeable reading as a manual of cavalry tactics. The author has avoided this by presenting his teaching in the form of chatty lectures from the saddle. The pages devoted, at the outset, to affectionate praise of the horses whose names give the first title to the book, are well calculated to move the young horseman to that loving relation with his partner which is the basis of all good horsemanship. The author has had a much wider store of practical experience in horsemanship than his predecessors in this field of instruction. He knows the English system well, and is an admirer of the courage and practical skill in rough horsemanship which mark their across-country riding; but he knows the merits of the Continental school too well to treat that form of equitation with the ignorant contempt which it receives in most English writing on the subject. Those who have had anything like his measure of experience in England and on the Continent will probably agree with him in his estimate of the skill shown in the art, which is in substance that the English are bold riders, but on the whole less skilled in the art of horsemanship than the Continental peoples. In sports, even more than in graver matters, experts are apt to become wedded to the system in which they have achieved their success. Our author shows a liberal spirit in his acceptance of the several methods of using the horse in the varied conditions of different peoples. He sees that the cowboy on his broncho has very different conditions to meet from those of the British sportsman on his hunter.

Without going into the details which most writers have thought necessary, Colonel Dodge gives the beginner a sufficient body of clear instructions for all the work which is before him. He has an evident prejudice for the admirable system of Baucher, whom he well terms the "father of fine horsemanship," but he troubles the pupil with little of its minutiæ. Beyond the mere rudiments he finds nothing to commend in riding schools. His rule is, "Learn yourself what a horse should know and how to teach him." The horseman who will follow this advice will have a measure of profit and satisfaction in his work which is denied to those who use horses trained by others. There is something very wholesome in the relations which the rider establishes with a quick-witted saddle-horse if he carefully trains him. If the work is well done, the horseman may feel that union of the animal's strength with his own intelligence which is embodied in the fabled Centaur. The ordinary rider, though he may be well trained in the important business of keeping his seat, has no trace of that keen sympathy with his beast, that quick understanding of his movements, which is the basis of all excellence in horsemanship and the source of the greatest diversion in that occupation. The beginner who will follow the excellent and simple rules of training given by our author will be sure to win success in the art and a great deal of pleasure by the way. The only exception which can be taken to these rules is the omission of the requirement of *bare-back* riding as a means of giving independence of the use of stirrups. It is perhaps too much to expect this part of the practice except on Southern plantations and in military schools.

The fourteen heliotype prints from instantaneous photographs, for illustrations of this nature, are exceedingly well done. Those who are disposed to criticise the attitude of the horseman as shown in these pictures should bear in mind the fact that one of his legs was left at Gettysburg.

Lyrics of the Law. A recital of songs and verses pertinent to the law and the legal profession, selected from various sources. By J. Greenbag Croke. San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co. 1884.

This volume contains a considerable body of humorous legal verse, drawn from a great many different sources, English and American, none of it of much value to any but the professional public, and much of it of little value to that. Professional humor is apt to be involuntarily exclusive, and many of the so-called poems in this collection must necessarily be unintelligible to all but lawyers. The rule in Shelley's case, rich in associations both serious and droll to a lawyer, means nothing to a layman. To be put in the way of enjoying the wit and humor which is involved in it, requires a special education. A great deal of the humor even then comes from the sudden conversion of a specially dry, grave, and musty legal rule into food for human laughter. A simpler kind of joke is that which pursues the profession through all literature, and attributes to it a dishonorable inclination to substitute the motive of private gain for the loftier impulse which the work of administering justice is supposed to imply. From the time of the decision between the rival claimants to the oyster, this jest has been highly relished not only by the laity, but by the profession itself, until in our day it has often become hard to make out whether the laughter it invariably causes is produced by a feeling that it is a good joke, or by a suspicion that plunder has become a general professional "rule of action." A simpler and more innocent sort of humor, which is quite as much relished outside the profession as in its ranks, is that represented by the "Lawyer's Ode to Spring," consisting entirely in the misapplied use of legal phraseology. Who wrote the verses we do not know, but the version here given is in some minor respects inaccurate, at least according to that which we have always followed; and in the interest of accuracy and of a modest and retiring poet, we give what we believe to be the correct reading:

"Whereas on certain boughs and sprays
Now divers birds are heard to sing,
And sundry flowers their heads upraise,
To hail the coming on of spring;

"The songs of these said birds arouse
The memory of our youthful hours,
As green as those said sprays and boughs,
As fresh and sweet as those said flowers.

"The birds aforesaid, happy pairs!
Love 'mid the aforesaid boughs enshrines,
In freehold nest, to them, their heirs,
Administrators, and assigns.

"Oh, busiest term of Cupid's court!
Where tender plaintiffs actions bring,
Season of frolic and of sport,
Hail, as aforesaid, coming spring!"

Jellyfish, Starfish, and Sea-Urchins. By G. J. Romanes. [International Scientific Series, vol. xlix.] 8vo, xii, 323 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

This volume is devoted to an account of the author's experiments and researches on the primitive nervous systems possessed by the radiated animals mentioned in the title. The work first appeared in the publications of the Royal Society, and this expansion of it is accompanied by the original illustrations. The question whether any nervous tissue is present in the jellyfishes has long been the subject of persistent investigation by many naturalists, on account of its particular importance to the study of biology. Nerve tissue had been clearly shown to be present in all animals of higher structure than jellyfishes, so that it was of much importance to ascertain whether or not the first occurrence of this tissue took place in this group of animals. But, notwithstanding much diligent research, up to the time when the author began his work, there was so little agreement in the results obtained that Huxley, summing up the matter less than twenty years ago, announced that no nervous system had yet been discovered in any of these animals. The result of the author's experiments was to demonstrate the existence of a very low grade of nervous system, differently developed in different groups of genera, and even in different but allied species, the whole forming, as it were, the introductory stages to the more specialized systems existing in higher groups of animals.

The book before us consists entirely of the description of the work performed and the statement of the logical deductions therefrom. This has been prepared with great clearness and comprehensibility. There is nothing that the ordinary reader cannot understand as he proceeds. To the student interested in the general subject it presents a convenient summary of facts not otherwise easily accessible; while the general reader may gain from it not only some knowledge of primitive nervous systems, but also a clearer idea of the manner in which a competent investigator takes up and carries on researches of a scientific kind.

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Pyle, H. Within the Capes. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Rees, J. The Life of Edwin Forrest, with Reminiscences and Personal Recollections. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $2.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 4, 1885.

The Week.

THE great strike in the iron and steel (nail, plate, and bar) mills, which has been impending for some months, has now taken place, and 100,000 men are out of work. The strike affects all the mills of this class west of the Alleghany mountains and north of the Ohio River. Its severest effects are felt at Pittsburgh, whose murky atmosphere, the product of thousands of tons of bituminous coal consumed daily in that great domain of Vulcan, has been suddenly cleared by the stoppage of a large proportion of its furnace fires. The immediate consequences of the strike are scarcely more serious than the remoter ones. For every forge and furnace closed, there is a reduction in the output of coal and in the wages of miners of both coal and ore. The demand for labor in the transportation of raw material and finished product is correspondingly lessened. Loss of wages means loss of trade, increase of pauperism, and new demands upon charity. If the end is reached without resort to violence, the outcome will be fortunate to all concerned, and is as much as anybody now hopes for. The strike is ordered by the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers in consequence of a reduction of 20 to 25 per cent. in wages decided upon by the Manufacturers' Alliance. There has been no bad temper displayed on either side as yet, and there are grounds for hoping that a solution of the difficulty may be reached without any infraction of law or disturbance of the peace. The strikers are men of unusual intelligence, perfectly organized, and well acquainted with the state of trade. They know that wages are dependent upon the selling price of the product. They are aware that the manufacturers cannot pay more than the iron market enables them to pay. They know that masters and men together cannot make one hair white or black. They realize the truth of the situation as it is, but they believe that a curtailment of production for a few months will result in a fresh demand, an improvement of the market, and a restoration of wages to the old scale, or at all events to a rate less painful to themselves than that which the Manufacturers' Alliance now propose. They are really making a test on a large scale of the public demand for iron, in the same way that the great coal companies make tests by curtailing the output of coal. This they have a perfect right to do, and there is no economic absurdity in their doing it.

It is impossible to say *à priori* that they may not succeed. It is certain that if the demand for iron rises to the scale of wages which they have fixed upon, they will have been justified by the event. If it does not, they will have been the principal, though not the only, sufferers from the experiment. Looking at the depression which extends to all branches of business, and at the savage competition in the iron trade brought about by the abnormal demand of the "boom" years, 1879-1882, and by exorbitant tariff duties, we see little chance of success for the strikers; but we do not doubt that the masters will be as much gratified as the men if the market improves sufficiently to enable them to pay the rate of wages demanded. It would be a great mistake and wholly unjust to suppose that the manufacturers have proceeded arbitrarily and without good reason in the course they have taken. They have everything at risk in such a contest. If they were making any profits at all before the strike, they lose them while it continues. Their property is exposed to deterioration by stoppage. Their men drift away, and their customers drift away. Their trade, hard enough to keep at any time, is quite demoralized by suspension, and when they resume they must begin far down the ladder. The manufacturers, moreover, are human. All of them, without exception, would rather see their operatives prosperous and contented than pinched and unhappy. Nine out of ten would rather forego profits altogether than see their men scowling or scattered, their works closed, and rust eating up their machinery.

The most noteworthy incident of the local elections in Virginia on Thursday is the fact mentioned in a Norfolk despatch that many of the negroes voted the Democratic ticket, which received 335 majority, as against 402 majority for the Republicans last November. While Mahone has received a strong support from the whites of Virginia, especially in the southwestern part of the State, the basis of his power has been the colored vote, which in many places he has controlled almost in bulk. His only hope of maintaining his supremacy rests upon his ability to retain this hold upon the blacks. Such indications as this from Norfolk that the negroes are dividing their votes, and that the Democrats are getting many of them, are therefore full of encouragement for the belief that the reign of this demagogue is nearly over. The fact that the race line in politics is breaking down is also, on general principles, matter for rejoicing. It has been productive only of evil to both races, especially to the weaker one.

The business of conducting a Republican organ continues to be one of difficulties and discouragements. Every few days the Blaine editor is cheered up a little by a fresh hope that he has at last got an "issue," but no sooner has he brought his energies to bear upon it than he finds that he is fighting the wind. For the past week the organs have been in a state of uncommon exaltation over the announcement that the Post-office at Copiah, Miss., had been given to one Meade, who made himself conspicuous as an approver of the brutal political murder of a prominent Republican two years ago. Here at last, they fondly believed, was evidence that "the Confederacy was again in the saddle," and that the Administration did not dare to disobey the dictation of the Rebels. The bloody shirt was again brought forth, and more than one partisan orator was preparing to utilize the Mississippi incident in a Decoration Day address. But just as the organs were fairly started on the new tune, the Postmaster-General suddenly forced them to break off right in the middle, by quietly revoking the appointment of Meade, which had been made in ignorance of the man's character. Mr. Vilas's action was only what everybody who knew anything about the Postmaster-General expected, but it was plainly a very unwelcome surprise to the organs. In their despair they fell back once more upon the familiar old strain about the imminence of the long-advertised "clean sweep." An alleged remark of Senator Voorhees, that Mr. Cleveland had assured him that this often deferred performance was at last really coming off, gave them great joy for two or three days, but, alas for their hopes! the quite unnecessary announcement was quickly made that the President never said anything of the sort, and that the Senator never quoted him to that effect. The Blaine editor may well invoke the compassion of the public at such heartless treatment.

We are hearing just now a great deal of the way in which the President has been deceived by Congressmen and others who recommend persons for office, and of the difficulty there is in finding out the truth about the fitness of candidates for subordinate places, especially at distant points. There is no doubt that the President's confidence has been in many cases grossly abused, and just as little that he will not allow it to be abused twice by the same persons. But it is also to be observed that this difficulty in getting at the truth about applicants for office is a purely artificial creation, and is not encountered in any other civilized country. If vacancies occurred only in the natural or business way, by death, resignation, and dismissals for cause, there would be no difficulty at all in finding proper persons to fill them, because their number would be so small as to make them entirely manageable by the appointing officers. It is the system of dismissing officers simply to make places for others which causes all the trouble. This so multiplies the number of applicants as to make imposition easy, and careful and rigid inquiry next to impossible. If a "clean sweep" were made in the old way, of course any inquiry would be out of the question. The Administration would have to take any rapscallions whom members of Congress chose to present. But even under the modified and careful policy which the President is pursuing, the liability to enormous mistakes is great and inevitable. If the managers of a large bank tried the plan of dismissing all, or most, or one-half of their employees every four years, they would be thought crazy, and would expose themselves to a run, and yet their system would not be nearly as absurd or mischievous as that under which, even now, we conduct our post-office and consular service. In England or Germany, or even France, it would be received with shouts of derision.

One of the amusing tricks in which many of "the offensive partisans" indulge when they know their hour is at hand, is to write a letter

glorying in their shame, and declaring that they believe in the spoils system, and ought to be turned out of office. This is, of course, partly due to simple love of "gas," or what the Old Testament revisers call "a striving after wind," but it is also due to a desire to encourage the unregenerate Democrats in their hostility to any attempts made by the Administration to reform the civil service. The Collector of Customs at Portsmouth, Mr. Howard, a noisy, blatant Republican, who has made during the last twelve years very little return to the taxpayers for his salary, knowing that he must go, has sent in his resignation, attaching to it a bag of wind in which he avows his partisanship, and declares that for twenty years he has been "a firm believer in the old Jacksonian doctrine, 'To the victors belong the spoils,'" and pretending that it is for this reason that he now "quits and delivers up his office." The noisy creature knows well that this is all humbug. He would hold on to the office for twelve years more under any Administration if he could. He "quits and delivers up" because he is well aware he would be quickly and righteously expelled if he did not.

A quasi-judicial hearing is now going on before Deputy Attorney-General Post to determine whether the bonds of the State of Georgia shall be classed among the securities in which New York savings-bank funds may be invested. The bonds of the State of Georgia are in many respects a desirable security. They bear interest at 5 per cent. as against only 3 per cent. obtainable on the best class of Northern State bonds. The finances of Georgia are in a flourishing condition. The State is rich and prosperous, and there is scarcely a doubt that the bonds now offered will be paid, principal and interest, in full. But the State of Georgia repudiated $8,000,000 of bonds in the year 1873, and the New York law expressly prohibits the investment of savings-bank funds in the securities of any State which has defaulted within ten years on the principal or interest of any debt authorized by any of its Legislatures. It would be impossible, of course, to discriminate by law between different degrees of repudiation, or to draw a line between honest and dishonest Legislatures, between carpet-baggers and taxpayers, between Governor Bullock and Governor Colquitt. The only sure line of discrimination is between payment and non-payment. This is the line drawn in New York for the protection of depositors in savings banks, and it is difficult to see how any doubt could have arisen in the present case, or how any question could have been brought before the Attorney-General for his decision. The act of repudiation of the State of Georgia, it should be remembered, relates not only to the so-called carpet-bag bonds, but to the Brunswick and Albany R. R. bonds issued before the war under the State's guarantee. The railway was seized in its unfinished state during the war as the property of alien enemies, in violation of the secession ordinance, which exempted it from confiscation. After the war a compromise was effected with the owners by legislative authority in the year 1869, they agreeing to complete the road, and the State agreeing to pay them a bonus in bonds of $15,000 per mile. In 1872 the Legislature declared the bonds null and void, and a constitutional amendment was adopted two years later prohibiting the payment of either interest or principal. The bonds had meanwhile been sold, partly in Germany and partly in the United States. They stand repudiated to the present day, and the State of Georgia, with its wealth and importance, belongs as clearly to the category of dishonest commonwealths as the State of Mississippi, whose unpaid debt has been one of the foulest blots on the American name since the year 1842.

It is not for the purpose of administering moral reproof that the State of New York prohibits the investment of the money of savings depositors in the bonds of repudiating States, but to protect her own people against loss. The prohibitions of the law extend not merely to the bonds of defaulting States, but to a large variety of investments which are commonly regarded as safe by capitalists. The only securities allowed to be taken by the trustees of such institutions are United States bonds, District of Columbia 3-65s, the bonds of the State of New York, or of the cities, counties, towns, and villages of this State authorized by law, and mortgages on unencumbered real estate situated in this State to the amount of 50 per cent. of its value if improved, or of 40 per cent. if unimproved. Notwithstanding this careful restriction upon the investments, there have been some disgraceful failures of savings banks in this State within recent years, due to the negligence of trustees or to the rascality of managers. These failures, and the misery they have inflicted upon the deserving poor, have led to a movement for the adoption of the system of Post-office savings banks which has attained such high popularity in England. Nothing can be said against this system except that it is likely to be short-lived, since it can hardly exist longer than the national debt in which the Government must necessarily invest the money so deposited. Nevertheless, while the debt continues, the security which it affords ought to be brought within the reach of the humblest depositor. The worst thing that can happen to the working-man who puts his savings into such a trust will be to receive his money back again in full. If the system had been adopted simultaneously with the creation of the national debt, millions of dollars would have been saved to the classes most in need of protection against fraud and mismanagement.

The case of Morgan, the unsavory person lately appointed Consul-General to Melbourne, is recalled to public notice by an elaborate attempt to straighten out his crooked career on the part of his brother-in-law and political sponsor, Mr. Dawson, of the Charleston *News and Courier*. It seems that the South Carolina Democrats have been a good deal stirred up over the developments regarding Morgan. One of the Congressmen has published a letter bitterly condemning the appointment, and a meeting of the Blackville Democratic Club was called the other day to give expression to the prevailing dissatisfaction. Mr. Dawson sought to stay the tide by attending the meeting, and making a personal defence of his own action in the matter and of his brother-in-law's record. He admitted that Morgan published his pamphlet commending Blaine's foreign policy after the canvass opened, and he presented no evidence that Morgan ever favored Cleveland's election. His strongest argument was that the pamphlet "fell flat," and that "no substantial aid was rendered Mr. Blaine by its publication." This is perhaps the most novel plea ever advanced in favor of an aspirant for office, and it merits the attention of sundry able editors who conducted organs ostensibly in the interest of the Republican candidate last year. Mr. Halstead, for instance, could readily procure overwhelming evidence that the New York *Extra* "fell flat," and that "no substantial aid was rendered Mr. Blaine by its publication."

It is said to be probable that the National Bank Examiner for Connecticut and Rhode Island will be retained in office by the Democratic Administration, because he has been an efficient servant of the public, and, though a good Republican, has not been an "offensive partisan." The surest way to prevent the demand for changes in the civil service when a new party comes into power is to develop a class of officials like this bank examiner. Unfortunately such officials have been the exception in the past, because it has been held to be the duty of a place-holder to look after the interests of his party even more faithfully than after those of the public. Human nature being what it is, Democrats cannot be expected to enjoy seeing officials retained in the service who have been "offensive partisans," and it is entirely proper that such officials should pay the penalty of their misconduct. But when a man has confined himself to a discharge of the duty for which he is paid out of the public treasury, every sensible person at once sees the absurdity of discharging him, or not reappointing him, simply because a man of another party has been elected President. The Connecticut Democrats have the reputation of liking the spoils as well as any of their brethren; but even such men as Barnum recognize the folly of turning out an experienced and efficient bank examiner merely to make room for a man who wants a place. Once establish the principle that all servants of the Government are to confine their energies to their proper sphere, and the plea for a general overturning of the service upon the advent of a new Administration will become so ridiculous that nobody will any longer advance it.

Nothing could be more absurd than the choice of a man from the State which raised the cry, "The Chinese must go," as Minister from this country to China, unless it were the selection of an Ultramontanist as the representative of the United States at the Italian court. The obvious impropriety of such a suggestion, however, did not prevent the California Democrats from making an earnest demand for this place in the diplomatic service, and if "pressure" had availed with the President, he would have named somebody from the Pacific Coast as John Russell Young's successor weeks ago. The choice of an Indiana man will doubtless grievously offend the Sinophobists on the other

side of the continent, though there have been of late some signs of returning sense in California, as evidenced by the fact that Judge Wallace of that State recently withdrew his application for the mission, on the ground that the public interests would be better served by the appointment of a man from some other part of the country. Charles Denby, whom the President has just appointed, is not known outside of his State, but the leading Republican organs of Indiana vouch for his high character and his fitness for the post. The California Democrats have been particularly pertinacious in their demands for office ever since Mr. Cleveland was inaugurated, and the rejection of their special request for a foreign mission only emphasizes the attitude which the President had already assumed by his refusal to make other changes purely to give offices to a lot of worthless politicians. In three months the Democratic Administration has made but three appointments of Californians, whereas if Blaine had come in, there is not the slightest doubt that wholesale changes would have been made solely to pay off political obligations.

An interesting and valuable study of the Chinese problem has been made by Joseph A. Chapleau, Secretary of State for Canada, and Judge John Hamilton Gray, of British Columbia, who were appointed last year by the Governor-General of the Dominion to prosecute a thorough investigation of the subject. The question is one of vital interest to the people of British Columbia, as Chinamen have been pouring into that province of late years in large numbers. In the capital, Victoria, there are now about 3,000 of these immigrants to 10,000 other inhabitants, and the number of Chinese in the whole province is estimated as high as 18,000, while the entire population, by the census of four years ago, was not quite 50,000. The Commissioners make separate reports of their observations and conclusions, but there is a general agreement in their views. They find that Chinese labor has been most efficient in promoting the rapid development of the country, and that the sobriety, industry, and frugality of the new-comers are confessed even by their enemies. But the race antipathy is very strong, and it is strengthened by the fact that the Chinese generally adhere to Oriental habits and modes of life. The Kearney type of politicians re-echo the cry of the Californians for absolute exclusion of the intruders, but the wiser opinion among the British Columbians themselves is in favor of a policy of regulating future immigration. The Commissioners concur in this view, and recommend a system of moderate restriction, based upon police, financial, and sanitary principles, sustained and enforced by stringent local regulations for cleanliness and the preservation of health. There is a strong demand for some legislation upon this subject by the Dominion Parliament at the present session, and if it follows the lines of the Commission's suggestions, Canada's disposition of the question will shine by contrast with the savage policy adopted by this country.

Our old friend Keely has had his annual "Spring Opening" with the motor in a new guise, and under the new and remarkable name of "Inter-Etheric Liberator." As usual, the exhibition was so startling and miraculous that the happy few who were permitted to be present are unable to describe what they saw in an intelligible manner. They talk in an incoherent and dazed way about a "tuning fork," a "fiddle-bow," a "disintegrator," "resonators," "wave plates," "electric-conductors," "confined vapor," and the "suction of Mr. Keely's mouth," but nobody is able to tell precisely what happened, or to get any inkling whatever of the mysterious power. As nearly as we are able to understand the accounts, however, Mr. Keely places the Inter-Etheric Liberator upon a solid plate of glass which rests upon a wooden support; then he puts a glass globe, twelve inches in diameter and mounted upon four legs in such a way as to rotate freely, upon his work-bench; then he puts a thick plate of glass upon each side of the globe; then he puts a big tuning fork somewhere in the immediate vicinity; then he clamps a thick tube on the table near the "Liberator"; then by suction with his mouth he establishes a partial vacuum in the tube and closes the valve; then he goes across the room and draws a fiddle-bow across another tuning-fork; this "causes the Liberator to act," and "things begin to hum" at a tremendous rate of speed; the globe turns at the rate of a thousand revolutions a minute; a solid plank placed against its revolving periphery, instead of stopping it, is torn into splinters; small leaden balls are shot out of a cannon; an engine is driven at a terrific rate of speed, and no end of other extraordinary uses is made of the "power" which is generated from the revolving globe. Everybody tries to find out how it is all done, and nobody succeeds. Then resolutions of confidence in Keely and the "Motor" are passed, the gentlemen present congratulate Keely, and the show closes, as usual, with no explanation.

Judge Davis's opinion in the Munsell case raises a question which is very interesting both for the bar and the public. The question is, whether, when a code defines the meaning of a legal term, a judge is at liberty to disregard the definition and substitute one of his own. Judge Daniels in the case held that if Munsell was guilty of a contempt, it was under Sub-division 3, Section 8 of the Code of Civil Procedure, which says that a person is punishable by the Court for a criminal contempt through "a wilful disobedience to its lawful mandate." Judge Daniels then found the legal meaning of the term "mandate," in Section 3,343 of the same code, which defines it as "a writ, process, or other written direction issued pursuant to law by a court or judge, or a person acting as a judicial officer, and commanding a court, board, or other body, or an officer or other person named or otherwise designated therein, to do or refrain from doing an act therein specified." Judge Davis, however, held that this was not a definition of a mandate; that it simply specified some things which are mandates, but left unmentioned others which are also mandates, such as any verbal and lawful order of a judge made in the conduct of a case. In other words, as we have said, Judge Davis substituted for the definition of the Code a definition of his own. Now, if courts can do this with codifiers' definitions, the question is, what is the use of such definitions? Why should they be made at all? It would be extremely interesting to know what the bar thinks about this. Section 3,343 contains a long list of definitions, and prescribes the acceptance of them as "rules." It defines "mandate," "judge," "clerk," "report," "real property," "personal property," "personal injury," "affidavit," and other terms, about twenty in all. Now, can the courts amend these definitions by declaring them not full enough, on grounds of expediency or convenience, or, as Judge Davis says, of "common usage," and putting in other meanings of their own?

The reports from the various New England States, submitted at the annual meeting of the New England Woman Suffrage Association in Boston recently, were not especially encouraging. From Vermont the report was the most encouraging, saying that a society had been in existence for eighteen months, and its membership had during that time increased from 17 to more than 200; that financially the Society was doing well, but no progress had been made in securing legislation, as the bill which provided municipal suffrage for women was defeated by the Legislature. The Rhode Island report said that "movements for suffrage have not been so successful as could be desired, yet they have shown good reason for hoping that much may soon be accomplished. The Legislature has not exhibited that degree of interest which the women had hoped for. Nevertheless, it has shown an inclination to submit to the people the great question of allowing women to say who shall represent them on school committees." In Connecticut, "as in some other places, the women have seemed to have success in their hands, and it has slipped through their fingers. The Legislature doubts the wisdom of granting municipal suffrage, but seems disposed to give women a right to vote for School Committees." Of Massachusetts Mrs. Lucy Stone said she was "sorry that her State, or its law-makers, had not been generous when considering petitions for general suffrage, but the Massachusetts Society had no thought of being discouraged, and had held one hundred meetings and thirteen conventions since October, had circulated thousands of tracts and newspapers, and done much else which was calculated to change public opinion." New Hampshire was the worst of all. The lady who made the report declared that she "had not the courage to write a report. It was impossible to make something out of nothing. Many of the leaders in the movement had removed from the State or had died, and no meetings had been held during the year. Petitions for suffrage had been presented to the Legislature, and that was all which could be said." Probably a good deal of this apparent stagnation in the movement during the past year could be traced directly to the overshadowing importance of a national election; but there seems to be on the part of all our legislatures a growing disposition to treat the question with indifference.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS

[WEDNESDAY, May 27, to TUESDAY, June 2, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President on Wednesday appointed Edward Campbell, jr., to be United States Marshal for the Southern District of Iowa. He is the candidate whom the Iowa Congressmen selected, and he gets the place for which C. L. Williams was first named.

The President on Monday appointed Isaac R. Maynard, of New York, Second Comptroller of the Treasury. Mr. Maynard holds the office of First Deputy Attorney-General of this State. He was the Democratic candidate for Secretary of State in New York two years ago, and was defeated, it is said, because of his prohibition record. He was not a candidate for the office to which he is now appointed, but was urged to accept it by both the President and Secretary of the Treasury.

Postmaster-General Vilas on Thursday requested the resignation of J. L. Meade, who was recently appointed Postmaster at Hazlehurst, Copiah County, Miss. Since his appointment the Department has learned that just after the November elections in 1883, and subsequently to the killing of Matthews, a Republican Postmaster, by a man named Wheeler, on the election day, Meade presided over a meeting which was held in Hazlehurst, at which the persons participating took sides by resolution with Wheeler.

The Attorney-General, at the request of the Secretary of State, has delivered an opinion as to the eligibility of James M. Morgan to accept a Federal office. He decides, as he did in the Lawton case, that Morgan is under no disabilities, and he says that the matter has ended so far as the Administration is concerned, and Morgan is on his way to his post.

Speaker Carlisle, in a recent interview at Cincinnati, said: "The President is a sensible, honest, and patriotic man, whose highest ambition is to discharge his official duties in strict accordance with the Constitution and the laws, and for the promotion of the public welfare. He is careful and conscientious about everything he undertakes, and if he commits any mistakes in making appoin ments or otherwise, they will, in my opinion, be due to the fact that he is not able in every instance to procure correct information concerning the matters upon which he is compelled to act. The amount of work he performs is remarkable. It is physically impossible for the President and his Cabinet to do more than they are doing. People who think that the entire body of officers and employees who have charge of these vast interests, and who are familiar with them, can be suddenly changed without detriment to the public service are, in my opinion, very much mistaken, and therefore I think the Administration has so far acted wisely in respect to this subject."

There has been a difference of opinion among department officers in Washington as to the point whether the Civil-Service Law applies to chiefs of divisions. Secretary Lamar holds that it does not, and has appointed Robert Hunter, of Winchester, Va., to be Chief of the Division of Accounts of the General Land Office, without a civil-service examination.

Within a few days a $1,000 clerkship in the Pension Bureau having become vacant, Secretary Lamar sent a requisition to the Civil-Service Commission for the certification of a person to fill the position, requesting that the Commission certify the name of a woman clerk from Dakota, as that Territory had no representation in the Bureau. The Commission decline to make the certification as requested, and say in substance that it is the province of the Commission, and not that of the Secretary of the Interior, to name the State or Territory from which selections shall be made for certification upon requisition.

Dr. Neil F. Graham, of Minnesota, Assistant Medical Referee of the Pension Bureau, and Drs. W. H. Gobrecht and John H. Ross, of Indiana, Medical Examiners in the Pension Office, have been removed for "offensive partisanship." Testimony taken before the Warner Committee that they visited their respective States during the last campaign to work for the success of the Republican party, and that their expenses were charged against the Government, was the basis of the charges against them.

A. F. Howard, Collector of Customs at Portsmouth, N. H., has tendered his resignation to the Secretary of the Treasury. In his letter he says he has held the office since December 24, 1873, during which time he has endeavored faithfully to discharge its duties. He adds: "I have also during all that time been a zealous member of the Republican party, and in every way possible contributed to its success. Consequently, my 'offensive partisanship' can be established by many witnesses. For twenty years I have also been a firm believer in the old Jacksonian doctrine, 'To the victors belong the spoils.' Consistency, therefore, compels me firmly to adhere to these principles and convictions in defeat as well as in victory."

President Cleveland was present at the Decoration Day ceremonies in New York.

After a full Cabinet meeting on Thursday the following telegram was sent by the President to Senator Gibson: "The question of reopening the New Orleans Exposition has been considered by the Cabinet, and they are unanimously of opinion that there is no warrant of law for it, and that it would be inexpedient on other grounds."

United States Minister Foster and the Spanish Cabinet are negotiating a commercial treaty between the United States and Spain, which includes Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands, and other Spanish colonies.

The public debt showed a decrease of $3,350,833 in May.

A small detachment of the Tenth Cavalry encountered on Wednesday Chief Geronimo and his band of Apaches in Cook's Cañon, through which the Indians were endeavoring to escape to Mexico. The hostiles were driven back with a loss of four killed and eight wounded. Two soldiers were killed and eight wounded. Owing to the small number of troops, the Indians were not pursued. This detachment is trying to effect a junction with two companies of the Fourth Cavalry, when an active pursuit will be made. The Apaches have been joined by a number of Utes and Navajos, and the band is composed of nearly 200 warriors. More than thirty citizens are reported to have been killed. Many of the bodies were mangled beyond recognition.

The people of New Mexico have issued an urgent appeal (among others, to the press of New York city), stating that about 100 of their neighbors had been massacred, and that 5,000 troops should be immediately placed in the Territory to restore order and punish the redskins, and saying: "Unless the Government at once takes steps to put down the present Indian outbreak and hunt to death every participant in it, our people will no longer consent to the restraint which has thus far prevented their marching upon the San Carlos Reservation and wiping it out of existence. For years it has been the nursery of crime, whence have issued the bands of murdering Apaches that have bathed our homes in blood, robbed our people of their possessions, and retarded the development of our resources."

General Crook telegraphed to General Pope on May 31 from Fort Bayard, Arizona: "Have just arrived. I find there are eight bodies of troops out after the Indians. The latter have doubtless divided into small parties. No reports have been received from any of the troops since the 28th. The Indians have killed a number of people and committed many outrages. The outlook is bad. Everything indicates trouble similar to the Victoria outbreak, and that it will be very difficult to suppress. General Bradley's disposition of the troops seems to have been such as was compulsory under the circumstances."

The *Dolphin*, built by John Roach for the United States navy, made her fourth trial trip on Thursday, going up the Sound to Faulkner's Island and returning. During the first six hours the vessel travelled ninety-three nautical miles, her average speed being 15½ knots an hour, which is more than is required of her by contract. A favorable report has been made by the President of the Board appointed by Secretary Whitney to examine the vessel.

Iron and nail mills in Pittsburgh, Wheeling, Chicago, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and other manufacturing centres shut down on Monday on account of the failure of the manufacturers to accept the scale of wages presented by the Amalgamated Association on behalf of the workmen. About 100,000 men are thrown out of employment. Eight iron mills in the West have accepted the workingmen's terms and are running.

S. W. Talmadge, a Milwaukee expert, has prepared his first preliminary estimate for the season by States of the probable total yield of wheat in the United States for 1885. The estimate shows the probable yield of winter wheat as 231,000,000 bushels, of spring wheat 130,000,000 bushels; total of winter and spring 361,000,000 bushels. According to these figures the crop of 1885, compared with 1884, will show a shortage in winter wheat of 139,000,000 bushels, spring wheat 13,000,000 bushels; total winter and spring shortage 152,000,000.

Governor Hill on Wednesday vetoed the new Census Bill for reasons similar to those expressed in his previous veto. He will not call another extra session

During a hearing before Governor Hill on Monday on the bill to incorporate the College of Medicine and Surgery in this city, Dr. R. A. Gunn, speaking in advocacy of the bill, said he had experienced difficulty in getting the measure out of the Committee on Miscellaneous Corporations, of which Senator Coggeshall (Rep.) is Chairman. He remonstrated with the Senator, but obtained no satisfaction. "Then when I met him in the Fifth Avenue Hotel in New York," Dr. Gunn said, "and asked why the bill was not reported, he said he must have $500 to report the bill favorably, and that he would go on the floor of the Senate and make an argument in its favor. He also desired a guarantee of $1,000 additional to be paid if the bill became a law." Senator Coggeshall represents the Twenty-second District, and lives at Waterville, Oneida County. He emphatically denies the charge.

The General Term of the Supreme Court in this city handed down a decision on Friday in the case of Harvey M. Munsell, the late juror in the Short trial who was imprisoned by Judge Van Brunt for contempt of court. The decision reverses the order of Judge Van Brunt and orders the discharge of Munsell from custody.

During Wednesday's session of the Convention of the Episcopal Diocese of Illinois, an amendment to the canon giving women a right to vote at the election of church officers was defeated

On Wednesday afternoon a derrick, used in hoisting building material for the new Unitarian building in Boston, fell from the second story, owing to the breaking of a rope. Miss Grace Virginia Lord, forty years old, a well-known translator of foreign works, under the nom de guerre of "Virginia Champlin," who was passing with a companion, was struck on the head and instantly killed.

FOREIGN.

It was asserted on Wednesday that the English proposals recently offered to the Turkish Envoy, Hussan Fehmi Pasha, for the occupation of the Sudan by Turkey, had been declined by the Porte. Fehmi Pasha returned to Constantinople from London with the proposal on May 14, after having had an interview at Paris with the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, who assured him that the French

Government would not oppose the Turkish occupation of Suakim or of any part of the Sudan over which the Sultan claimed suzerainty. The reported refusal to accept the proposals after this assurance caused considerable surprise. The proposals permitted the Turkish Government to occupy and control the Sudan, provided action were taken to suppress the slave trade and to develop commerce. The Porte would be free to assert its suzerain rights over the whole of the Sudan, including the Province of Dongola.

Reports were in circulation in Cairo on Thursday that El Mahdi had sent Hassein Khalifa to Cairo to arrange terms with the Khedive.

The rebel forces are beginning to renew their attacks on Suakim.

The Rome *Diritto* foreshadows the occupation of Suakim next autumn by Italy.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, by a vote of 338 to 90, adopted a motion approving the decree secularizing the Pantheon, in order that Hugo might be buried there.

The funeral of Victor Hugo on Monday was one of the greatest pageants ever witnessed in Paris. Hundreds of thousands of people were abroad at daybreak, crowding the streets along which the procession was to move, from the Arc de Triomphe to the Pantheon. Six orations were delivered under the Arc de Triomphe in the presence of nearly all the illustrious men of and in France. M. Le Royer, President of the Senate, said Victor Hugo constantly pursued the higher ideal of justice and humanity, and thus exercised an immense influence over the moral feeling of France. M. Floquet said that the ceremony was not a funeral; it was an apotheosis. M. Augier, a member of the Academy, elaborated the fact made evident to-day: "To the sovereign poet France renders sovereign honors." M. Goblet, President of the Chamber of Deputies, declared that Victor Hugo will remain the highest personification of the nineteenth century, the history of which in its contradictions, doubts, ideas, and aspirations, was best reflected in his works.

The funeral procession started punctually at noon. The threatening clouds of the morning had disappeared by this time. Many chariots, heaped up with the offerings of the people of France, followed the hearse in the procession. Enormous crowds of people lined the streets. The buildings were black with spectators. The body was deposited in the Pantheon, and the ceremonies completed without the dreaded Communist outbreak. Accidents incident to the presence of such an immense concourse of people were numerous.

A despatch from Tirpul, dated May 23, states that the British section of the Afghan Frontier Commission, lately in charge of Sir Peter Lumsden, was then in camp at a point twenty-five miles to the westward of Herat. The officers of the party visited Herat, and were well received by both the authorities and the people. The neutralization of the Panjdeh district is restoring quiet everywhere.

The London *Daily News* (Liberal) announced on the highest authority on Saturday that the Afghan question had been completely settled, Russia accepting the English proposals. Both Merutchak and Zulfikar were allowed to remain in the possession of the Amir. On Monday morning the *News* published a letter from Earl Granville's secretary denying this assertion, and saying that the negotiations are still in progress. The *News*, however, said: "Although the negotiations are unfinished, it will be found, when the Government is able to furnish an official statement of recent and current proceedings, that our statement of Saturday was substantially correct." The *Standard's* St. Petersburg despatch on Monday confirmed the *News's* statement.

The London *Daily News* asserted on Tuesday that it had been definitely agreed upon by the Ministry to invite the King of Denmark to arbitrate in the Afghan dispute.

The second set of official despatches relating to the Afghan dispute were on Tuesday made public in London, and they throw much new light upon the subject. Earl Granville, Foreign Minister, on April 17, wrote to Sir Edward Thornton, British Minister at St. Petersburg, as follows: "Baron de Staal (Russian Minister at London) informs me that he has received a despatch from M. de Giers (Russian Foreign Minister) ascribing the collision at Panjdeh to the military aspect of Sir Peter Lumsden's Boundary Commission, which, he says, encouraged Afghan pretensions. M. de Giers declined to admit that General Komaroff provoked the collision." On the 19th of April Earl Granville wrote to Sir Edward Thornton, declining to admit that Sir Peter Lumsden's Commission had any bearing on the question, and refuting M. de Giers's statement that English officers had directed the Afghan attack. M. de Giers, in his reply to this, declined to sacrifice the interests of Russia or submit the Panjdeh affair to further inquiry. Earl Granville replied proposing arbitration and the resumption of the Afghan frontier negotiations. Baron de Staal replied that even if Russia should admit the principle, she would intrust the task of arbitration to none but Emperor William of Germany, who would decline to serve. Earl Granville said that England had no objection to Emperor William as arbitrator. At this point M. de Giers proposed to neutralize the Panjdeh district pending the result of the Afghan frontier negotiations, and Earl Granville stipulated that both the Russian and the Afghan soldiers be withdrawn from Panjdeh. On May 4 Earl Granville agreed to resume the negotiations concerning the Afghan frontier, and to submit the Panjdeh dispute to the decision of an arbitrator, if Russia and England found themselves unable to settle it otherwise.

It was reported in Pekin on Wednesday that a Russian outpost had fired upon a Chinese outpost in Mantchooria.

Serinagur, India, was visited by a frightful earthquake on Sunday. The shocks, which occurred at intervals of ten minutes, were of great violence. The greater part of the city was destroyed, and the cavalry barracks is a mass of ruins. Fifty persons are known to have been killed, and hundreds of the injured have already been taken from the general wreck. The total loss of life, or the number of the maimed, must remain unknown for some days, as many of the inhabitants still lie buried in the ruins. Serinagur is near the centre of the vale of Cashmere, and that whole territory experienced the terrible earthquake shocks. The Mohammedan mosque at Sopur, twenty miles north of Serinagur, was demolished by the earthquake, and 200 persons were killed.

Serious anti-Jewish riots occurred in Vienna on Monday, owing to the excitement of the people in consequence of the election agitation. The Carmelite Platz was filled with a howling mob, and free fights were frequent. The shops of the Jews were raided and ruined, and their owners violently assaulted. Not less than forty persons were severely wounded.

The Baptist Missionary Society gave a breakfast in London on Thursday to Mr. Henry M. Stanley, the African explorer. An address in the nature of a eulogy was formally presented by the Society to their guest. Mr. Stanley, in his reply, said that he was glad to have had the opportunity of helping the missionaries, and of obtaining in return their help to teach the natives. Formerly he ill-understood the missionaries. However, since that he had seen Livingstone, in whom he recognized the type of a noble and spiritual manhood. The real work of the missionary was hard, his privations were great, his worldly reward small. In conclusion, Mr. Stanley expressed the hope that the Congo country would soon be well supplied with missionaries.

Charles Rogier, the Belgian statesman, died in Brussels on Wednesday, having almost completed his eighty-fifth year. Since 1868 he had lived in retirement, but for nearly forty years he was the leading statesman of Belgium, and a member of the Cabinet.

The Technical Committee of the International Sanitary Conference rejected in Rome on Wednesday, by a vote of 9 to 2, the American proposal to authorize the sanitary condition of vessels to be verified by the countries to which the vessels are bound, through the respective consuls of those countries at the ports of departure.

The Paris Salon prizes have been awarded as follows: Bouguereau, first; B. Constant, second; Humbert, third.

A despatch from Fort Assiniboine on Thursday announced the capture on Wednesday of Gabriel Dumont, the lieutenant of Louis Riel, and a companion by the name of Michael Dumais.

Poundmaker and 150 of his men arrived at Battleford on Wednesday and surrendered to General Middleton, in accordance with the agreement recently reached. General Middleton telegraphed: "I have made prisoners of Poundmaker and Lean-Man, Yellow-Mud-Blanket, and Breaking-Through-the-Ice, being the most influential and dangerous men about him. I have also White Bear, who killed Indian-Instructor Payne, and Wahwainita, who killed Tremont, the rancher. My next task may be Big Bear. Poundmaker brought in the teams taken, and gave up 210 stands of arms and five revolvers." On Thursday a messenger from General Strange's column brought the news to Battleford that Big Bear and his whole band had broken up their camp near Frog Lake, and were moving eastward. It is supposed that runners had reached him with the news of the defeat and capture of Riel and the surrender of Poundmaker. General Strange, with a flying advance force, followed Big Bear up and watched his movements.

News was received on Sunday of a battle on May 28 between Big Bear and the forces under General Strange, some thirteen miles east of Fort Pitt. General Strange's scouts discovered Big Bear's location on Wednesday last, and the General ordered an immediate advance. The force he took with him numbered about 300 men. About noon on Thursday Big Bear's entrenchment was reached. The General found the Indians occupying an exceedingly strong position. For nearly four hours hot firing was continued on both sides. The enemy, finally becoming exasperated, made a desperate rush, but, under excellent cover, and with the aid of field guns, the troops succeeded in repelling them. The Indians retired to prepare for another attack, and the General seeing the superiority of their numbers ordered a retreat, the troops retiring in good order to Fort Pitt, under fire from the Indians, who did not, however, venture to pursue the retreating forces. About thirteen brave fellows were left behind to guard the wagons containing the supplies. When, a few hours later, General Strange sent back after them, it was found that a terrible struggle had taken place, and it is believed that they were massacred. General Strange is badly in need of reinforcements and provisions, and his position at Fort Pitt is very insecure. General Middleton on Sunday started to his relief. A fierce battle with Big Bear is anticipated.

The trial of Riel, the rebel leader, will probably begin at Regina about the 22d of June before Colonel Richardson, the stipendiary magistrate.

The complete defeat of Caceres at Huancayo by Iglesias's forces, under command of Colonel Yessup, is announced from Lima, Peru. Great numbers of prisoners were taken, and Caceres's artillery was scattered. Caceres himself is wounded and General Mas is in pursuit. This decisive victory is expected to prevent any further revolutionary attempts.

SILVER PUZZLES.

THE Atlanta *Constitution*, in a spirit of candor, asks the following questions:

"Is it not true that the suspension of silver coinage will still further depreciate the price of silver bullion? In other words, as there will be no further demand on the part of the Government for silver bullion, will it not inevitably follow that the price of that commodity will be still further reduced?"

These questions cannot be answered dogmatically. The price of silver bullion is governed generally by the law of supply and demand. The operation of this law is modified by speculation—that is, by the opinions which buyers and sellers hold as to the future conditions of supply and demand. It would be a fair presumption, certainly, that a sudden stoppage of the Government's purchases, which now take about one-half of the production of the American mines, would cause a decline in the price of that metal in the ratio which these purchases bear to the world's total production. The demand of the United States mint is about $28,000,000 per annum. The total production in the world is about $110,000,000 per annum, of which the United States produces a little more than $46,000,000. But since it is certain that the demand of our mint must cease at some time, it is probable that the silver market has taken that fact into consideration, and that the decline has been anticipated, or, in the language of the street, "discounted." A purely artificial demand, resting upon political rather than commercial considerations, and liable, therefore, to come to an end at the opening of the ballot-boxes after any general election, is not the kind of demand which determines the price of an article in the market. There are plenty of securities on the Stock Exchange which pay 6 per cent. dividends and yet sell much below par, because the public believe that a time will come when the dividends will be reduced or will cease altogether. Nothing is more certain than that the United States Government will eventually cease to buy silver bullion for arbitrary coinage. Everybody knows this, from China to Peru. All the bullion dealers in both hemispheres have taken account of it. Consequently, it is a matter of pure conjecture how much the price of silver would be affected by the cessation of our artificial demand. It is also beyond human ken whether the present rate of supply will continue, and whether the demand of India and other silver-standard countries will increase or decrease, or remain stationary. The probability is that there will be some decline in the price of bullion when our arbitrary coinage comes to an end, but no great decline.

We might descant at length on the absurdity and injustice of using the public funds to keep up the price of an article in the market in the interest of a particular class of producers at the expense of all others. We might show how the natural resources of the country—its buying and selling power—are lessened by the action of the Government, which intercepts a valuable product of industry on its way to a bona-fide market, puts it to death for all commercial purposes, and buries it in the earth as a corpse. These are important considerations not touched upon in the catechism of our Georgia contemporary. We accordingly pass them by, in order to take up the gravamen of the difficulty which presents itself to the Atlanta *Constitution*, and which is stated in these words:

"What, then, is to be the outcome of this whole business? What is to become of the silver dollars that are already coined? Will the banks of the country open their doors to them after coinage is suspended and the bullion value of the silver still further depreciated? Will Mr. Manning carry out the law and redeem the legal tenders in silver after the opponents of silver have had their way?"

The first view which occurs to us is, that if a danger exists, arising from the accumulation of silver dollars already much depreciated and liable to be still more so, the wisest thing to do is to stop coining them, in order to avoid still greater danger and loss. If it be true that we must stop coining some time, then manifestly the more we have on hand the more we shall lose. The Government cannot buy metal forever which the people refuse to take off its hands. When the public needs are fully satisfied, it might as well buy and store cotton cloth or cotton bales as silver bullion. The spinning industry is more depressed than the mining industry. The miners have had their innings for about seven years. If the public resources are to be held subject to a square divide, it is time that some other trade should be favored with an artificial market for its surplus productions. The railroads are just now in a suffering condition, and since the Government is short of storage-room for its standard dollars, it would tend to equalize the distribution of the revenue if the Secretary of the Treasury should charter a few thousand cars and carry its surplus ingots around the country for a year or two. A public exhibition of this kind would at least have a valuable educating influence.

The banks, we beg to assure our Atlanta contemporary, will take silver on deposit whenever they are convinced that the silver dollar will be kept at par with gold. The reason why they have refused to take it is, that, seeing no limit to the coinage, they believed that silver dollars would eventually sink to their bullion value, and that a great loss would be entailed upon them and their customers. It is not impossible even now to prevent the decline of the silver dollar to its bullion value, but obviously the difficulty of preventing it increases with the number coined. Therefore the way to avert this evil is to put a stop to the coinage as soon as may be. The action of the Atlanta Commercial Convention on this subject is the most hopeful sign of the times that has been discerned since the Silver Bill was passed in 1878. We trust that the *Constitution* will give it a cordial support.

THE FRENCH PANTHEON.

THE restoration of the Pantheon at Paris to its original use, as a monument to illustrious Frenchmen, is a fresh illustration of the hostility of the Republic to the Church, as well as of the political imprudence of the clergy. The building was begun as a church by Madame de Pompadour, but it was not finished until the Revolution was at its height in 1790, and was then dedicated to the memory of great men. The Restoration, however, had not the good sense to let it alone, and when the Clerical and Royalist reaction set in in 1822, Louis XVIII. gave it back to the clergy, who converted it once more into a church. After the expulsion of the Bourbons in 1831, it was again secularized, and remained secularized until after the Coup d'État. The new Emperor, who was then currying favor with the Church, in 1853 converted it again into a place of worship. The Republic has been much more patient than its predecessors, for it has waited since 1877, when the Conservatives finally went out of power, before again compelling the clergy to vacate it, which they were, it is reported, required to do within forty-eight hours.

The Pantheon, in its original secularized form, was intended to furnish what Westminster Abbey has so long furnished in England—a last resting-place for distinguished public men. Nothing can better illustrate, however, the difference in the course of English and French history than the fact that it has been found impossible in France to make any church seem a fit receptacle for the illustrious dead. The fact that Westminster Abbey is a church makes it in the eyes of even the most sceptical Englishmen the better fitted to be the national Valhalla, or "great temple of silence and reconciliation," where men of all parties, who have in any walk shed lustre on their country, can lie peaceably side by side. Their memory, the public thinks, is all the better preserved by the fact that public worship is every day carried on above their graves. There is, in fact, no creed or sect in England which is not delighted by the chance of giving the ashes of a man whom they have loved or followed into the keeping of the Dean and Chapter, no matter what they may think of the value of the functions these gentlemen perform.

In France, on the other hand, the first thing to be done, in the eyes of probably the vast majority of the Parisians, if not of Frenchmen generally, before burying such men as Thiers and Gambetta and Victor Hugo in the Pantheon, is to get rid of the clergy and their belongings, and completely secularize the edifice. Between the French sceptics and the Church there is no room for compromise or concession. French sceptics are not content, like English or German sceptics, with ceasing to go to church and treating the dogmas with good-humored indifference. They insist on proclaiming in every possible way their hostility to the clergy. They make a great parade of being married only by the maire, of not having their children baptized, and of burying their relatives without religious services. Indeed, there has been no more marked characteristic of French liberalism ever since Voltaire lifted up his voice against "L'infâme" on behalf of the Calas family, than its furious hostility to all ecclesiastical organizations, and especially to the greatest of them all.

Indeed, if anything can serve as a warning to the Catholic Church to keep out of politics, and to beware of the gifts of politicians, it ought to be the condition of the Church in France to-day. In no great modern and highly civilized State has the Government been so ready at various times to give the clergy what they wanted in the way of legislation. Every Government France has had, except the first Republic, has sought to placate or win them over by money or privileges. The result has

een not simply that every revolution leads a diminution of State aid, but that the ood-natured contempt of the sceptics for e clergy which is still to be found in her countries, in France has given place to a rocious hatred, which in times of tumult puts e lives of the priests in danger, and in times peace produces legislative spoliation and pression. The continued blindness of the rench clergy on this point, after a century's xperience of the dangers of politics, is some- ing very remarkable. One would have ought that in 1877, when MacMahon began s foolish attempt at reaction, the clergy would ow better than to cast in their lot with m and take a share of the risks of his enter- rise. But they did not know better. Cardinal onnechose and most of the prelates publicly d him godspeed, and a few months later saw m overthrown by the Republicans, and saw e Church again at the mercy of an enraged emy. And yet, bitter as Republican hostility every one acknowledges that it is a trifle mpared to the hostility of the Radicals under émenceau, who are eagerly expecting the epublican succession.

THE MUNSELL CONTEMPT.

HE General Term on Friday, as was expect- l, reversed Judge Van Brunt's decision com- itting Munsell, the juror in the Short case, jail for one month for contempt of court. he three judges decide unanimously that the fence committed by Munsell, if any, was ot contempt of court, but a misdemeanor, r which he should have been indicted and ied by a jury. This conclusion has not een reached by any elaborate process of le- l argumentation, but by a simple inspec- on of the papers in the case and of the atute. In fact, we fancy it is not often that simpler question goes up on appeal. Conse- uently, one cannot help deploring that the de- ands on the judges' time should have been uch that they were compelled to take a week consider the matter, with the result of inflict- g seven days more of unlawful imprisonment an innocent man. For unlawful imprison- ent is not, and we trust will never be, consid- ed a trifling matter in the United States, no matter on whom inflicted, and though inflicted nly for one hour. When any man, however umble, claims the deliverance from it at the ands of a Court, all other business and ex- ises should, it seems to us, be laid aside until ustice be done, no matter whose feelings e hurt. We fully appreciate the desire of udges Daniels and Davis and Brady to spare udge Van Brunt the further humiliation of prompt reversal of his wrongful order; but udge Van Brunt would have to be a ar more valuable and honored person than e is, to entitle him to consideration at the ost of the personal liberty of an American itizen.

Judge Daniels, in his decision, calls Judge an Brunt "a learned judge," and Judge avis calls him "a learned and able one," ap- arently without perceiving that they are raising his intellectual qualities at the expense f his moral ones. That a learned and able udge, as Judge Van Brunt undoubtedly is, ould not have found out between Wednesday, on which Munsell was brought before him for contempt, and Friday, on which he sent the poor man to jail, that no contempt had been committed, and that the offence was an indictable one, will suggest, when coupled with the extraordinary severity of the sentence, that it was not his knowledge which was at fault, but his temper, or, in other words, that he is unfitted by character for the exercise of discretionary power over the liberty of his fellow-men. The law of contempt, as laid down by the Code, seems most clear. The decision of the General Term shows that it is clear. Had Judge Van Brunt studied it, he would doubtless have noticed the note of the Revisers, in which they say, speaking of contempt:

"It cannot be necessary at this day to urge any reasons for substituting the trial by jury in all possible cases, instead of a trial by an offended tribunal."

He ought to have known, and as "learned and able" he must have known, that rule of elementary morals which forbids a man to try an offence committed against himself, and over which he has already grown angry. After Judge Van Brunt had written to the newspapers denouncing the jury, he ought, as a gentleman and a man of honor, to have seen that he was disqualified from inflicting even a fine of five dollars, were the offence of the juryman never so clear. He ought to have sent Munsell before another judge, in order both to guard against the infirmity of his own temper, and to prevent others from suspecting his impartiality.

It is also to be regretted that the General Term, in order still further to soothe their erring brother, should have thought it necessary to indulge in imputations on Munsell's conduct and motives. His character and conduct were in no way before the General Term, and for the aspersions on them made by Judge Daniels and Judge Davis there was not, in the evidence laid before Judge Van Brunt, the shadow of foundation. Munsell did nothing which a perfectly honorable and well-meaning man ignorant of the law might not have done. The production of the diagrams of Rossa's office in court by the District Attorney was a plain intimation to the jury that it was considered important by the prosecution that they should have a clear idea of the locality in which the crime was committed. Now, a diagram is merely a poor substitute for ocular inspection, or, in other words, a piece of imperfect convenience. No sensible man in any serious transaction would rely on a drawing when he could see the original. It is only as a matter of convenience that the jury was not taken to see Rossa's office. It was, therefore, most natural that an impulsive man, ignorant of the law and in the absence of caution from the Court, should, finding himself close to the *locus in quo*, run in to take a look at it.

This is all that Munsell did. There is nothing in his life or character to furnish ground for supposing his motives to have been bad. Nor was there anything in his subsequent conduct to raise such a suspicion, except his having tried to persuade his brother jurymen to acquit. Judge Daniels's observation, therefore, that "it exhibited the mind of the juror not to have been in that impartial condition which was necessary to enable him . . . to decide the case according to the evidence," we must, with great respect, take leave to regard simply as a sop for Judge Van Brunt. That act of Munsell's is not to be judged by rules of evidence, but by experience of human nature. He did nothing more than any rational man, called on to decide a dispute outside a court-room, would do if he could. In fact, the judges seem to have got into their heads a little of the Van Brunt notion that, having come to the conclusion through the aid of a technically illegal step that the prisoner ought to be acquitted, Munsell had no right to argue in favor of that view in the jury-room. In Judge Van Brunt's sentence sending him to jail, this was set out as if it constituted the gravamen of his offence, whereas it was no offence at all, and was nothing with which Judge Van Brunt had any concern whatever.

It is, of course, greatly to be regretted that such acts as Judge Van Brunt's can be committed with impunity in a community like this. In a more sensitive state of public opinion it would not pass unpunished. We print below an account of the impeachment of a Federal judge for abusing his discretionary power by imprisoning a man for a single day. But impeachment is too slow and expensive a process in this State to be attempted by a private individual without aid from the Bar.

THE PECK IMPEACHMENT CASE.

THAT Judge Van Brunt has made himself liable to impeachment by unlawfully imprisoning Mr. Munsell, can hardly be doubted. The case bears a striking resemblance to that of Judge Peck, of Missouri, against whom articles of impeachment were voted by the House of Representatives on the 24th of April, 1830. Judge Peck had imprisoned for twenty-four hours, and had suspended temporarily from the practice of his profession, one Luke E. Lawless, an attorney, for alleged contempt of court. Lawless, by the way, had been a soldier, and had fought on the French side at Waterloo. The contempt consisted in the publication of an article in a newspaper reviewing an opinion delivered by the Judge in a land case. The Judge had issued an attachment against Lawless, brought him into court, abused him for two hours in passionate and indecent terms, and committed him to jail for one day. Lawless had been released on a writ of habeas corpus before his term of imprisonment expired. He sought first to secure redress for the outrage committed upon him by proceedings at law; but, not succeeding in this, he went to Washington city and presented the facts to the House Judiciary Committee, of which Mr. Buchanan, of Pennsylvania (afterwards President), was Chairman. The Committee, after hearing witnesses who were cross-examined by Judge Peck in person, and after receiving from him a written statement of the case, reported articles of impeachment by a unanimous vote. The articles were presented to the House by Mr. Buchanan, who supported them in a very able speech, delivered on the 21st of April. In his exordium he said:

"I trust I am one of the last men in this house or in this country who would seek in the remotest manner to interfere with the constitutional independence of the judiciary. I know that it is the great bulwark of our rights and liberties, and that this house will never use its power of impeachment as a means of infringing upon an institution so sacred. But when an individual elevated to the high and responsible rank of a judge, forgetting what he owes to his own dignity, to his country, and to the liberties

of the people, shall by arbitrary and oppressive conduct prostrate the rights of a citizen of this Republic, it is fit and proper that he should be held up as an example and made a victim to the offended majesty of the laws. It is my deliberate conviction that such has been the conduct of Judge Peck, and I may add that similar sentiments were held by every member of the Judiciary Committee."

He then proceeded to state the facts which had led to the imprisonment of Mr. Lawless, maintaining that that person had a perfect right to discuss in the public prints any opinion of any judge after the case at bar was concluded, and to use any language he saw fit to use, subject to an action for libel and trial by a jury if his words were libellous, but that in fact the language used by Mr. Lawless in this publication was perfectly respectful, and in notable contrast to that of the Judge himself. Upon the temper displayed by Judge Peck he made the following comment, and the reader will observe how closely it fits the conduct of Judge Van Brunt:

"He (the Judge) was much excited, his manner was very warm, and he was occupied two or three hours in delivering his opinion. And what was its whole tenor? Instead of the calm, dignified, and impartial manner which becomes a judge upon all occasions, and particularly when he is himself one of the parties, we find him heated, acrimonious, and severe. He often used the words 'calumniator,' 'contemptuous,' 'slanderous,' 'libellous,' as applied to Mr. Lawless and his article. He even forgot himself so far as to say that in China the house of such a calumniator would be painted black, as an evidence of the blackness of his heart, and as a warning, that the whole world might avoid him. . . . I admit that we ought not to impeach a judge merely because his conduct has been illegal. All must agree that this may be the case, and yet he may not deserve such punishment. But illegal and oppressive proceedings, accompanied by violence of manner, by passion, and by the appearance of revenge, present a very different case, and give birth to very different conclusions."

Mr. Buchanan then argued that if Mr. Lawless had been guilty of any wrong, he was entitled under the Constitution to a fair trial by a jury, whereas Judge Peck had combined, as Judge Van Brunt did, "in his own person the offices of the prosecutor, the grand jury, the petit jury, and the judge." At the conclusion of Mr. Buchanan's speech the House voted the impeachment by 123 yeas to 49 nays.

When the case came to trial before the Senate, sitting as a high court of impeachment, the principal argument in support of the charges was made by Mr. McDuffie, of South Carolina. The speech made by this distinguished orator was one of the noblest forensic efforts of his career. His peroration is summarized in the following words in Benton's Abridgment:

"A wise man of antiquity, upon being asked what is the best form of government, justified the character which he had received by the answer that that was the best in which an injury done to a single citizen was felt as an injury done to the whole community. There was not a man that ought not to make the injury done to Luke E. Lawless his own. We were told that he was an Irishman. He deserved infinite credit, when ordered to prison, for the moderation he exhibited, for not dragging the tyrant, as Virginius dragged Appius, from the throne. As God was his judge, he believed that if the case of Mr. Lawless had been his, if he had been ordered to prison and his family deprived of the means of subsistence, he should have dragged him from his seat on the bench. He had his whole life lived in abhorrence of despotism in every shape, whether in a judge or in an overseer of slaves, and he considered that this petty judge had been guilty of tyrannical conduct which would have disgraced a slave-driver."

The arguments before the Senate occupied several days and engaged the public attention to the exclusion of every other subject. The honors of the debate were shared in about equal measure by Mr. McDuffie and Mr. Storrs (of New York) for the prosecution and Mr. Meredith and Mr. Wirt for the defence. The case resulted in the acquittal of the Judge by a majority of one vote —21 Senators voting guilty and 22 not guilty. Two-thirds were required to convict. The point which is supposed to have saved Judge Peck from the penalty of impeachment was, that there was then no statutory limitation upon the power of judges of the United States Courts to punish for contempt. Such a law was passed immediately after the trial and in consequence of it. Another consideration which had much weight was, that Mr. Lawless had not been much harmed by the action of the Judge, while, on the other hand, a conviction by impeachment would have been irretrievable ruin to Judge Peck and his family. He was almost blind, and could not have earned a living at any other occupation. He wept copiously during the trial, and Mr. Wirt pictured his distress and that of his gray-haired father in the most moving tones. Although he escaped the penalty which he richly deserved for his assault upon the liberty of a citizen, the peril in which he had stood for nine months while the proceedings in his case were pending, cured him of his bad temper, and put an end to his arbitrary and brutal behavior, and taught a lesson to the judiciary which has been effective up to the present time, Judge Van Brunt's assault upon Mr. Munsell being the first and only repetition of it, we believe, since that famous and now almost forgotten trial.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY EXHIBITION.

LONDON, May 18.

IT is several years since I saw an exhibition of the Royal Academy, and I was ill prepared for the great deterioration in almost all the leading painters which I find to have obtained. With very few exceptions, the popular artists have grown more reckless and mannered in execution and vapid in choice of subject. The dominant impression which my visit left was one of intellectual imbecility and technical decay. Huge canvases are devoted to subjects which are worth, in point of thought, no man's study, and the general qualities of execution and color are cruder, looser in intention, and more vulgar and commonplace, than anything I can recall of the years gone by, when English art seemed stirred up by the influences of the great naturalistic revolution, and the enthusiasm for sincere and exhaustive study which was the result of Ruskin's teaching. The brush-work is coarse and unfeeling. Weak straining for the appearance of masterly execution, which only results in feeble and turgid technical qualities; flimsy rendering of all secondary portions of the theme; exaggerations of local color in place of exalted scales of color, and almost entire absence of that firm and thoughtful, if sometimes forced and grotesque, rendering of form which one used to find so much of in the rising men—these are what one sees usurping the places of honor and almost the entire line. The President, Sir Frederic Leighton, though no colorist, and never distinguished for the great executive powers, retains the studious and polished manner which made him twenty-five years ago the hope of the more earnest art-lovers of England; and his study in half-length of a gracious woman,

"Serenely wandering in a trance of sober thought,"

is, I think, the most scholarly picture in the exhibition. Sir Frederic never painted flesh well, but his drawing is careful and his work always refined.

Alma-Tadema, also, preserves the elaborate and thorough manner of painting which has always made him a favorite with the English public, although his singular archæological fancies are in my opinion the means of diverting him from his true line of art—namely, the straightforward objective painting in which his countrymen are the first in the modern schools. The better the archæologist the worse and colder the painter, and Alma-Tadema's pictures are a compromise between the two—not good archæology, and the worse as art for all the limitations and rules the archæology compels him to follow. The motives of antique life are not germane to the mind of the modern realistic artist, who must, if his work is to be of any permanent value, deal with themes which have some roots of sympathy in his own life. The purely ideal classicism is free from the limitations of archæological science, and depends entirely on the sense of beauty or decorative quality, for its value; but art and science have so little in common that any authority exercised over the former by any branch of the latter, even the natural sciences, is certain to develop a frigidity which is fatal to the best qualities of painting. Alma-Tadema would probably surprise himself and excite a genuine enthusiasm in English Philistinism if he would give the same care and admirable painting of details, with his exquisite sense of realistic color, to some subject which was in entire sympathy with the life we live. In the chief picture of this exhibition, a reading from Homer, the painting of all the accessories is as skilful as anything he has ever done, but his characters are of the purest *pose plastique*, which is but the necessary consequence of want of genuine sympathy with the subject. A man who deals with a dead past will always be a lifeless painter, and may expect the fate of the classicists of other times—David, Poussin, Lesueur, etc. The great and true artists, even when they dealt with antique themes, made no attempt to tie their hands with archæological traditions, which must always be incomplete, and are in any case mere matter of curiosity. Alma-Tadema will never do himself justice until he frankly abandons the purlieus of the Museum.

It is hardly edifying to an American public to hear the details of pictures which I hope they may never see, and I shall confine myself mainly to generalities; but there are a few pictures which show that their painters have not given up to the demoralization of the Academy; for, to tell the truth, the Academicians are generally the worst sinners, as might be expected of men who live by a public which accepts the diploma of the Academy as a guarantee of all the virtues, and asks for no further improvement. Of the whole catalogue of the R. A.s, the two already mentioned are the only ones who paint as well as they used to do. In portraiture, which used to be the strong arm of the Academy, there is little but vulgar exaggeration of executive vigor, affectation of masterly handling, and flimsy breadth, as if the little men were all straining after Velasquez. In this, Millais is the first sinner, and doubtless the leader of the fashion. He could not paint such rubbish as Sant's, nor can he divest himself wholly of his great power of handling and love for brilliant color; but there is little in any of his contributions which does him justice, and this little is accompanied with much of what can only be called daubing—reckless smearing of haphazard color, mere background work; and even his draperies are flimsy and poor. Ouless is the only one of the Academy portraitists who maintains the dignity of the English portrait school; for Watts, who sends a single half-length, not of his best work, is not of the traditional school at all. Ouless is a painter of great vigor, and, if somewhat influenced by the prevailing standard of execution, is excellent in color and large in modelling, with an invariable dignity and simplicity which I can find in none of his rivals, leaving Watts again out of the comparison. Herkomer's portraits are the most exaggerated and vulgar of the work of the immortals—powerful in handling, but without refinement either of drawing or color.

The most remarkable contribution to the exhibition, though in a very humble vein, is the "Dog in the Manger," by Walter Hunt, an animal subject. Two calves, coming into a stable, find a little spaniel sleeping in the manger, and do not know what to do in the matter. It is in its vein singularly felicitous, and painted with great purity and a facile delicacy of touch which contrasts favorably with the dominant coarseness of execution.

The picture which has been generally regarded as the success of the exhibition is "The Salon of Mme. Récamier," by Orchardson, who may, perhaps with Poynter, be classed among the painstakers beyond those mentioned, though *me judice* Orchardson's manner errs by a vice scarcely less obnoxious than the coarseness of the mass. His foible is the mistaking for good color a yellow tone that suggests treacle, and for good execution a semi-transparent method of painting which suggests the vehicle more strongly than the pigment. In this particular picture the vices of manner are dwarfed by the flagrant absurdity of the matter. Mme. Récamier reclines on a sofa in the extreme corner of her salon, in the attitude of a *poseuse* with whom the arrangement of a *tableau vivant* has just commenced, and who waits for the rest of the characters to take their places, while they, in all the attitudes of some arrested action, seem to have been stopped in their movement by the signal of a photographer, and told not to move till the lens is covered. There is no indication of conversation going on, or of listening; no ensemble of motive in the various figures: it is, to recur to the only comparison possible, as if the whole assembly had been photographed, and had been long enough about it to feel very stiff and awkward. It quite makes Alma-Tadema's assemblies seem living and unconscious in comparison. I do not remember to have seen a picture in which there was such utter absence of real dramatic feeling.

Even in landscape, which the English have always claimed as a special possession of the race, the Academy has gone greatly astern. The only good landscape by a member of the Academy, to my mind, is one by Leader, associate, the Academician landscapes being far below the outside standard. Even Brett, who used to be the realist *par excellence* of English landscapists, has gone into a vein of exaggerated local tint without reference to the harmonies of tone or color, which makes his picture seem like a model of a landscape in confectionery—no breadth, no tone, no unity—a very eruption of the color sense, morbid and violent without being strong. Even Henry Moore, who, ten years ago, was the most thorough painter of the open sea, with all its subtle phenomena, that England has ever produced, has sunk to a bald conventionalism no better as sea painting than Hook's, and worse in color. To have won public favor means now almost certain decadence, and Moore is not even an associate, but merely a favored exhibitor. A picture of extraordinary quality is the "Salt-house Dock, Liverpool," by Atkinson Grimshaw, a name new to me. The scene is one of those dreary quays which are the glory and the gloom of Liverpool, with shipping and the most unpicturesque buildings which all know who have had the vexation of landing at that port; with the night coming on, the street lamps gleaming along the wet pavements, and the moon lighting the sky from the side—not visible, but shown by the faint first illumination of the clouds as she comes on the scene. As a rendering of a most difficult effect and poetic treatment of most unpoetic fact, it is the most felicitous piece of work in the exhibition, and one of the most exquisite studies of moonlight I have ever seen. Another excellent and thoroughly artistic extra-Academic picture is "A Fish Sale on a Cornish Beach," by Stanhope A. Forbes—a sea-coast scene in a warm, harmonious gray, painted with a forcible directness of execution which is in striking contrast to the simulated vigor of most of the Academicians' work. Two figure pictures by non-Academicians deserve special mention: "White Hydrangea," by Albert Moore, a delicious study of a classically draped figure in delicate tints, in the best vein of decorative art; and a powerful life-sized "Pied Piper of Hamelin," by A. T. Porter, thoroughly realistic, as befits the subject, but with a weird quality of design that is notable even in a subject so often drawn and painted.

Looking over my marked catalogue, I find that, with very few exceptions, the most ambitious pictures are distinguished by their utter poverty of intellect, and those by the older Academicians even more so than those by the outsiders. The pictures of J. R. Herbert, R. A., which are perhaps the very worst, have the excuse of extreme age and decay of mental powers; but for such pictures, if not for such painters, the Academy ought to provide an hospital, that the canvases may not occupy space which they do not deserve, and which is wanted for the rising and struggling men who cannot claim by right a place on the walls. There are huge canvases by Frederick Goodall, R. A., of which the most preposterous is a life-size Arab on a camel racing across an acre of canvas representing a moonlit desert strewn with skeletons and bones. Crude, hard, and trashy, with an elaborate scarabæus crawling in the near foreground, this picture is called "Gordon's Last Messenger"—a shallow bit of claptrap, spread to catch the excited patriotism of the day. Frith's "John Knox at Holyrood" is hardly better than Herbert's work; and even Edwin Long, so late admitted to the supreme honors of the Academy, has begun to take on the indolent ways of his elders. One might have hoped that his European training would have held out longer. Colin Hunter's much-trumpeted "Niagara," almost the size of nature, is the worst and least liquid caricature of the rapids it has ever been my bad fortune to see It has just the limpidity of a bad mosaic pavement.

Of what our own painters have sent, I shall speak in connection with the minor exhibitions.

W. J. S.

ÉLÉONORE D'OLBREUZE.—II.

PARIS, May 20, 1885.

SOPHIA DOROTHEA, the young daughter of the Duke of Zell and of Éléonore, his wife, had been promised to the Prince of Wolfenbüttel. When this young prince was killed at the siege of Philippsburg, Sophia Dorothea was only ten years old. She was well educated, handsome, and one of the richest heiresses of the Empire. There were many aspirants to her hand. At the death of the Duke John Frederick, who had no children, the ambitious Bishop of Osnabrück became more powerful than his eldest brother; and in order to complete the union of Zell and Hanover, a marriage was arranged between Sophia Dorothea and Prince George Louis. William of Orange, an old friend of the Dukes of Brunswick, advised that the title of Duchess should be recognized in Éléonore. Louis XIV. gave the same opinion. George William and his brother became friends, as of old—"ein fürstliches Dioskuren-Paar," as Leibnitz said. Even the Duchess Sophia became more civil to the Duchess of Zell.

The negotiations relative to the marriage dragged on a long time, as the pretensions of George William were exorbitant; finally, all matters were arranged: "At last, my brother," wrote Éléonore, on Oct. 8, 1682, to M. d'Olbreuze, "my daughter is affianced to the handsomest and wealthiest prince in Germany. He is the heir of this house, the Prince of Hanover, the nephew of my husband." The young bride brought 150,000 florins, and received a *dot* of 50,000 florins a year. The marriage took place at Zell, on December 2, 1682, without any ceremony; and a few days after, the young couple entered Hanover. Sophia Dorothea was still a child, being only sixteen years old; George Louis, her husband, was only twenty-two years old. He had already gone to the wars; he was odd, taciturn, cold, proud, tenacious; he cared for nothing but for the pleasures of the chase and for the company of women—"provided he could change them often," says Ilten. He showed at once a great antipathy to his wife. His mother, Sophia, had taught him to despise her, to consider Éléonore as an adventuress and an upstart, and he had married Sophia merely for her money. Sophia showed no kindness to her daughter-in-law; she never could bring herself to treat her with any sort of attention. Sophia was well received only by Ernest Augustus. A child was born ten months after the marriage. George spent a part of his first year in making war against the Turks. When he was at court, he lived publicly with his old mistresses. Sophia, though she had become a mother, was no better treated; she was alone, and almost abandoned in a court where she felt every day that she was neglected and despised.

During the winter of 1685, Sophia Dorothea made a journey to Venice with her husband and her father-in-law. She affected to accept the homages of two or three Italian princes, and years afterward the Duchess of Orleans was still indignant at what she called her coquetry. George Louis left her alone, and amused himself in Florence and Naples in the company of Ilten. In the spring they all returned to Hanover; but the Prince followed the Duke Charles of Lorraine in his battles against the Turks. Soon after his return Sophia Dorothea had a second child. Life became intolerable for her in Hanover; the education of her children was given to their grandmother. The Prince lived publicly with his favorites, first, Mme. de Weyhe, the sister of his father's mistress, then with Mme. de Schulenburg, Countess Kielmansegg, etc. Sophia was surrounded with enemies; the Duchess Sophia had ceased to see her; her only consolation was an occasional visit from her father and mother.

On the 29th of February, 1688, we hear for the first time of the Count Koenigsmarck. He appears in a fancy ball given by the Duke Ernest Augustus. His mother was acquainted with the Duke and Duchess of Zell. It has been said that almost from a child he had had a great attachment for Sophia Dorothea. It may be so; he certainly had become a very dissolute young man, noticeable for his extravagance in many countries. Stepney, the English minister in Dresden, writes to one of his colleagues in Hanover: "I knew him in England, in Hamburg, in Flanders, in Hanover; he was a true libertine, and I always avoided him." Koenigsmarck had entered the Hanoverian army as colonel. He saw Sophia Dorothea deserted, and he undertook to console her. Leibnitz has left a note on the margin of a pamphlet kept in the archives of Hanover, in these terms: "The Electress and the Princess have not seen each other for two years, for this reason: when there was an appearance of fire at the opera, Count Koenigsmarck quickly screamed, 'Save the Electoral Princess'; and as the chamberlains were not there immediately, in the darkness and confusion, the Count, taking the Electress for the Princess, gave her his hand to bring her out. Then, having perceived his error, he left her suddenly to run to the Princess, and as the others had seen the Count conducting the Electress, she found

herself alone, till Prince Maximilian, having perceived her, took her out of the crowd." This passage tends to show either that Koenigsmarck had made no secret of his preference for Sophia Dorothea, or that, in a moment of excitement, he could not control his instincts. This incident took place two years before the events which cost him his life; it may therefore be inferred that for two years from the time when the electoral dignity was conferred on the Duke of Hanover, Koenigsmarck became a sort of *cavaliere servante* of the Princess. He continued, however, to lead his usual disorderly life.

No precaution was taken against him. Nothing would have been easier than to send him to some distant garrison: it seemed as if the Elector wished to bring matters to a crisis. George Louis had a visit to make to Berlin; before leaving, he told his wife that he would ask her father to give his consent to a separation. Sophia went herself to Zell, and begged her parents on her own behalf to consent to this separation. Her father refused; she returned to Hanover and saw Koenigsmarck again—she saw him every day, and he often remained with her very late in the evening. Madame de Platen, the mistress of the Elector, who hated Koenigsmarck, exposed the conduct of Sophia Dorothea. On the 1st of July Koenigsmarck was seized as he left the palace, and was never seen again. One is shown still, in a passage of the castle, a mark made, it is said, by his sword; but the mystery of his disappearance has never been unravelled. The papers of Sophia and of the Count were seized; Mademoiselle de Knesebeck, the Princess's lady in waiting, was arrested. Nothing of importance was found. The Hanoverian agents were instructed to deny any sort of relation between the disappearance of the Count and the coldness which had lately been observed between the Electoral Prince and his wife. The Countess Aurora of Koenigsmarck, who was all-powerful at Dresden, moved the court of Saxony against Hanover; but Hanover persisted in refusing to give any explanation of the Count's disappearance.

Sophia Dorothea was sent to Ahlden, a small castle which was designated as her residence. She was treated there as a prisoner of state, and kept in ignorance of everything. She was interrogated by the ministers of Zell, but denied having ever allowed Koenigsmarck to remain in her apartment at night; she admitted that "appearances were against her." The account of this inquest has been preserved in Hanover. It was agreed that a separation should be pronounced, and an ecclesiastical tribune was named in order to settle the conditions of the separation. The divorce was declared; the name of Sophia Dorothea was struck out of the public prayers. She received a pension, and was to remain at Ahlden. She did remain there for thirty-two years!

One can easily imagine the effect which these events produced upon Éléonore; she had lost, at least partly, the great empire which she had always had over her husband. Age had destroyed her charms; the Duke perhaps could not at heart forgive her for the dependence in which he had placed himself with regard to his brother. Weak as he was, he needed to be governed, but he had found a new master in Bernsdorff. The fate of Sophia Dorothea made him feel that his *mésalliance* was punished by destiny. His sister-in-law Sophia worked upon all his feelings, and triumphed over Éléonore. She made herself extremely important by the great part which she took in the question of the English succession. In the winter of 1698-1699 William III. made a visit to Zell. The French Minister wrote: "Madame the Duchess of Zell will try to persuade the King to speak in favor of the Duchess of Hanover; but the ministers, who are not the friends of the mother nor of the daughter, have so completely worked upon the Duke that it is to be feared that he will ask the King of England not to meddle with the affairs of this Princess." Nothing in fact was changed, after the visit of William, in the existence of Sophia Dorothea. William left Hanover, promising to assure to the posterity of the Electress Sophia the right of succession to the throne of England. Éléonore had used her good offices in this negotiation. William liked her and was very devoted to her husband, but he could do nothing for the prisoner of Ahlden.

The Duchess of Zell was the only person who visited Sophia in her prison. Sophia lived in a decent style; she had a few attendants, but armed men were constantly watching the doors of her habitation. She could only drive with these guards on horseback. In vain did Sophia write penitent and humble letters to George Louis and to the Electress Sophia; nobody could visit her without special permission. The Archives of Hanover have preserved these permissions: they were chiefly given to French noblemen and their wives, who had found an asylum in Zell. The Duchess Éléonore took much interest in the study of religious questions: "Mme. la Duchesse de Zell," writes Leibnitz to Bossuet, "has read with particular interest your 'Histoire des variations des Églises protestantes.'" She was a good Protestant, but felt more indulgent toward the Catholic Church than did Leibnitz and the Electress Sophia. It was said at one time that she intended to renounce the Reformed Church, but she remained in it to the end. She took a constant and active interest in the Huguenots. She sometimes was able to help them in France, as she had some influence with Gourville, and even with Mme. de Maintenon (who was an aunt of her sister-in-law, Mme. d'Olbreuze). She had inherited some lands in Aunis and Saintonge, and would never sell them. She felt as if they were her last tie to France.

In the year 1703 George William celebrated his eightieth birthday. He died some time afterward. He left in his will to his widow a good revenue, with a palace at Lüneburg. The Duchess of Zell transported her little court to this new place. She was obliged to leave the palace where she had lived for forty years. She was away from her daughter, in a dull, fortified little city. She fell ill, and it was thought for a while that she would not long survive her husband. She was able, however, to go to Hanover for the marriage of her granddaughter, Sophia Dorothea, with the Royal Prince of Prussia. The mother of the bride learned of the marriage at Ahlden, and was not allowed to come to Hanover. Éléonore returned at once to Lüneburg, and resumed her monotonous existence. In 1714 the Elector George Louis was called to the throne of England. Éléonore made a new effort to obtain permission for her daughter to leave her prison. Public opinion in England was moved by the fate of the Princess, who remained shut up in Germany. The Prince of Wales, the Queen of Prussia, interfered in her behalf; nothing could move the King.

Éléonore was allowed, as she became older, to inhabit the castle of Zell, which was nearer to the prison of Sophia Dorothea. She spent there her last years. She lost her sight almost completely, and could only write in very large characters. Her charities, in Germany and in France, had no limit but her revenue. She died on the 5th of February, 1722, and even the vengeful Duchess of Orleans was obliged to write: "The Duchess of Zell has had a fine death; God grant that I die as well!" and she added: "It must be said that the Duchess of Zell had many qualities." She was, indeed, a woman of remarkable intellect, and of a remarkable virtue. She left to Sophia Dorothea 60,000 florins, the estate of Olbreuze, all her jewels, her furniture, and her silver. She was buried at mid night, without any pomp, having in her will recommended this simplicity. When the unfortunate Sophia died, her remains were transported to Zell. Mother and daughter are buried in two simple tombs, without any ornament or inscription, in contrast with the magnificent sepulchres of the Guelph princes.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of May 28, you announce *us* as the publishers of a pamphlet "purporting to contain 'Opinions of the Press' on Mr. Scudder's 'History of the United States.'" In the same article you denounce us for selecting and joining extracts improperly.

Will you do us the justice to correct this statement in your next issue, as we are not the publishers of the pamphlet, nor of the History referred to?—Very respectfully yours,

E. H. Butler & Co.

Philadelphia, June 1, 1885.

[We regret the error, which occurred in a letter from a correspondent. The publisher in question is Mr. J. H. Butler, of the same city. —Ed. Nation.]

THE IOWA PROHIBITORY LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your statement in your issue of May 14, 1885, page 393, that the Iowa prohibitory law has been held defective, is incorrect. The question was raised and argued, but the point was not sustained, the Court holding that the record in the journal of the House was sufficient.

The statement that the law had been declared unconstitutional was made, however, in the local papers at the time, but was corrected by Judge Louffborrow over his own signature. You were probably misled by the first account.

Truly yours, J. A. Phillips.

Dunlap, Iowa, May 25, 1885.

THE CLEVELAND APPRAISERSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the unfortunate changes made by the Administration, the removal of the Appraiser in the Custom-house in this city and the appointment to the position of Mr. J. C. Poe should be noted.

It is difficult to justify the removal of Mr. Begges on the ground of offensive partisanship. He was, before his appointment, a merchant in this city. He has held the position a long number of years, and has the advantage of long experience. The part he has taken in politics has been slight. The attention he has given the duties of his position has been close. He has deserved and has enjoyed the confidence of those who do business at the Custom-house.

On the contrary, the new Appraiser, Mr. J. C. Poe, has been for years the embodiment of all that is offensive in partisan politics. His occupation is that of a farmer. He has been at several times a member of the House of Representatives of the State. While at Columbus he has had a single hobby, which he has constantly ridden: he believes that the judges of our courts and the county officers should be paid salaries about equal to the wages of common day laborers. This has marked the horizon of his political opinions. On other questions he has been con-

spicuously wrong. During the days of the greenback heresy he was one of its most loud-mouthed advocates. In short, he represents the most ignorant, most bigoted wing of the Democratic party here. His vagaries have been the laughing-stock of all intelligent men of both parties.

It goes without saying that he has no especial fitness for the duties of Appraiser; in fact, it would seem that he is most distinguished for a total want of qualifications for the place. The friends of the Administration sincerely regret that such a blunder has been made. It is particularly discouraging to the Republicans who voted for Cleveland.—I am, very respectfully, yours, E. A. Angell.

Cleveland, O., May 25, 1885.

A QUESTION OF BOSTON GRAMMAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am told that the difference between the Boston owl and the common owl is this: The common owl says "To who," while the one from the Hub says "To whom."

This remarkable devotion to the rule of grammar requiring the objective case after a preposition is also exemplified in the following extract from "The Bostonians," in the *Century* for April, p. 903: "He had the air of being but vaguely aware of whom Miss Chancellor, the object now of his wife's perpetual reference, might be."

Is this the true Boston use? If so, the rest of us will learn to say "To whom."

Kokosing.

May 26, 1885.

Notes.

'New York and the Conscription of 1863' is the taking title of a chapter in the history of our civil war, by Gen. James B. Fry, announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons, who will also begin a series of "Military Monographs" with an essay on 'Our Sea-Coast Defences,' by Lieut. Eugene Griffin, U. S. A. They have in press the following novels: 'A Social Experiment,' by A. E. P. Searing, and 'A New England Conscience,' by Belle C. Greene.

A "Riverside Paper Series" of summer novels, old and new, beginning with Hardy's 'And Yet a Woman,' will be issued during the present season by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The same house will publish immediately 'Russian Central Asia,' by Henry Lansdell, author of 'Through Siberia.'

The Perine Engraving and Publishing Company have ready 'The History of New York City,' by Benson J. Lossing, illustrated.

Another of the volumes—the third—of "Tales from Many Sources," rapidly published by Dodd, Mead & Co., borrows from William Black, from the author of 'John Inglesant,' from E. M. Clerke, and from sundry English magazines.

Scott's 'Tales of a Grandfather,' abridged by Edwin Ginn, and the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' edited by J. H. Stickney, continue the series of "Classics for Children" which Ginn & Co. issue.

All persons engaged in directing elementary experimental work in physics will welcome Glazebrook and Shaw's 'Practical Physics,' a book of 487 pages, recently published by Appleton & Co. The authors, who are demonstrators at the Cavendish Laboratory, indicate what experiments are suitable for beginners, in order to arrive at a clear understanding of the general principles of physics. The selections all seem good, and the plain and full directions cannot be too highly commended. Theoretical work is given or not, according as the authors have thought necessary. Whether actually needed or not, no one can regret the presence of chapters giving the theoretical basis of the experiments on magnetism and electricity. Statical electricity is entirely omitted. There are good introductory chapters on Units of Measurement and Physical Arithmetic. We have noted only a few errors, and these generally unimportant. On page 386 we have what purports to be the definition of a current of electricity, but it is really the definition of the *strength* of a current.

Authentic views of tornadoes in action are rare enough to give special value to the sketches contained in No. 19 of the Signal-Service Notes. Sergeant Glenn, being himself at Huron, Dakota, on August 28, 1884, witnessed the moderately destructive but very interesting tornado of that date and locality. His five drawings suggest, now a wheat-stack with a broom sticking from the middle, now a balloon which is being lost in the clouds, having parted with its car and all its gearing. Sergeant Glenn's discussion leads him to recognize electrical energy in the force of this phenomenon.

Judge Daly has a genial sketch of the professional life and character of the late Charles O'Conor in the *Magazine of American History* for June. Good anecdotes abound in it, one hinging on the fact of the great lawyer's descent from the last King of Ireland. After a visit to that country, Mr. O'Conor began to spell his name with a single *n*—because, as the Judge suggested when asked the reason, his royal forefathers had done so. Yes, said a bystander, the Irish kings had always been so poor as never to be able to make both *n*'s meet. We must also mention an interesting article on Asa Packer and the Lehigh University. Among the Notes is one from Dr. S. A. Green, instancing the use of the word "ticket" in a political sense by one of the Franklin family as early as 1766; and another defending the spelling of "doughface," a word of John Randolph's coinage, against an alleged "doeface."

Classified "Reading Notes on Education," compiled by Mr. John Edmands, of the Philadelphia Mercantile Library, accompany the April Bulletin of that institution. The list of books is purposely made exclusive of those mentioned in Poole's Index under the same title.

The life and eminent services of the late Stephen B. Noyes are fitly commemorated in the twenty-seventh annual report of the directors of the Brooklyn Library, to which Mr. Noyes gave so much distinction by his admirable catalogue; as well as in the *Library Journal* for May.

The war series in the *Century* finds a modest parallel in the *Southern Bivouac* (Louisville: B. F. Avery & Sons). In the June number, the battle of Franklin (Hood's Tennessee campaign, chap. 7), is related, with the aid of a map and of several portraits, by Major D. W. Sanders. Judge Thos. H. Hines tells of General Morgan's escape from the Ohio penitentiary, which he himself planned. Mr. Paul Hayne gathers together a number of Confederate war-songs, and gives brief biographical sketches of their authors.

We lately had occasion to refer to the actor Forrest's last sitting for his likeness. The result so pleased him that he resolved never to sit again, and he never did. A copy of this fine photograph, mounted on a large panel, and showing two-thirds of the figure, has been sent us by the artist, Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia. The negative seems to have been admirably preserved.

A book by Georg Ellinger, recently published in Berlin under the lumbering title, 'Das Verhältniss der öffentlichen Meinung zu Wahrheit und Lüge im 10., 11., und 12. Jahrhundert,' endeavors to prove, by quotations from contemporary chronicles and other writings, that in those centuries lying was not deemed dishonorable, but a light and venial offence at its worst; that perjury was readily excused when prompted by laudable motives; that oaths and other solemn pledges were regarded as binding only in a literal sense, and even treachery and wilful deception were not unconditionally condemned. It is hardly necessary to say that the literary remains of those remote mediæval times are scarcely ample enough to give full support to sweeping generalizations of this kind.

A library might be gathered, considerable in size and of great range as regards subjects, consisting solely of books by royal authors. The latest addition to such a collection would be a work on 'The Wars of Cæsar Judged from the Standpoint of Modern Strategy,' by the eldest son of the Crown Prince of Germany, being the substance of some lectures delivered by him at officers' meetings. It is possibly significant of the future of the two rival houses of Hapsburg and Hohenzollern that the Crown Prince of Austria should write books of travel and interest himself in geographical questions, while the presumptive heir of the German crown devotes himself to the study of military science.

A society has just been formed in Germany, with a capital of 1,200,000 marks, for the purpose of exploring and colonizing the recently acquired territory in Southwestern Africa. To the same end Doctor Fischer, a resident of Zanzibar for the past seven years, as well as a traveller in the interior, has published a book entitled 'More Light in the Dark Continent: Views on the Colonization of Tropical Africa, with especial reference to the Zanzibar Country' ('Mehr Licht im dunkeln Welttheil,' etc.). A report of his recent unsuccessful attempt to pass through Masai Land, with illustrations, ethnographic tables, and a map, has also appeared.

The admirable series of facsimile reproductions of early illustrated books issued by Hirth, the Munich publisher, under the title "Liebhaber-Bibliothek alter Illustratoren," now comprises ten volumes. The latest additions to the set are Holbein's "Todtentanz" and "Bilder zu dem Alten Testament," and Dürer's "Kleine Passion." The Holbeins are reproductions of the Lyons 1538 editions. The "Little Passion," as reproduced by Hirth, bears the imprint "Nürnberg bei Albrecht Dürer, 1510." It would be interesting to know whether Hirth has discovered a complete edition with the date of 1510, or has simply reproduced the plates which were thrown off and issued separately before the publication of the series in book form in 1511. Willshire, in his 'Introduction to the Study of Ancient Prints,' expresses the opinion that an edition without text and probably without title was published either before the 1511 issue or not long after its appearance.

The newspapers and their sellers are at loggerheads in Paris. In that city our omnipresent army of noisy newsboys is replaced in great measure by women who sit in ornamental little sentry-boxes ("kiosques"), and distribute the journals to a crowd of eager buyers. The newspapers are received on commission by the venders, two and a-half sous being allowed them on a fifteen-sous paper. At the end of the day they pay for what they have sold, less the commission, and return the unsold copies. But of late years they have devised a way for increasing their profit by letting out the papers for five sous, doubling their commission even if they only lend each paper once, and then returning the paper to the office as unsold. The reader gets his paper for five sous in place of fifteen, and rejoices, but the unfortunate publishers sell no copies at all. At last they have tired of lending their journals to the kiosque women to make money on, and their exceeding profitable commerce is to be broken up.

Prof. Daniel Schenkel, who died near the close of last month, is known in this country chiefly as

editor of the 'Bibel-Lexikon' (5 vols., Leipzig, 1868-75) which goes by his name, a work to which many of the most famous Biblical critics of Germany contributed. His independent writings are, however, also highly esteemed in the theological world, among them, 'Das Wesen des Protestantismus' (3 vols., 2d ed., 1862), 'Die Reformatoren und die Reformation' (1856) and the more liberal 'Christliche Dogmatik vom Standpunkt des Gewissens' (2 vols., 1858-59) and 'Das Charakterbild Jesu' (4th ed., 1873). As a champion of congregational autonomy against hierarchical tendencies, and especially as author of the last-named book, he was involved in various theological controversies, which caused considerable commotion in Protestant spheres. He edited the *Allegemeine Kirchen-Zeitung* from 1852, and from 1859 the *Allegemeine Kirchliche Zeitschrift*. He was born in Zürich in 1813, became pastor at Schaffhausen in 1841, professor at Basel in 1849, professor and preacher at the University of Heidelberg in 1851.

By the acquisition of the Sachau collection of Syriac manuscripts, 320 in number, the Royal Library of Berlin is said to have raised its treasures in this field to a level with the British Museum and the Library of the Vatican. The collection embraces Bibles, commentaries, liturgical writings, hymns, patristic works, histories and legends, grammars, lexica, etc. A catalogue of the collection, with introductory dissertations, has been issued by the Royal Library. It includes an exhaustive report, dated July 24, 1842, by Captain, now Fieldmarshal, von Moltke, concerning some Syriac manuscript codices brought by him from Kurdistan and ceded to the Library. Probably the most valuable part of the newly-acquired manuscripts is Bar Bahlut's great thesaurus of the Syriac language.

—The June *Lippincott* begins with more of what the publishers' notice, kindly prefixed to the volume "for the convenience of editors who have not time to prepare notices," indu'gently calls the "life-like dialogue" of "On This Side." A more interesting piece is the "Letters from the Isthmus" of Panama, written by John Heard, jr., the young engineer who sent the letters from Sonora in a previous number. He does not appear to have found any mines which it would be worth while to work; but his sketches of the swampiness of the country, which makes one wonder that any one can live there, and the indolence of the people, which makes one wonder that they ever either raise or resist revolutions, and the alarming mortality of the Europeans engaged upon the canal, which would prevent any more coming there if it were not carefully concealed in France, are well worth reading. "What shall a Woman do when her Husband fails in Business?" gives good common-sense advice for a misfortune which is only too common in this country. If the impression left upon the reader's mind is that a woman can do very little under such circumstances, it is not the fault of the writer, but lies in the nature of things. Proper stress is laid upon the duty of the mother of small children to enter upon no profession that involves neglecting them, and more encouragement is given to hopes of saving wisely than of earning largely. The short stories are of fair interest. Two have a mystical tinge; one, "Pompeian Ida," opens with a supernatural strain, which modulates at the close, however, into the commonplace. The only historical article is, "With the Conquerors in 1870," by F. S. Daniel, who was correspondent of the New York *Herald*, and even that is concerned more with the difficulties of a war correspondent than with the movements of armies. It was perhaps suggested by Archibald Forbes's story of how he became a correspondent.

—*Harper's*, too, has "A Night with the Germans," an account of some part of the autumn manœuvres in Thuringia. In this the chief point noticeable is the often-praised German discipline, which must be something between the stolid obedience of the Russian and the occasionally disorderly *élan* of the Frenchman. There is also a Spanish-American article, describing Bogota, the least modernized of South American capitals, by reason of its inland situation. Its difficult access, which diminishes its commerce, has encouraged a love of letters and science that has won for it the title of the Athens of Spanish America. Mere isolation will never make a city literary, and no doubt the Bogotans owe much to their excellent climate. The city is nine thousand feet above the sea, and only four and a half degrees from the equator, which makes it at once cool in summer and warm in winter, the temperature varying little from 57 Fahr.; the clear air purifies the brain, and as the body has no struggle to sustain with extremes of temperature, students can give their whole force to thought. The *pièce de résistance* is certainly Professor Hill's "English in the Schools," which gives excellent advice to those who are trying to write English and to those who are teaching them. The pupils may not read it, but may get the good of it by transmission through their teachers, especially if the latter are induced to renounce what Professor Hill calls schoolmasters' English—as, for instance, the distinction between *that* and *who* or *which*, which pedagogues insist shall be confined, the one to restrictive relative clauses, the others to clauses which explain or expand the meaning of the antecedent. It was only last year that the editor of Cobbett's 'Grammar' triumphed greatly at catching his master tripping, and made an agreeable book almost unreadable by inserting in every instance what he thought the correct relative in brackets after Cobbett's mistaken one. Then there is the distinction between *each other* and *one another*, which is purely an invention of the schools, and the objection to ending a sentence with a preposition, which is contradicted by the practice of every idiomatic writer. The improvements in our methods of instruction which Professor Hill suggests, consist in giving children skill in penmanship, spelling, and punctuation as early as possible, so that when they come to write, their attention shall not be diverted from the thought by the mechanical part of writing; secondly, in exercising them in the formation of sentences before they are called upon for "compositions," so that when they are, that also shall be as easy to them as penmanship; and finally, to impress upon them that the main thing is to have something to say and to say it intelligibly and naturally. The corollary from this last point is, that boys should not be asked to write upon vague subjects like Virtue, Friendship, etc., about which it is impossible that they should have anything to say. This is old advice, but it ought to be impressed continually by every school superintendent on every teacher of English composition, for such subjects are continually given out. Professor Hill also urges the advantage of requiring good English in translations and in examination papers. Of course the classical lesson will take a little longer, and the examination paper must be read with more care if the instructor is trying to teach English and Latin, or some other subject, at the same time; but it is worth the while.

—Another solid article in *Harper's*, but not quite so solid, is R. A. Proctor's "How Earthquakes are Caused." His answer is in substance, By gravity. All matter presses toward the centre of the earth; that pressure causes internal heat. The alternating high and low pressure of the ocean on the shore line due to tides bends the earth's crust as a workman bends a sheet of tin, till at last fissures are formed through which water, penetrating to internal cavities, is turned to steam, which, if it cannot readily escape, bursts out into some other cavity left by the constant contraction of the earth's core, and shakes the world. To these causes is to be added the strain put upon the earth's crust by varying atmospheric pressure; for earthquakes, like colliery explosions, are often observed to be preceded by marked changes in the barometer. Thus gravity of the earth, of water, and of air are the three causes, or rather the one cause acting in three ways. It is a pretty theory, and good till a new one comes to supplant it. The history in this number treats of Knoxville in the olden time, and is mainly a sketch of John Sevier, a determined Indian fighter, who saved the white settlers of Kentucky and Tennessee a hundred years ago from many dangers, perhaps from extermination. For travels, Mrs. Rollins carries us to a ranch in Texas and Mr. Millet to Jutland and Vierlande, giving very quaint glimpses of the villages of those Baltic provinces. He also writes on the Watts exhibition, making vigorous protest against hyper-realism and a defence of imagination in art. It is curious to find him urging that the painter must become early familiar with the tools and mechanical processes of his profession so as to be unconscious of them in his highes work, just as Prof. Hill gave similar advice to the writer. In Watts Mr. Millet finds an idealist pure and simple, who makes no effort "to imitate the natural effect of light or the external surface of things," a sombre colorist, a character-seeker in portraiture, a poet in his treatment of other subjects, who has shown our artists directions in which they might worthily use the great technical skill which they acquire in realistic schools abroad. Mr. Brander Matthews contributes a very clever story, an entertaining compound of pirates, type-writers, love, and detectives. The Editor's Easy Chair is good, as it always is.

—In the *Atlantic* Mr. Laughlin calls attention to "Our Pol tical Delusion," which is the popular belief that the President influences legislation. A very little observation of Congressional practice is enough to show that the committees, who report bills with the recommendation, almost always followed, that they pass or do not pass—or, with equally fatal effect for the bill and less trouble to themselves, do not report them at all—are the real legislators, or would be if, in point of fact, an able chairman did not usually rule his committee; and that the Speaker, who appoints both committees and chairmen, is the source of all power. A more ingenious system for separating power and responsibility could not easily be devised. The President is held responsible by the country, and yet has no influence except by an ingenious and very objectionable use of his patronage. If he can bribe Congressmen by giving offices to their constituents, and especially if he can bribe chairmen of committees, he may effect something; but otherwise Congress cares no more for his messages and his wishes than for the party platform. The remedy which Mr. Laughlin suggests is worse than the disease. He would take away the appointment of Congressional committees from the Speaker and give it to the President and Cabinet. Miss Pennell protests against the modern vandalism which destroys the feudal and monastic buildings of Europe, and gives by way of example historical sketches of two doomed edifices, Staple's Inn on Holborn, which is to give place to a freight depot, and the Church of Aracœli on the Capitolium, on whose site a statue of Victor Emmanuel is to stand. Mr. Parkman, too, protests against the Americanism that destroys our forests; and praises Professor Sargent's census volume upon them as "thorough, able, and con-

scientious, a public service of no ordinary kind." Mrs. Kate Gannett Wells sketches the by no means solitary life of the so-called "Quoddy hermit," William Fitz-William, natural son of Admiral William Owen, and himself finally Admiral. The details of primitive fisher and smuggler life on Campobello are curious; the island would be a good scene for a romance, such as Miss Jewett might write now that her "Marsh Island" is finished, or, better still, a Nova Scotian Charles Egbert Craddock, if one could be found.

—The continuation of Mrs. Oliphant's story is accompanied in this number with a sketch of her literary life by Mrs. Preston, in which full justice is done to her fertility, matched by Trollope alone, her quiet humor, matched by no present writer, the variety of character in her works—especially the rich stock of fools, to parallel which we must go back to Miss Austen—her imaginative sympathy with her personages, which makes her a good biographer as well as a good novelist, her charming style of telling a story, not accompanied, unfortunately, by skill in inventing one. Mrs. Preston even goes so far as to say that were her "constructive art equal to her analytic power, she might rank with the few great dramatists of the world." To justify so strong an assertion one would have to substitute "comedians" for "dramatists," for Mrs. Oliphant has given no proof of ability to deal with the intenser passions. The travels this month lead to two places equally unknown to the readers of the *Atlantic*, Astrakhan and a dime museum. Professor J. G. Wood looks at the latter with the eye of a naturalist, and he finds it perfectly respectable and stored with much that is instructive. It is fortunate that this is so, for they are increasing in number and will continue to flourish as long as they can make, as we have been told one of them did last year, $17,000 profits. But though Professor Wood's dime museums brought together Fijians, Zulus, Nautch girls, Cinghalese, and Earthmen from Central Africa, Astrakhan is more interesting. There is quite as great a variety of races in that gate between Europe and Asia, and besides we are introduced in Edmund Noble's account of his six months there to the family life of a remarkable household, that of a rich merchant of liberal opinions, with one daughter a reader of Darwin and Spencer, and another proficient in the old Russian dance. It is like a scene from Turgeneff or Dostoyevsky, and yet not the same, for the eye of a stranger sees differently from the eye of a native.

—Mr. Longfellow's "Morituri Salutamus," the poem written for the fiftieth anniversary of the class of 1825 in Bowdoin College, has been translated into Swedish by Prof. Hjalmar Edgren, and printed in the March number of *Ny Svensk Tidskrift*, published by Reinhold Geijer at Upsala. The meter of the original has been retained with fair success, but no attempt has been made to reproduce the rhyme. The translation occupies 286 lines as compared with the 285 lines of the original, but two original lines, for no apparent reason, are omitted. A singular error has been committed in translating the first stanza. Longfellow's words are:

> "'O Cæsar, we who are about to die
> Salute you!' was the gladiators' cry
> In the arena, standing face to face
> With death and with the Roman populace."

The plural "gladiators" here is changed by the translator to the singular number. By this change he loses in the Swedish a syllable in the second line, to obtain which he transfers the "we" to this line, and is thus obliged to supply its place in the first line by inserting the adjective "great" before 'Cæsar,' which weakens the verse. In a few other places the translator has not been entirely successful in reproducing the intricacies of the poet's verse, noticeably in translating the lines:

> "I cannot go—I pause—I hesitate—
> My feet reluctant linger at the gate;
> As one who struggles in a troubled dream
> To speak and cannot, to myself I seem,"

where the beautiful second line is not given in the translation, and the last couplet is weakened. But the work as a whole is conscientious.

—The first thing to catch the attention in the 1885 edition of Kürschner's directory of German authors ('Litteratur-Kalender') is the evidence it affords of the growing practice of substituting hieroglyphics for frequently recurring words, and thus saving much space and printer's time, as well as conveying more rapidly to the hurried reader the information wished. Instead of repeating the words "poetry," "history," "drama," etc., as occasion demands, after the authors' names, Mr. Kürschner had made an assortment of hieroglyphics. Thus, a tailed star indicates that the author to whose name it is appended writes on astronomy—a slate, on education—a pine-tree, forestry—a pen, literary criticism—an apothecary's sign, medicine — scales, jurisprudence—a spade, agriculture—a triangle, architecture—a leaf, botany—an ancient lamp, philology —a globe, geography—a cogwheel, technology—a cross, theology, etc. Of less obvious significance than the other signs is *** to indicate that the writer in question gives his days and nights to the study of philosophy. Perhaps the editor thinks, now that the German flag is floating in Africa and New Guinea, that the old division of the universe into the realms of the land, the sea, and the air, possessed respectively by the French, the British, and the Germans, is applicable only to a minority of his countrymen. Another space-saving device, common in manuscript and in older print, is that a (usually) repeated letter is given only once, but with a horizontal mark above it to show that it represents a double letter. For the rest, the directory is enlarged by hundreds of names, has the text of new literary treaties, and (a new feature) a rearrangement of names in the alphabetical order of the towns their owners live in. In this list are included not only the authors, but publishers, editors, attorneys competent to arrange literary disputes; literary clubs and informal meeting-places; and a variety of other information. Altogether, this is the most ingeniously contrived and thoroughly carried out directory of any kind whatever that we have ever met with, as well as the most attractively gotten up. Among the deaths of the past year we notice that of Bertha (Heyn) Frederich, author, under the pseudonym of "Golo Raimund," of several popular novels, one or more of which were translated by Mrs. Wister. The real name of this lady was given in the last year's 'Kalender' as "G. Dannenberg," but Mr. Kürschner now informs us that this name was an invention of her publisher, who thus put inquirers off the scent. "Virginia Champlin" (Miss Grace Virginia Lord), who was recently killed by a sad accident in Boston, was another instance of a well-known pseudonym successfully maintained till death.

—Both the leading articles in *Le Livre* for May relate to the Romantic school, whose great leader has just passed away. The first is an entertaining sketch of a dandy journalist, Charles Latour-Mézeray, known, from the flower which invariably adorned his *boutonnière*, as "l'homme au camélia." He was an early friend and literary partner of Émile de Girardin, and together they founded *Le Voleur*—the (*Literary*) *Pirate*, or *Eclectic*, to give it a softer name. Latour-Mézeray ultimately founded and ran into the ground, after a brilliant success, the *Journal des Enfants*, which had the same command of the services of the rising story-writers of that day (1832-1841) as *St. Nicholas* has in our own. Philarète Chasles, A. Dumas, Paul Lacroix, Jules Janin, Alphonse Karr, J. Sandeau, George Sand—the full list of them is given by M. de Contades in his careful bibliography at the end of his article. Some of these names suggest anything but model writers for children, and the editor-in-chief was far from having the moral qualifications for such an occupation. That such a man should make or should think of making his livelihood in such a way, throws a flood of light on the notorious deficiencies of French juvenile literature. M. C. Jolly-Bavoillot manifests the true enthusiasm of the collector in describing and accounting for four very rare etchings by Célestin Nanteuil, made in 1832, and intended to illustrate the then complete series of Victor Hugo's romances—'Han d'Islande,' 'Bug-Jargal,' 'Le Dernier Jour d'un Condamné,' and 'Notre Dame de Paris.' Finally, we have a very recent letter dictated by the master himself to the Comte du Clésieux in response to an appeal to return to the Christian faith. Hugo says he is perfectly familiar with the idea of death, and is tranquil in the face of it, repeating *Dei voluntas*. He has lived and will die a deist; but as for priests and dogmas, they are bad in all possible religions.

—An elaborate and interesting essay, by A. von Randow, on the present current of Jewish migration ("Ueber die Wanderbewegung der Juden") is given in the February, March, and April numbers of the *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie und Statistik*, edited by Professor Umlauft, of Vienna. Jewish migration in the first centuries following the destruction of the Jewish State by the Romans took place on westerly and northwesterly lines, starting from Syria and Egypt, and traversing Asia Minor, the islands of the eastern Mediterranean, Italy, Spain, and Gaul. This main current was subsequently deflected eastward across the Rhine. During the period of the Crusades this easterly movement was precipitated by terrible persecutions in France and Germany, and the bulk of the Jews were eventually carried into Poland, her Lithuanian dependencies, and some neighboring lands. A southeasterly migration toward the Ukraine and South Russia followed, and finally a southwesterly current set in toward Bessarabia, Moldavia, Wallachia, and the Balkan territories, where it met an opposite stream from the southwest, to which the expulsion of the Jews from Spain and Portugal had given rise. A circle of emigration was thus completed. In our age, as Herr von Randow clearly shows, the Jewish movement, following with great intensity the general one of European populations this side of Russia, is from east to west, both through Europe and across the Atlantic, and chiefly toward the large centres. East Prussia receives a heavy influx of Jews from Lithuania and Russian Poland; Prussian Silesia from Russian Poland and Austrian Galicia; Galicia from Russia; Hungary from Russia and Rumania; Lower Austria (chiefly Vienna) from Galicia, Hungary, Rumania, and also from Bohemia and Moravia; Brandenburg (chiefly Berlin) from Posen, Silesia, and Prussia proper; the Rhenish provinces from central Germany. In some of these countries or provinces, and especially their capitals, the increase of the Jewish population, owing both to its comparatively very low rate of mortality and to immigration, is large enough to exasperate the mildest of Anti-Semites. (The average duration of life among Jews is now computed by European statisticians at from forty-six to forty-eight years, as against from thirty-three to thirty-six among Christians.) Thus, in the last completed census period of nine, ten, or eleven years the number of Jews in Galicia rose from 575,000 to 686,000; in Hungary

from 553,000 to 638,000—the increase being here nearly three times as great in proportion as that of the whole population; in Lower Austria from 52.000 to 95,000 (73,000 in Vienna); in East Prussia from 14,000 to 18,000; in Berlin from 36,000 to 53,000. In Vienna in 1857 the proportion of Jews to the general population was as 1 to 70; in 1880 it was as 1 to 10. A considerable decrease of the Jewish population is noticeable only in Bohemia, Moravia, Posen, Bavaria, and Alsace-Lorraine, all owing to emigration, both to adjoining localities and to America. In other parts the natural increase and immigration, on one side, and emigration on the other, nearly balance each other. The following are some of the noteworthy proportions of Jews to the general population in Europe: Russian Poland, 1 to 7; Galicia, 1 to 8; Vienna, 1 to 10; Berlin, 1 to 20; Hungary. 1 to 24; Prussia, 1 to 75; German Empire, 1 to 80; Switzerland, 1 to 386; Denmark, 1 to 499; Greece, 1 to 500; France, 1 to 746; Great Britain and Ireland, 1 to 766; Italy, 1 to 805.

HENRY TAYLOR.

Autobiography of Henry Taylor. 1800-1875. In two volumes. London: Longmans; New York: Harpers. 1885.

THERE is a quite exceptional interest attaching to this autobiography, in that it is the story of a round man who,early in life, by a stroke of marvellous good fortune, was put into a round hole, and had the rare good sense to appreciate the circumstance at its true value. In Lord Beaconsfield's earliest novel, Vivian Grey sums up the story of human life in the following apothegm: "Youth a mistake, manhood a struggle, old age a regret." And we imagine that there are few who have left or are leaving middle age behind them but will acknowledge that it is a terribly correct account of their own experiences. Of these few, however, Sir Henry Taylor would assuredly be one. He would seem to have been guilty of no mistakes in his youth, unless the making of an offer of marriage to a young lady who did not accept it is to be accounted such. There certainly was no element of struggle in his manhood; and now, in his later years, he looks back, if we are entitled to judge from the tone of this autobiography, upon his past life with a deep and placid contentment in himself, his family, friends, and the world in general. A constitutional indolence of disposition would appear to have been the source of this rare and enviable state of mind. Being indolent, Sir Henry Taylor was not subjected to the goadings of ambition. Being indolent, when he had secured a modest competence he had no desire to rise up early, or late take rest, in order to become rich. Power, wealth, and ambition had, in a word, no attractions for him compared with the superior fascinations of leisure and thought. In consequence of this same fortunate moral (?) deficiency of indolence, he was never assailed by that most exacting of mental diseases—a passion for reforming the world. He passed through life, a spectator *ab extra* of its burdens and i s mystery, bringing to bear upon the problems of existence the resources of a philosophical and cultured intellect, but feeling no impulsion to regard them otherwise than as points of speculative interest. After the publication of "Philip Van Artevelde," he was for a while one of the great lions of the London "season"; but this transient burst of notoriety did not ruffle his admirable equanimity of mind, and when the London "season" abandoned him to feed itself upon other lions, the change did not cost him a pang of regret.

The one thing in this world in which Sir Henry Taylor seems to have found a constant and penetrating delight, was the company of beautiful women. One of his friends said of him that he "liked any woman better than any man"; and he himself records that on the occasion of his paying a visit to Tennyson, in order to be introduced to Garibaldi, although full of admiration for the English bard and the Italian hero, what occupied his thoughts chiefly was a certain pretty girl who was also in the room. There is an imaginative charm in the gracious presence of a lovely woman which would naturally possess a supreme fascination for an indolent-minded poet, and Sir Henry Taylor was always prepared to succumb to it without the smallest resistance. There was, however, nothing Byronic or Shelleyan in this admiration. Rather it resembled the "gentle admirations," the "delight resembling love," with which, as Wordsworth has told us, he used to watch his gold and silver fish swimming in their vase. But, notwithstanding his indifference to masculine society, Sir Henry Taylor's fame as a poet and his position as a servant of the state in the Colonial Office brought him into familiar intercourse with most of the eminent men of his time, both in the world of politics and in that of literature.

Of especial interest to Englishmen at the present moment should be his account, as illustrated by his own experience, of the relations which subsist between the permanent heads of the great state departments and the secretaries of state who come and go with every change of Ministry, and who, according to the constitutional theory, are the guiding spirits of their respective offices, and responsible for all that is done in them. The omnipotence of Parliament is, of course, the cardinal article in the political faith of every orthodox Englishman, but during the last eight or ten years a highly alarming suspicion has taken shape in their minds that this "omnipotence of Parliament" is not so entirely in accord with the facts of the case as it ought to be. When a Ministry is formed, the (so-called) secretaries of state are pitchforked into the various departments without any consideration of their special fitness for one kind of work rather than another. This question of fitness is, in truth, ignored altogether, and a man is thrust into this Department or into that according to the office which he is willing to accept, or the exigencies of debate in the one house or the other. No sooner, however, is a secretary of state inducted into one of these departments, than, to the superficial observer, he appears to become omniscient regarding its minutest details. No question can be asked in Parliament to which—upon due notice being given—he is not prepared with a reply. No debate upon any subject connected with his office can be started upon which he does not speak like a man familiar with the subject from the days of his infancy. Now, it is needless to state that these seemingly omniscient secretaries do not acquit themselves thus out of the abundance of their own natural or acquired knowledge. Rather they are as were the Apostles when summoned before Roman or Jewish tribunals to render an account of themselves: it is *given* them in that hour what they ought to speak. In other words, they are "crammed" by the invisible, irresponsible, permanent heads of the department of which the responsible secretary of state is little more than an automatic figurehead.

When a Government, by a steady persistency in blundering, has got the Empire securely wedged into some grievous difficulty, the English Parliament and people have till lately fondly imagined that by dismissing their Government from office, and installing another in its place, they insured a radical change of policy. Actually, however, the true authors of the policy against which they made this protest, lay quite beyond their reach. And *their* power, so far from being weakened, was strengthened, by the circumstance of a number of new and untried men coming into office. The new-comers, by the necessity of the case, were more completely in the hands of the permanent departmental officials—more dependent upon them for information—than even their predecessors. The responsible Ministers (so called), feeling their own impotence, but anxious to conceal their state of subjection from the eyes of the nation, invented the dogma of "the great principle of political continuity" as the reason why they never remedied the blunders, or redressed the injustice, of their predecessors. This great principle was skilfully dangled before a credulous public. It was instructed to believe that any deviation from it would be followed by troubles and disasters of no ordinary kind; and, by this simple device, the permanent heads of the great State Department guided the policy and dissipated the resources of the British people precisely as they pleased, and no man said them nay. How long, under ordinary circumstances, this imposition might have gone on, unsuspected by the victims of it, it is impossible to say. The course of British history since 1880 has disclosed the secret. Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues were put into office for the express purpose of *not* carrying out "the great principle of political continuity." They stood pledged, as deeply as men could be pledged, to reverse the policy of those who had preceded them in power. There can be no doubt that they were sincere when thus they pledged themselves; and as little that all the manifold difficulties in which they have involved the Empire have come from the fact that, instead of reversing, they have carried on,the policy of Lord Beaconsfield.

In other words, the permanent Bureaucratic Staff which inspired that "spirited foreign policy" that brought the Conservative Government to ruin in 1880, has proved too strong for the wiser mind of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, backed though it be by a huge majority in the House and among the people. Sir Henry Taylor's frank disclosures respecting the inner working of the Colonial Office are well fitted to make the failures of Mr. Gladstone's Government intelligible to many who have been anxiously casting about for an explanation of them. They show—the more strikingly because Sir Henry Taylor writes as one unconscious of the light which is thrown by his revelations upon the occurrences of the last five years—how complete is the abasement of Cabinet ministers before the Bureaucratic Staff which furnishes them with facts, prepares their speeches, and provides them with replies to Parliamentary questions. No less complete is the abasement of Parliament, because, as no information is ministerially regarded as trustworthy except what is supplied by this Bureaucratic Staff, it is at liberty to supply only so much, and of that particular character, as supports the policy which it wishes to see adopted.

Very amusing—though scarcely intended to be so—is Sir Henry Taylor's narrative of how Lord Melbourne's Government nerved itself, upon one memorable occasion, to retire one of the permanent staff of the Colonial Office upon a handsome pension. The official in question was notorious for doing no work—a sufficient reason, one would think, for getting rid of him without further ado. Lord Melbourne and his colleagues did not regard the business as thus easy and simple. They worked like conspirators—underground—and successfully diverted the suspicions of their purposed victim from themselves to the individual who had been for many years doing his work. So angry was Mr. Hay—that was the name of the victim—at this base conduct (as he supposed) of his brother official that he went to Lord Melbourne to complain. Lord Melbourne listened with sympathy while Mr. Hay unfolded the tale

of his wrongs, and, on being asked if it did not appear like an attempt to supplant him (Mr. Hay), replied that it "did look devilish like it." At last, all the preliminaries were arranged, and the blow was ready to fall, when Lord Glenelg, the Colonial Secretary, appalled at the nature of the contemplated act, shut himself in his house rather than sign the mandate of dismissal. This desperate expedient did not avail him for long. He had, after a few days, to emerge from his fortress, and at last Mr. Hay was prevailed upon to retire, without any apparent detriment to the British Constitution in Church or State.

The Autobiography introduces us to a great number of interesting and eminent personages, and, in his character of philosophic spectator, Sir Henry Taylor's remarks on life and character are original and penetrating. Perhaps the most interesting of the pictures which he gives us are those of John Stuart Mill and Carlyle. Of the former it may be said that "whatever record leaped to light, he never shall be shamed," and Sir Henry, who knew him as a young man, bears ample testimony to the elevation and unselfishness of his character and the nobleness of his aims. "His ambition," he writes, "so far as he had any, his ardent desire rather (for I doubt if he had much feeling about himself in the matter) was to impress his opinions on mankind and promote the cause of political science." Of the meteoric splendor of Carlyle's conversation, as well as its general profitlessness, Sir Henry gives a very vivid description:

"We have had Carlyle here all the time—a longer time than I have hitherto seen him for. His conversation is as bright as ever, and as striking in its imaginative effects. But his mind seems utterly incapable of coming to any conclusion about anything; and if he says something that seems for the moment direct as well as forcible in the way of an opinion, it is hardly out of his mouth before he says something else that breaks it in pieces. He can see nothing but the chaos of his own mind reflected in the universe. Guidance, therefore, there is none to be got from him, nor any illumination save that of storm lights. But I suppose one cannot see anything so rich and strange as his mind is without gaining by it in some unconscious way, as well as finding pleasure and pain in it. It is fruitful of both."

Carlyle, according to Sir Henry Taylor, was especially fond of knocking down any pageantry of another man's setting up. Some gentlemen came in one evening full of the magnificence of a meteor which they had just seen. Carlyle heard their raptures in silence to the end, and then gave his view of the phenomenon: "Aye, some sulphuretted hydrogen, I suppose, or some rubbish of that kind." Carlyle, though vehement enough in expressing his dissatisfaction, generally introduced into his invectives an element of the grotesque or picturesque which robbed them of their savagery. On one occasion, at Lady Ashburton's, the hostess, believing the sage to be ill, asked a Doctor Wilson to go into his room and see if anything was amiss. "The Doctor presently came flying out again, and his account was that Carlyle had received him with a volley of invectives against himself and his profession, saying, that 'of all the sons of Adam they were the most eminently unprofitable, and that a man might as well pour his sorrows into the long, hairy ear of a jackass.'" Upon which criticism Sir Henry comments as follows: "As in most of his sallies of this kind, the extravagance and the grotesqueness of the attack sheathed the sharpness of it; and the little touch of the picturesque—the 'long, hairy ear'—seemed to give it the character of a vision rather than a vituperation."

BEERS'S WILLIS.

Nathaniel Parker Willis. By Henry A. Beers. [American Men of Letters Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prose Writings of Nathaniel Parker Willis. Selected by Henry A. Beers. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THERE is no such formidable *experimentum crucis* as in writing a life of a half-forgotten author and then supplementing it with a volume of his selected works. If successful, the bold deed prolongs his fame: if unsuccessful, it is fatal and final, and will never be repeated. Of the two the volume of writings is the more dangerous. The memoir of any man may be so interwoven with the events or habits of his time as to be made good reading, and thus much Mr. Beers, as biographer, has undoubtedly accomplished; but in the collection of specimens the victim is himself put upon the stand, and there is no appeal from his testimony. It is to be presumed that in the selections from Willis made by Mr. Beers we see that author at his best; and the volume certainly includes those sketches whose titles are best known. Yet we turn page after page despairingly and say: "Is this Willis?"

"Is this the mighty ocean? Is this *all*?"

Not that Willis was ever claimed as an ocean, but he was certainly esteemed in his day as being something of note, while this volume gives us almost nothing. Except in the wild sketch called "The Lunatic's Skate"—simply affording us, after all, a good *motif*, which in Poe's hand might have yielded something powerful, but here ends in melodrama—and the single description of a horse's trot upon Nahant Beach, there is nothing that now seems to the reader above the grade of mediocrity. In the English and Oriental stories we have simply pale reflections of Bulwer and Disraeli; in the longest American tale we are surprised by tedious sermonizing; even in the "Letters from under a Bridge" the wit is vapid and the rural sentiment cockneyish. On the whole, it seems probable that the editor and publisher have more effectually extinguished what was left of the fame of Willis by reprinting his "Selected Works," than if they had bought up every extant copy of the original editions and sunk them beneath the depths of the Atlantic Ocean.

It is saying a good deal for Mr. Beers when we add that he has produced, in spite of all this, a readable and almost valuable book of memoirs. His merit is, in a manner, in inverse ratio to the importance of his subject. He has utterly failed to prove—if indeed he ever expected to prove it—that Willis's life was in itself worth writing; but he has shown it amply worth considering as a chapter in American literature. For that purpose a great deal of tiresome research was necessary, an immense deal of minute delving in obscure periodicals and forgotten books—a patience in treating small things as if they were large—an acceptance of Emerson's maxim that no man can do any work well who does not regard it, for the time being, as the centre of the universe. And he has, moreover, selected well his point of view. Willis truly described himself when he spoke of his "light head and still lighter heart" (p. 25); but he was also, as Lowell called him,

"The topmost bright bubble on the wave of The Town."

To know the town as it then was, whether London, or New York, or Boston, in all its little greatness, its microscopic complexity, we must know something of Willis. If the biographer ever strikes us as taking him too seriously, if he gradually grows into the habit of treating each separate "Inkling" or "Hurrygraph" as if it were an entity worth separate consideration, he is yet in the line of duty; and that duty is so well done that the reader for a moment shares the delusion. The curious thing is that, after the book is closed, the bubble immediately bursts again, and it is impossible to remember what was in it, or to attach much importance to anything that happens to be recalled.

Froth Willis was, and to froth he must return; and yet, even in this capacity, he had his influence, and served a certain purpose. We think that Mr. Beers strains a point, in the preface to the 'Writings' (p. xiii), by setting aside Irving, and saying that Willis first contributed to American literature "the instinct for style"; but had he limited the claim to certain lighter qualities of style it would be true enough, and there was certainly a demand for these traits when he wrote. It was a period when our writers were greatly wanting in that essential attribute which the late Edmund Quincy designated, in a phrase far more piquant than any of Willis's, as "specific levity." Of specific levity Willis may be said to have been the pioneer, and he was more than this. The trace of his "Inklings of Adventure" is very plainly to be seen in some of Curtis's first writings, especially his anonymous social sketches in the early volumes of *Harper's Magazine;* the "Potiphar Papers" showed the same thing in a solidified form and with more definite purpose; while, in a different direction, the "Letters from under a Bridge" were the precursors of the "Up-Country Letters" and "Summer in a Garden" of other authors. This thread of literary sequence has a certain value, no doubt; and Mr. Beers is right to rely a good deal upon it, instead of attempting seriously to exaggerate the personal claims of his author.

He certainly errs in this last direction, however, when he compares his hero on equal terms with Leigh Hunt (introduction to 'Writings,' p. xiv). The resemblance is, after all, superficial: they were alike in a few tastes and some mannerisms, but it was not in Willis to produce a gem like "Jenny Kissed Me," and the whole heroic side of Hunt's nature was wholly alien from Willis. Our vivacious American journalist could no more have gone to prison for censuring a prince than he could have written "Captain Sword and Captain Pen." Mr. Beers, indeed, cherishes the kindly belief that his author might have experienced some tonic influence had he stayed in Boston, and kept up "the stimulating and bracing association with men of high serious intellects and strenuous aims" (p. 306). But this was just the society which Willis would have avoided anywhere; even men of real intellect, without the seriousness, were not exactly what he enjoyed—as is well enough shown in two of the "selections" which Mr. Beers has, perhaps by accident, put side by side. In these Willis records pages of meretricious glitter from Disraeli at Lady Blessington's, while he brings away almost nothing from a breakfast with Charles Lamb. After all, in society we find what we seek; and Willis would doubtless have established, wherever he went, his own little circle of second-rate literary dandies, and of admiring women whose Bohemianism got no further than Bohea.

It is surprising to note the general accuracy with which the author has gone over his ground, apparently making but few errors amid all these insignificant details. He has been but once betrayed into a positive injustice, so far as we have noted—this being where he assumes that Mrs. L. M. Child's disapprobation of Willis was owing to a personal grudge (p. 90). Nothing could be more untrue to the character of that eminently generous and unworldly woman, whose life at that time represented all the motives and methods which the life of Willis systematically omitted. On the other hand, the picture of the elder Mrs. Willis (p. 13) may strike those who remember the current gossip of that period as being a trifle too much idealized. The poet's mother was, without doubt, a most estimable and perhaps even a saintly person, but she was most singularly unlike that brilliant and

fascinating woman, Goethe's mother—the Frau Rath of Bettina Brentano and of her own lively correspondence—with whom Mr. Beers rather indiscreetly compares her. Again, a very inadequate impression is given, perhaps without intending it, of John Pierpont as an object of charity in his old age, when our author says that Willis found him in Washington "employed as a clerk in one of the departments, and got rooms for him and Mrs. Pierpont in the house where he lodged himself" (p. 343); the truth being that the courageous old bard had insisted on going out, at the age of seventy-six, as chaplain of the 22d Massachusetts; and, being obviously quite unfit for bivouac life, was transferred to a nominal clerkship at Washington, where he could attend to the soldiers in hospital. Once more, Mr. Beers's statement (p. 273) that Mr. Hiram Fuller, of the New York *Mirror*, was a distant relative of Margaret Fuller Ossoli, is contradicted by the biographer of that lady in a previous volume of this same series, although the fact that they had taught in the same school in Providence, R. I., might well have created the mistake. Yet it must be owned that all these criticisms put together constitute but a very mild indictment.

Apart from the literary value, greater or less, of the Willis tradition, Mr. Beers has done wisely to dwell fully upon its social value. It is this, if anything, which will keep Willis's name alive—though some of his simpler poems will survive for a time. It will keep it alive, namely, because we have few memorials of our rapidly changing society; and he described a phase of American watering-place life which has now passed away as absolutely as Puritanism or slavery. The period when there were at least the rudiments of a single well-defined social circle extending through the few cities that had a social circle at all; when an eminent beau or belle had a national reputation; when a few families, widely separated, virtually settled among themselves whether Ballston or Saratoga should be in fashion that year—we have a glimpse through Willis's writings, and almost through them only, of all that glittering time. Future social historians will no doubt search his books to give the right flavor to their composition or "local color" to their word-pictures; and this search will at least be easier and probably more prolific than the files of dusty newspapers that must else be turned over with the same intent. To such investigators, and even to others, Mr. Beers's manual will be an excellent guide-book; and as to Willis himself, the volume fitly closes—or almost closes—with an admirable summary of his character by a kinsman, the Rev. Dr. Richard S. Storrs: "He will be remembered as a man eminently human, with almost unique endowments, devoting rare powers to insignificant purposes, and curiously illustrating the 'fine irony of Nature' with which she often lavishes one of her choice productions on comparatively inferior ends."

EDIBLES AND EATING.

Dinners and Dishes. By Wanderer, author of 'Across Country,' 'Fair Diana,' etc., etc. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 1885.

More or less true to this hour is Goldsmith's representation of the moral effect of a liberal dinner, disposed of in a leisurely manner, on his eupeptic fellow-countrymen. "When a church is to be built," he says, "or an hospital endowed, the directors assemble, and, instead of consulting upon it, they eat upon it, by which means the business goes forward with success." Nor is it fitting here to pass by unremembered a pronouncement bearing on the cult of creature comforts, of which Goldsmith's philosophic and capacious friend Johnson somewhere has the credit. Quite possibly, if his appetite had been less exacting, and if he could always have had food at will for the asking, the bulimious Doctor would not have transacted his feeding so porcinely and perspiringly as is recorded to have been his wont. Be this as it may, it was very much after his fashion to lay it down, as he is reported to have done, that he who does not care for his dinner is not likely to care for things of weightier import. And somewhat to the same purport, yet stopping short of exaggeration, seems to be the opinion of "Wanderer," the lessons of whose wide experience, while calculated, if duly taken to heart and wisely utilized, to conduce to justifiable enjoyment, are equally of value toward promoting good digestion and, inclusively, all manner of virtue. There may be a kernel of truth even in the saying, attributed to Napoleon, we believe, that every form of heresy and heterodoxy has had its root in dyspepsia.

The genesis of that portentous phenomenon, the normal British cook, with whom we must regretfully bracket, for manifold and multifarious obliquity, her cisatlantic sister, has never been conclusively investigated. Is she a survival of mediæval savagery, one of those evils which eluded extirpation at the era of the Reformation? Or are her maleficent practices a tradition dating from the twilight days of Odin and Thor? And so one might go on propounding questions without end. It ought, however, for practical purposes, to suffice us that she is still extant, nay, extant in mighty force, and that, on every account, measures should be taken to convert her to sane and salutiferous notions touching the exercise of her indispensable craft. "Wanderer," who, like other far-travelled rovers, has undergone a large variety of tribulation, has suffered unspeakable things from her in particular. Yet such is his well-grounded dread of the tyrantess, that he is unable to call up the courage to pour out his whole soul on the beatitude of dining in Paris, till he gets near the end of his book. The chastisement which is administered to her in his eighth chapter cannot fail of inducing considerable irritation in the bosom of that proverbially peppery, and at times acetous, artist; but her indignation will hardly reach true fever-heat before she comes to read of achievements, in her line of business, among the "Mounseers," the realization of which lies leagues and leagues away from the utmost extreme of her accomplishings. To her, as to the rest of the world, comparisons are, of course, odious. As a propitiatory overture, let her be kindly exhorted to bear in mind that there would be no room for them, if only, like a good woman, she would be persuaded to mend her sadly naughty ways.

The modern Gaul, as "Wanderer" estimates him, is, at least at the table and in preparing wherewithal to provide it, altogether a unique and blessed development of humanity. We read, and we are humiliated as we do so, that "every Frenchman possesses, by education and instinct, the knowledge of dinners which the native of any other country must acquire by observation, experience, and study." In strict congruity with the fitness of things, as we are informed further, "in France the instinct of cooking is innate." Again: "Say what we will, dinners are good or bad according as they approximate to or depart from the great French examples." But there is a crumb of comfort in reserve for us, poor creatures as we are taught that we are. It should delight us to know that those models of perfection, the French, "make the gross mistake of taking champagne at dessert. It will not do. No really delicate pearly flavor can be appreciated by a blunted palate." Consolatory it is, likewise, to be assured that "many may be educated into appreciating a good dinner in its higher sense"; for who is so superfluously self-depreciant and lowly-minded as not to believe that he himself is one of the disciplinable elect?

Frenchmen, under one minor aspect, are mildly fallible, as we have seen on the showing of our guide; but, viewed with his critical eye, Germans, as diners, still grope in darkness denser than Egyptian. "What sympathy can there be between an educated, refined Englishman and men whose idea of Paradise is a superior beer-house?" So we are asked, but some Teuton must formulate the reply. Briefly, the premise admitted that "the Germans don't dine," the inference is not easily to be evaded that "one cannot write a chapter about dinners in Germany." Hapless undining folk!

As a fearless, advanced philosopher, "Wanderer" is so intrepid as to scorn the venerable saw that "there is no disputing about tastes." "This error," he pronounces, "is very fatal, and would, if allowed to grow unchecked, sap, with its spreading roots, the very foundations of the edifice of gastronomy." Paradoxical as it is, his, without question, is the true faith. Moreover, as one who holds the true faith in its fulness, he is wholly right in proclaiming it without fear or favor. A single sample of his hardy outspokenness, where he descends to particulars, will not be quoted amiss. It is where he takes up his parable against macaroni pudding. This fearful and reprehensible concoction is, by his rating, "a mischief which must be suppressed like the cattle disease," and "a malignant and poisonous heresy, like Mormonism." After drawing breath—the while, no doubt, invocating the shades of Apicius and Lucullus—he perorates, with solemn emphasis: "Never ask me to back a bill for a man who has given me a macaroni pudding; do not suggest my going into partnership with him, or lending him five pounds, or even joining him in a day's excursion. I should fear any enormity from him, because he has committed an offence against the order of nature, and one which, sooner or later, must be avenged." Who can well help being quelled into acquiescence, entire or partial, by a gentleman of such resolute convictions, and of such directness in enunciating them?

It is not a few vulgar errors that "Wanderer," thanks to his all but ecumenical observation, has qualified himself to correct. For instance, he has discovered that an Englishman in quest of the terrible need not cross the sea in order to be petrified at the awful spectacle of eating peas with a knife. This perilous feat he has, in person, contemplated as performed by a charming Viennese barbarianess. On such topics as the countries where carving is unknown, how to feast on pheasant and court bankruptcy simultaneously, the ecstasies and raptures that lurk in truffles deftly dealt with, and many other interesting matters besides, he is soundly instructive or appropriately eloquent. Unless he expresses himself ambiguously, he is not in the fullest degree confident that eggs may be cooked in 366 different ways; the requisition of an additional way for leap-year being thus provided for. Accordingly, he is capable of doubt. But, in asserting that "rice is the staple food of India," we at last catch him actually tripping. And not only can he trip, but his seeming omniscience, however great the area of the knowable which it covers, is, if we dare say so, only a semblance. Initiation into the mysteries, alike lesser and greater, of Delmonico's still awaits him; not yet has he explored Fulton Market—there to store up for the behoof of his benighted compatriots adequate conceptions of the oyster; and the blissful acquaintance with American wines is to him a pleasure hitherto untasted. But, for all that, his profound philanthropy and his general meritoriousness are not to be gainsaid. The sum of his instruction is, that, provided we bestow

proper and serious pains on the subject, a dinner, whether in anticipation, in actual presence, or in retrospect, may be a thing of joy. In bidding farewell to such a mentor, one's valediction must needs be a benediction.

Politics and Economics. An Essay on the Nature of the Principles of Political Economy, together with a Survey of Recent Legislation. By William Cunningham, B.D. London: Kegan Paul. 1885.

It is with some embarrassment that we undertake to criticise Mr. Cunningham's book; for his subject is of transcendent importance, being nothing less than the true end of the state. To be sure, the state has had its true end determined a great many times—nowadays perhaps several times a day in various parts of the world—so that one additional discussion need not seem revolutionary. Moreover, our author's method is a thoroughly rational one. He lays his foundations on experience, not on theory, and his knowledge of history is extensive and thorough, if not profound. His style is clear and forcible; he appeals to common sense. His aim, too, is single: he keeps to the point, and avoids the numerous temptations to wander into seductive by-paths.

Following a suggestion made by Professor Sidgwick, our author distinguishes political economy, the science that shows how men proceed in the acquisition of wealth, from economics, which is rather an art showing how the end proposed to itself by a society may be attained. He is not at all particular to use these terms in this way, but his meaning is never obscure. Hence it is of economics that he is speaking when he says that "true principles of political economy must be consonant with the current morality of the polity under consideration." In establishing these principles for England he distinguishes three periods, "when the methods of pursuing wealth (1) were determined in accordance with Christian morality, (2) were directed in accordance with national policy, and (3) when free play was allowed to individuals to pursue the courses they preferred." To illustrate these distinctions, he cites the mediæval regulations of usury, trade, etc., as resting upon a desire to enforce the golden rule in the transactions of daily life. The Navigation Act and the colonial policy are examples of the spirit of the second period, when England's rivalry with other nations was becoming sharp. The third period is characterized by the prevalence of the doctrine of *laisser-faire*. This historical review is admirably done, although we may not fully accept the author's conclusions. As to the regulation of wages, for instance, he considers that the aim of the acts was just—a view directly opposed to the interpretation of Mr. Thorold Rogers. He is a little prone to confound facts with theories in his sympathy with the motives of legislators. Thus (p. 65) he says, "The fashionable French commodities supplanted our own coarser wares in our own markets and gave us no corresponding sale of other goods." This seems like the mercantile fallacy pure and simple. How were the French commodities paid for except by the sale of other goods? But upon the whole the sketch is extremely suggestive, and we should be glad, did space permit, to examine it more carefully.

It is in his discussion of the doctrine of *laisser-faire*, that we find ourselves most strongly in opposition to Mr. Cunningham. We shall endeavor to state his position as clearly as possible, and then proceed to show wherein we conceive him to be in error. He maintains that about the beginning of the present century a school of thinkers arose which held that wealth should be pursued as a good, independently of the effect it might have on the power of the country. Upon the principle that every man understands his own business better than any one else, it follows that the most rapid increase of wealth will arise from giving free play to every man to pursue his own bent. But, Mr. Cunningham says, the increase of individual possessions does not necessarily mean an increase of national wealth. Land may be so managed as to increase the wealth of the landlord and eventually to ruin the country. Manufactures may be so carried on as to increase the wealth of the capitalist and to degrade the workmen. The pursuit of wealth, therefore, must be qualified by the requirements of national life; the State must interfere in behalf of its future existence; it must enforce a regard for posterity upon those who are disposed to regard only themselves. More than half the book is taken up with a review of recent English legislation in the light of this principle.

Undoubtedly, it would be easy to produce from the writings of men classed with the "Manchester school," passages that exalt the pursuit of wealth beyond reason. But the true advocates of *laisser-faire*, (Adam Smith, for instance,) would never have admitted that wealth was to be pursued without regard to the effect upon the power of the country. They maintained, on the other hand, that the increase of wealth tended to increase the power of the country. To be sure, Adam Smith has been criticised by his followers for supporting the Navigation laws, but it is on the ground that the country would have been more powerful without these laws than with them. There is still less justice in implying that this school is indifferent to the condition of the human beings that constitute the state. The land "where wealth accumulates and men decay" is not its ideal. Its writings are full of solicitude for the laborer; we know of no justification for the assertion that the production of more wealth seemed of more importance to these economists than the just distribution of this wealth. No doubt Malthus and Ricardo are names of ill omen; they are used to conjure with. But the men were not, as is popularly believed, actuated either by a devilish malignity or a cold cynicism. Their vindication will be an honorable labor for some future economist.

The theory of *laisser-faire* is this: that state will be the happiest wherein there is the greatest amount of freedom. It will be more independent, because a spirit of independence will animate its citizens. It will be more wealthy, because its citizens freely exercise all their powers with the certainty of securing their just results. Its citizens will be provident, for they know that they are responsible for their own support; they will be good parents, for they know that they are responsible for their children's happiness; they will be patriotic, for patriotism is nourished by freedom. The theory of Mr. Cunningham and of much recent English legislation is despotic. It amounts simply to this: whatever the governing body holds to be for the public interest is to be law. For the governing body represents the state, and it is the supreme judge. Against this theory every revolution has been a protest. As a matter of fact, whatever the Government (the majority of force) wills must be law. But it does not follow that it ought to be law, or that folly is made wisdom by getting itself enacted in statutory form. The restraint of Government in favor of individual freedom is the lesson of political history.

The importance of the principle of non-interference to the future of England is immense. It is a conservative principle, and if it fall into disrepute, it may take ages of struggling against oppression to reëstablish it. The Government of England has been hitherto in the hands of the aristocracy. It seems now about to pass into the hands of the people. Parliament is omnipotent, and although Mr. Cunningham may view with complacency the regulation by his class of the contracts of the lower orders, he may feel otherwise when the people undertake to prescribe regulations for the aristocracy. As to certain measures, he already sounds an alarm; and as to the result of the legislation of the future, if his theory is carried out, we may say, in his own language (p. 251), it will be "a terrible price for the nation to pay in order to exhibit the mischief which may be done by benevolent enthusiasm coupled with misconceptions as to the duties and the powers of the state." But of what avail are his protests? He has called up a spirit that he cannot lay. He has said that the established principles of political economy must yield to the will of Parliament; and to the decision of the arbiter that he has invoked he is bound to submit. Yet our difference with him shall not prevent our recognizing the great merit of his book and the excellence of his spirit. We feel like saying, "This man might have been set at liberty if he had not appealed unto Cæsar."

Elementary Text-Book of Zoölogy. By Dr. C. Claus, translated and edited by Adam Sedgwick. Part I, General Part and Special Part: Protozoa to Insecta; Part II, Mollusca to Man. Macmillan & Co. 1885. 8vo, pp. 615-352; 706 woodcuts.

Although nowhere stated, this is evidently a translation of the second and enlarged edition of Claus's 'Lehrbuch' which was published in 1883. The translator's preface is very brief, and by its modesty contrasts strongly with the preface to the English edition of Gegenbaur's 'Elements of Comparative Anatomy.' Notwithstanding the obvious and commendable effort to emulate the remarkably compact style of the original, the translation occupies one hundred and ten more pages. Other and more potent reasons may have led to its publication in two volumes (the original is in one) at dates several months apart, and with separate paging and indexes, although the figures are numbered continuously. The "General Part" occupies one hundred and seventy pages, and deals with the distinctions between organisms and unorganized substances and between animals and plants, cell-structure, embryology, classification, and evolution. These important and difficult problems are treated wisely, clearly (which is not always to be said of German philosophical discussions), and in an admirable spirit. Like the vast majority of working and well-informed naturalists at the present day, the author regards the general idea of evolution as probably correct; he also dwells upon the value of that particular form of the theory, "Natural Selection," which is associated with Darwin; but (as did Darwin himself) he admits the "incompleteness of the explanation" as accounting in no way for the *cause* of variation, and concludes the discussion of the whole subject with the following (p. 179):

"However well grounded we admit the theory of Selection to be, we cannot accept it as in itself sufficient to explain the complicated and involved metamorphoses which have taken place in organisms in the course of immeasurable time. If the theory of repeated acts of creation be rejected and the process of natural development be established in its place, there is still the first appearance of organisms to be accounted for; and especially the definite course which the evolution of the complicated and more highly developed organisms has taken has to be explained. In the many wonderful phenomena of the organic world—among others, in the origin of man in the diluvial or tertiary period—we have a riddle the solution of which must remain with future investigators."

In the "Special Part," what are regarded as the nine primary divisions are taken up in the fol-

lowing order: Protozoa, Cœlenterates, Echinoderms, Vermes, Arthropods, Mollusca, Molluscoidea, Tunicates and Vertebrates. The classes and orders are somewhat fully considered, the families are enumerated, and a few representative genera and species named. To a certain extent, therefore, the present work may be said to combine features of the manuals of Huxley and Gegenbaur with those of Van der Hoeven's. Most of the numerous figures are admirable (perhaps the poorest being that of the Echidna, Fig. 681). In the original they really illustrate the text, but in the translation many are so strangely misplaced as not only to fail of their office, but actually to mislead the student. For example, the Hyrax is represented not in its own description, but in the midst of the opening paragraph upon the rodents. Whatever difference of opinion may exist respecting the desirability of adopting certain uniform positions for comparable figures, there can be no doubt that when two figures are placed one above the other on the same page, as with Figs. 326 and 327, the recognition of homologous parts is facilitated by making both heads look the same way. In the original figures the parts are designated by abbreviations of their German names, and these abbreviations are retained in the translation, although the names themselves are rendered into Latin or English. In both, in the arrangement of the abbreviations in the explanations, there is no regard to the alphabetical order, which, being wholly artificial and conventional, is the only one adapted to all uses of a figure. Dissent from the proposition (substantially made in the New York *Medical Journal* for August 2, 1884, p. 116) that abbreviations should represent Latin technical terms, should be uniform throughout the work, and should be explained in alphabetical order, seems to imply either indolence or a wilful disregard of the convenience of others.

Probably no two persons could agree as to the precise amount of additional information which might advantageously be given to adapt the work to English or American students, but it would seem that room should have been found, at least in the translation, for a more definite account of the neurenteric canal (Part ii, p. 128), which is merely named in the text and not included in the index; for mention of the Australian dugong and the Florida manatee; of the Australian "dingo" as an exception—possibly introduced—to the mammalian fauna of that region; of the remarkable and very suggestive early stages of the gar-pike as described and figured by A. Agassiz. Good examples of the translator's bracketed interpolations by way of addition, emendation, or explanation occur on pages 202, 205, and 296 of Part 2; the last referring to the discovery last summer that the Monotremes, unlike all other mammals, are oviparous, and their ova meroblastic.

As a rule, the German terms are well rendered; but *Waschbär* is translated *washing raccoon* instead of simply *raccoon*, and *Schädel-kapsel* as *cranial capsule* instead of *cranium* alone. Of writers referred to, only the no longer living are named in the indexes. In the absence of a general bibliography, it would be well to refer to the places where each author's publications are cited. Naturally, German writings preponderate; but surely the zoölogical and palæontological works of Leidy and Cope deserved mention. It is difficult to see upon what grounds the Carnivora are interpolated between the Insectivora and the Cheiroptera, and there are few who will approve the erection of the seals and walruses into a separate order, especially when the Hyracoidea are left among the Proboscidians.

In a work of this kind precise dimensions are rarely called for, and there is as yet no written law against using *zoll* and *fuss* (*inch* and *foot*), although the metric measures are now universally understood; but, considering that a "nut" may be either a filbert or a cocoanut, the description of the new-born embryo of the kangaroo as "nussgross" conveys no very exact information. Among points which should be attended to in future editions are the confounding of the lateral-line system with the system of mucous canals; the ascription of valvulæ conniventes to all mammals, and of the pouch to all marsupials; and the inclusion of the Sirenia with the Cetacea. In the description of the parachute of the flying dragon, *anterior* might be taken as a misprint for *posterior* but for the fact that "*vordere*" occurs in the original. Verbal and pictorial inaccuracies respecting the brain are so constant a feature of all manuals of comparative anatomy, that criticism seems almost useless; of the present work it can at least be said that the errors are fewer than in some others, mainly because the authors have refrained from making the usual number of statements and generalizations. Without being hypercritical, the following must be condemned as either wholly incorrect or likely to convey wrong impressions: (p. 137) "The nervous system of Pisces [in the widest sense] presents the lowest and simplest form found in any vertebrate. . . . The median globular swellings correspond to the lobe of the third ventricle with the corpora quadrigemina"; (p. 154) "The Cyclostomi possess a brain of the piscine type"; (p. 179) "The nervous system of Amphibia is higher in several respects than that of the fishes: the differentiation of the thalamencephalon and mesencephalon is further advanced"; (p. 282) "In mammals the hemispheres partly cover the cerebellum; in the Marsupials and Monotremes their surface is still smooth." The figure of the dissected cat's brain, though copied from Gegenbaur, is nearly as bad as it could be.

As usual, in the characterization of the groups no clear distinction is drawn between the several categories of characters—those which are constant and peculiar, those which are peculiar but not constant, those which are constant but common to other groups, and finally those which are neither constant nor peculiar. Without such distinction, in some cases at least, the formulæ which most writers on comparative anatomy are so fond of constructing are not only useless but positively mischievous. In, for example, the characterization of the Pisces (which our authors retain as "convenient" while admitting the incongruity of its constituents), some of the statements apply equally to other vertebrates, while others—as that they (*all*, by distinct implication) have paired fins and a single auricle, and "breathe exclusively by means of gills"—are simply untrue. Like so many passages in anatomical and zoölogical compendiums, these remarks mislead and bewilder the student, and are at least superfluous for the better informed instructor.

Still, on the whole, the present work may be characterized as no less commendable than the compendiums of Huxley and Gegenbaur, and as having the advantage of later date. It is a fair example of its class, and this is not the place for full consideration of the questions whether such works are in any sense "elementary," and whether, indeed, it is possible, in the present state of the science, for the structural relations of the entire animal kingdom to be presented satisfactorily by a single author. Nor is the liability of an individual to err or omit through lack of information or judgment sure to be compensated by the revision—too often hasty and perfunctory—of the various divisions by acknowledged specialists. That did not exclude from an American text-book mistakes which would discredit one who had attended a single course of accurate instruction in zoölogy. In a record of original investigation, or in an advanced manual, errors of observation or interpretation can hardly fail to occur; in elementary works there is no excuse for them whatever.

In neither the original nor the translation are the indexes complete; that of Part 2 contains neither *ovum*, *ovary*, *oviduct*, nor even *egg;* and, although the texts have *winter-schläfer* and *winter-sleep*, these words are not to be found in the indexes, while the more common *hibernation* occurs nowhere. Comparatively new and little-known terms, like *adoral*, *epibole*, and *poikilothermic*, should be accompanied either by their etymologies or by reference to their proposers. The volumes are handsomely printed, but marks of haste are visible in the errata on p. 8 and the even greater number of uncorrected typographical errors.

Bible Characters: being Selections from Sermons of Alexander Gardiner Mercer, D.D. (1817-1882). With a brief Memoir of him by Manton Marble, and a Portrait. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1885.

If one should open this book at the portrait of Doctor Mercer, never having heard his name or anything about him, he would certainly desire to know something of the man whose aspect was so engaging. The photograph is in perfect keeping with his biographer's account of his exterior semblance: "Tall, finely proportioned, and of the most attractive aspect, distinction was his chief mark both in person and bearing." Crawford the sculptor wrote of him to George Sumner in 1858 or 1859: "Looking as an artist I was compelled to admire; every movement was so graceful; his manner, so strong, so earnest, so full of dignity, had the unconscious perfection of a work of art." Mr. Marble's biographical sketch is less than forty pages long, but it is so suggestive of a character of unusual strength and sweetness that we would gladly know more of its discipline and its relations to others of service and companionship.

The principal lines of his career are quickly traced. Born in 1817, in Philadelphia, he was reared from birth to youth by his mother, his father having died during his infancy. He was graduated from Princeton College in 1837 and was the valedictorian of his class; next studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1839, and, when he should have been inciting his friends to litigation, gave himself up to literary, philosophical, and theological studies. The last survived preëminently in the struggle for existence, but the others always had a generous allotment of his time and heart. He was ordained in 1846, and till his death in 1882 continued in the active work of the ministry, with the exception of a brief interval in 1854, when he occupied the chair of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy and Logic in the University of Pennsylvania. His successive pastorates were at Clifton, Staten Island, at Newark, N. J., at Newport, R. I., at Trinity Church, Boston, and finally again at Newport. Both as a preacher and as a pastor his success was marked in all these places. He endeared himself greatly to his people. In Newark his preaching was the pride of the whole city, and he had there and elsewhere many temptations from wealthy and importunate parishes to resist and conquer.

We are warned by his biographer not to take the measure of his power as a preacher from the sermons following his sketch. They present only one aspect of his preaching. Another aspect is reserved for another volume. But no printed record of his preaching could give an adequate account of it, for oftentimes his sermons were wholly or in part unwritten, and his unwritten speech was generally his most effective, while to the written MS. his voice and manner added an

impressiveness that the mere reader misses altogether. His sermons were distinctly sermons—not lectures nor essays nor speeches; and the success that waited on them was owing to no cheap contrivance to "tickle the ears of the groundlings." His abstinence from political preaching is warmly praised by his biographer, though some will think it a defect. On the National Fast-day, January, 1861, he preached an exceptional discourse on "American Citizenship, its Faults and their Remedies," but the terms in which Mr. Marble praises it are so vague that we get no clear idea of its scope.

"Gravity," said Rochefoucauld, "is a peculiar carriage of the body invented to conceal the defects of the mind"; but no one who knew Doctor Mercer could have imagined that his gravity, which was characteristic not only of his public utterance but of his private conversation, was any such device. Seldom humorous himself, his appreciation of others' wit was always keen, and his laughter was heartier than Emerson would have liked, though he would probably have succumbed to its infection. A notable proof of the reserve which was a conspicuous trait of his character, is found by Mr. Marble in the fact that in the course of his life he amassed a large estate, without the knowledge of the community at large or of his less intimate friends. Other clergymen have had his power of silent acquisition, but few of them have been so generous in their use of what they have acquired. The provisions of his will established a hospital in Boston, another in Philadelphia, and scholarships and foundations at Harvard, Yale, and elsewhere; nothing to go by his name, but all by the name of his "beloved mother and brother." It was Doctor Mercer who provided the bust of the poet Coleridge which Mr. Lowell recently dedicated in Westminster Abbey.

The sermons chosen by his executrix for publication in this volume are twenty-eight in number, and all treat of persons famed or hardly more than named in the Old Testament and New. They are well characterized by Mr. Marble. He compares the gift which they denote to that of the naturalist "constructing by the scientific use of his imagination the class, form, and dimensions of an extinct or unknown animal from the fragments of a few bones, or from their impress left in a stone matrix." So from a phrase, a choice, an action, in an environment barely sketched, Doctor Mercer has created almost the temperament and personal history of the Bible characters that are the subjects of his discourses. They are extremely simple in their form. They have no elaborate picturesqueness, no fine writing for its own sake. They seize upon the salient point of one character after another, and drive it home upon the conscience of the auditor. Sermons so little theological are seldom preached in pulpits, orthodox or heterodox. They are ethics in a parabolic form. It is as if Dr. Mercer had taken a certain stanza of "In Memoriam" for the mark of his high calling—the stanza which declares how

> "Truth in closest words shall fail
> When Truth *embodied in a tale*
> Shall enter in at lowly doors."

Die Wiener Gesellschaft. Vom Grafen Paul Vasili. Autorisirte Uebersetzung. Leipzig: H. Le Soudier; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

In literature, as elsewhere, every rose has its thorn. That is to say, a really clever book is sure to be followed by imitations resembling their model outwardly, but destitute of the merits which caused the original success. We have a striking instance of this in 'La Société de Vienne,' which first ran through the *Nouvelle Revue*, and has already had fourteen editions at home as well as a translation into German, a copy of which is before us. Like the 'Société de Berlin,' the present work purports to be written by "Count Paul Vasili," but is the product of many hands, of unequal merit. The "Count's" first book is believed to have consisted of real letters, occasionally abridged or expanded so as to be readily understood by the public, but retaining their fresh and unstudied character. Besides this advantage of form, the book had three very decided merits, which are conspicuously absent from the "Count's" last production. It was, to begin with, just what it claimed to be—a description of Berlin as seen by a person who had enjoyed the best opportunities for observation, and who got his gossip at first hand. Then, the observations were very shrewd, and the comments clever, while there was just enough malice mingled with it to secure for the book wide attention and a nominal prohibition, which, of course, was the best possible advertisement. Now the 'Société de Vienne' consists in the main of what obviously is either backstairs tattle or café invention; it is not well put together; and it is even devoid of malice—a quality which often supplies the place of wit. That it should be widely read in Paris is natural enough, for the everywhere implied inferiority of the "Prussians" to their southeastern neighbors is a bait which still attracts the Parisian appetite, though this is perhaps even more pleased by the instances of domestic scandal sprinkled through the volume.

Nevertheless, in view of the fact that there is no European country, except Russia, with which we and our British cousins have so little to do, in the way of travel or otherwise, as we have with Austria, and our consequent ignorance of that country's politics, statesmen, institutions, and manners, the book is worth reading, though under other conditions it would deserve nothing but the wastebasket. It is very easily read, and contains a good deal of information which, though incorrect in some details, is sound enough in the main. The most disappointing chapter is that on Viennese authors, but it would perhaps be unfair to blame the compiler for this, since his task was here pretty much what it would have been had he been commissioned to discourse on snakes in Iceland. There are *no* Austrian authors; there are Hungarian, Bohemian, and numerous other varieties, including Austrian in the sense of persons born and bred in the narrow territory between Vienna and the German border. But these last, few as they are, find at home no remuneration for their labors in fame or in money, and either migrate to Germany, or strive to keep soul and body together in some provincial town where living is cheap and social temptations few.

Historical Sketch of the Organization, Administration, Matériel and Tactics, of the Artillery, U.S.A. By William E. Birkhimer, 1st Lieut. 3d Regiment, U. S. Artillery. Washington: J. J. Chapman.

Lieutenant Birkhimer's meritorious book will perhaps find but few readers outside his profession, though it has been compiled from original authorities with great care and no small amount of labor. It fills what was a complete void, for, singularly enough, although the artillery arm has had a distinct organization for more than a century, no attempt had previously been made to write its history. Lieutenant Birkhimer now tells it very fully, giving not only the changes in its organization since it was first established by Washington in 1776, and its record in four wars, but discussing with a completeness that leaves nothing to be desired its functions, its material, its tactics, and its relations to the other arms of the service. He also gives a clear synopsis of the organization and equipment of artillery in foreign armies, and shows what features of them are adapted to our conditions and what are not. The "burning question" in the artillery for the last fifty years has been its relations to the Ordnance Department. This is discussed by Mr. Birkhimer at great length, and is constantly referred to incidentally. He argues in favor of a reorganized and reunited artillery, in which those who construct guns and those who man and fight them shall be brought together under a single chief. It is impossible to even summarize here the points of his argument, but it is safe to say that no other book affords an equal amount of data for the solution of this question, so important for the military service.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Historical Account of the Work of the American Committee of the Revision of the Bible. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
History of the Christian Church During the Middle Ages. With a Summary of the Reformation—Centuries XI. to XVI. Harper & Brothers.
Ingoldsby, T. The Ingoldsby Legends. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1.25.
Lansdell, Dr. H. Russian Central Asia. Including Kuldja, Bokhara, Khiva, and Merv. In 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $10.
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Meyer, H. C. Water-Waste Prevention. Its Importance and the Evils Due to its Neglect. Sanitary Engineers.
Meredith, G. Diana of the Crossways. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Molloy, J. F. Court Life Below Stairs; or, London Under the First Georges. New ed. Scribner & Welford.
Ohnet, G. La Grande Marnière. 43d ed. F. W. Christern.
Pascoe, C. E. London of To-Day. Boston: Roberts Brothers.
Potter, W. J. Twenty-five Sermons of Twenty-five Years. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Roosevelt, R. R. Five Acres Too Much. New ed. O. Judd Co. $1.50.
Ruskin, J. The Seven Lamps of Architecture. John B. Alden.
Ryan, J. E. The Vocalist. A. S. Barnes & Co. 70 cents.
Saltus, E. E. The Philosophy of Disenchantment. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sand, George. La Mare au Diable. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Scidmore, E. R. Alaska, its Southern Coast, and the Sitkan Archipelago. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.50.
Scott, W. Tales of a Grandfather: being the History of Scotland. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Sinnett, A. P. The Occult World. Second American ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Shillaber, Lydia. A New Daily Food: A Collection of Tried and Reliable Recipes. Bedell & Brother. 75 cents.
Stickney, J. H. The Swiss Family Robinson. Edited for the Use of Schools. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Stevenson, R. L. The Dynamiter. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Stepniak. Russia under the Tzars. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Stickney, A. Democratic Government. A Study of Politics. Harper & Bros.
Stone, Mary A. A Summer in Scandinavia. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Sumner, Prof. W. G. Collected Essays in Political and Social Science. Henry Holt & Co. $1. 50.
Tales from Many Sources. Dodd, Mead & Co. 3 vols. 75 cents each.
Tcheng-Ki-Tong, Colonel. The Chinese Painted by Themselves. Scribner & Welford.
Teetzel, Mrs. Frances Grant. The Dynamite Cartridge. Boston: Cleaves, Macdonald & Co.
The Kitchen: or, Every-Day Cookery. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Todd, Dr. J. Index Rerum; or, Index of Subjects. Intended as a Manual to Aid the Student and the Professional Man. Revised and Improved by James M. Hubbard. Baker & Taylor. $2.50.
Torrey, B. Birds in the Bush. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Tromholt, S. Under the Rays of the Aurora Borealis. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.
Tyler, Josephine. Waymarks, or Sola in Europe. Brentano Brothers.
Vining, E. P. An Inglorious Columbus; or, Evidence that Hwui Shān and a Party of Buddhist Monks from Afghanistan Discovered America in the Fifth Century, A. D. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Virgil. The First Six Books of the Æneid. The Bucolics and Georgics. A. S. Barnes & Co. $2.
Waters, H. F. Genealogical Gleanings in England. Part I. Boston: New England Historic Genealogical Society.
Wharton, H. T. Sappho. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.
Webb, Rev. T. W. The Sun: A Familiar Description of his Phenomena. Industrial Publication Co.
White, Rhoda E. What Will the World Say? An American Tale of Real Life. Lawrence Kehoe.
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Williams, W. M. The Chemistry of Cookery. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Wilkins, Prof. A. S. The Epistles of Horace. Edited with Notes. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Withrow, Dr. W. H. Valeria, the Martyr of the Catacombs. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Wise, H. A. Captain Brand, of the *Centipede*. A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Wittenmeyer, Mrs. Annie. The Women of the Reformation. Phillips & Hunt. $2.
Zimmermann, O. Die Wonne des Leids. 2d ed. B. Westermann & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 11, 1885.

The Week.

THE defeat of the Gladstone Ministry on Monday night, on an important question of taxation, after a formal announcement by Mr. Gladstone that he would stand or fall by the division, is a very momentous event. The Ministry were never more in the right. They proposed to meet half the expenses incurred by the late and pending warlike ventures, which have been literally imposed on them by the country, by an increased duty on the most legitimate objects of taxation—beer and spirits—particularly legitimate in view of the large share of these beverages in keeping up the warlike spirit which has got the British nation into its present troubles. The Opposition proposed to substitute an increased duty on tea and light wines, and the second reading of the budget was defeated by a vote of 264 to 252. The majority is small, and may be said to have been made up wholly of the Parnellites, who of course do not care a straw about the tax question. What they voted against was the Coercion Bill, "buckshot Forster," and "the murderers of Miles Joyce," or, in other words, against the Irish policy of the Government generally. But it is a settled tradition of English politics that a defeat on the budget is a mortal blow for the Ministry, and accordingly, after a Cabinet meeting, the resignation of Ministers was announced. The Tories are probably more dismayed by their victory than anybody else. The difficulties they will have to contend with at home and abroad are tremendous, and they will give the Liberals the immense advantage of being in opposition, and showing them up on the stump during the coming canvass for the fall election. Moreover, the character of the Parliament which will be elected by the new constituency is confessedly a mystery for everybody. The probabilities are that it will be enthusiastically Gladstonian, and carry the Grand Old Man back to power with a mighty rush.

While the Republican organs continue despairingly to predict that "clean sweep," the Administration goes steadily forward in the application of civil-service reform principles. A notable proof of its sincerity is afforded by the action of the Postmaster-General regarding some appointments of Post-office Inspectors which he has to make. The Civil-Service Law does not apply to this class of subordinates, and Mr. Vilas might, if he chose, have gone on treating the places as a part of the spoils, after the practice of Frank Hatton and a long line of other Republican predecessors. He has voluntarily decided to extend the operation of the competitive principle so as to cover these inspectorships, and all applicants have been notified to appear for an examination which will have special reference to their probable usefulness for the peculiar service required. To remove the last vestige of doubt as to the basis upon which the final decision will be made, the Postmaster-General takes pains to say in his circular letter that "no recommendation to favor will avail anything to the advantage of the applicant in respect to this examination, but rather to his disadvantage, it being the purpose of this Department to secure the most efficient corps of inspectors possible, and to have them depend for their positions hereafter wholly upon their merits." It is by such extensions of the scope of the merit system that the Administration demonstrates its fidelity to the reform beyond the possibility of cavil.

A very interesting statement is sent to the *Herald* from Washington of the reforms which Secretary Manning has already secured in the Custom-house service. In a few branches of the service alone they will save the country millions of dollars a year. In 1879 an appropriation of $100,000 was made to be used for the detection and prevention of frauds in the customs service. It was devoted mainly to paying the salaries of persons who for the most part did nothing except draw pay, and work for the party. Their names made up what is known as the "Fraud Roll," and the appropriation was really the payment from the public treasury of a large sum of money to support party workers. Their business was not to detect revenue frauds, but to run the primaries, help pack conventions, and avert from the country the constantly impending peril of paying the rebel debt. There were all sorts of names on the roll, those of judges, colonels, brigadier-generals, and "boys," and the compensation ranged from $4 to $8 a day. There were twenty of such patriots on the New York roll, and at one time there were no less than sixty under pay in various cities, not one of whom did a second's work for the Government. Secretary Manning has cut off the whole crew, and the expense of the "Fraud Roll," which was $90,000 last year, will be $15,000 this year, and every cent of it will be paid for Government service. We understand that every man of those who drew the other $75,000 is going about with a heart full of gloomy apprehensions concerning the future of the poor negro.

In the Appraiser's Department, the condition of the service when Mr. Manning removed Mr. Ketchum and put Mr. McMullen in his place, was almost incredibly bad. Mr. Ketchum had, like his predecessors, run the Department with the main purpose of making it "worth" as much as possible, not to the Government, but to politics, and the result was a great triumph of his political skill. The most fruitful field of activity was the recalling of invoices. Under the law, an importer who is dissatisfied with an appraisement must within twenty-four hours after the appraisement make an appeal to the Collector, or forfeit all right to a reappraisement. If he makes the appeal within twenty-four hours, he can have a reappraisement made by a board of merchant appraisers appointed under the law by the Collector. There is no other legal way of securing a reappraisement; yet for several years the appraisers have ignored this law entirely, and have arbitrarily established the custom of recalling invoices and changing them as they pleased. In 1884 Mr. Ketchum "recalled" 1,709 invoices, and in nearly every case he reduced the valuation made by the examiner and assistant appraisers. There are numerous cases on record in which importers who had made appeal in accordance with the law, "waived" this appeal before the board of merchants could be called, and accepted the reduction made by the appraisers, which seems to have been very generous in all cases. The same importing houses were pretty regularly favored with these reductions, and it naturally happened that a house which was not thus favored was driven out of the business. It is estimated that undervaluation in the New York Custom-house alone for several years past, has cost the Government at least 20 per cent. of its customs revenue.

Secretary Whitney, soon after taking office, appointed a board of experts to inquire into the usefulness of a wood-preserving process which had been bought by the Navy Department in January last. The history of the "process" is very interesting. It was first called to the Department's attention by General B. F. Butler, in 1875. Secretary Robeson had it investigated and made a contract with the owners to have the timber which was to be used in building the Government ships "impregnated" by it. In 1879 the company built some "works" to accommodate the "process," in the Boston Navy-yard, at a cost of nearly $39,000. In 1881 a board of examiners, appointed by Secretary Hunt, reported against the process, saying it had no useful effect upon the timber. Later in the same year General Butler appeared before the Department, complaining that the "works" had been comparatively idle since June, 1880, and asked to have the Department either buy the "works" or contract at once with the company to have some more timber "impregnated." In 1883, Secretary Chandler having come into power, a contract was given the company for the preservation of 100,000 cubic feet of timber at 14 cents a foot. In January last Mr. Chandler had the process reinvestigated by a board, which reported that it was good, and the Government ought to buy the "works." This the Government did on January 31, paying $38,891 95 for them, together with nearly $10,000 for timber and about $1,000 for labor performed upon it. The total outlay of the Government has been over $156,000. Secretary Whitney's experts report that the process is not new and is useless; that the "works" could be duplicated for much less than was paid for them; and that the outlay has resulted in no practical advantage to the Government.

Mr. Graves, the new Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, was asked the other day as to the policy which he should enforce in the management of that great institution. Among the sensible features of business-like administration which he set forth in reply, nothing was better than this: "One thing I do want understood, and that is that this bureau is not an eleemosynary institution—not a place in

which persons can obtain work simply on account of their personal misfortunes." Mr. Graves here attacks one of the most serious abuses in the Government service. While the chief aim of the spoils policy has been to provide places for followers of the bosses, who had been or could be serviceable to their patrons, there has grown up a system of giving office to people who seem unable to support themselves, and of retaining people in their places after age or infirmity has rendered them incapable of good work, simply because they need the salary to which they have grown accustomed. The appointment of General Rosecrans as Register of the Treasury is one illustration of this system. Rosecrans is now a man of nearly sixty-six, whose lack of business training would prevent any private establishment from giving him such a place, and the only excuse that can be assigned for the Government's giving it to him is that he is old, "out of a job," and needs to be taken care of. The case of Marr, chief clerk in the First Assistant Postmaster-General's office, is another illustration of the working of this system in the other direction. Marr was a very efficient man in his time, but he is now eighty-four years old and incapacitated for the duties of his place, which is now vastly more laborious than when he entered the service long before the war. His superior is greatly embarrassed by the inability of this old public functionary to do the work which devolves upon the chief clerk, and yet the precedents in favor of keeping the official landmark are so weighty that Mr. Hay shrinks from discharging him and securing a capable successor. Mr. Graves has an excellent chance to do a great public service by discarding, in the important bureau which he is to superintend, the vicious principle of treating Government office as a refuge for the unfortunate or the superannuated.

The result of the municipal election in Wilmington, Del., on Saturday, like that of the local elections in Virginia the week before, furnishes welcome evidence that the race line in Southern politics, which was so unfortunately maintained throughout the period of Republican rule, is destined to disappear under a Democratic Administration. Wilmington has repeatedly been carried by the Republicans, and has now a Republican Mayor, but the Democrats elected their ticket by about 500 majority on Saturday, in a vote nearly equal to that of last fall, and the character of the canvass renders their success of general interest. Recognizing that the colored voters held the decision of the contest in their hands, the Democratic candidate for Mayor appealed for their support by promises no longer to maintain the ancient race discrimination in the appointment of policemen, but to give some places on the force to black men. The woful predictions of the Blaine orators and organs last fall as to the future of the negro, in case the Democrats should elect the President, read oddly enough in view of such incidents as this. The Democrats have now been in power three months, and the country has yet to hear of the first outrage upon a black in the South; while, in the only three States which have held elections of any sort, the noteworthy events have been the choice of a capable negro over rival white candidates as police judge in Hot Springs, Ark., the nomination of a number of negroes for local offices upon the Democratic ticket in Virginia, and the election of a Democratic Mayor in the chief city of Delaware after his promise to appoint negroes upon the police force.

That the sectional line is beginning to vanish along with the race line appears from such an incident as the recent appointment of Colonel Robert A. Howard, of Arkansas, as an Assistant Attorney-General of the United States at Washington. Mr. Howard won his title as commander of a Nebraska regiment in the Union army during the civil war, and assisted in the capture of Little Rock from the Confederate forces. He was so well pleased with the city that he settled there after the war, and, despite his Northern origin and his prominence in the Union army, he has secured a front rank at the bar, and has won such general respect that his present appointment is hailed with hearty satisfaction throughout the State. Even more encouraging than such willingness to honor a worthy Union soldier from the North is the readiness of influential Southern journals to condemn unworthy men of their own section. The recent revocation by a Northern President of the appointment to a post-office of Meade, who was implicated in the Copiah County (Miss.) election outrage of two years ago, is heartily endorsed as wise and proper by the foremost Democratic newspapers in the South.

The Atlanta *Constitution* is still in pursuit of information about silver. It wants to know again whether the stoppage of the present coinage would not "further depreciate the value of the silver dollars already coined." We answer again that we think it would—a little, but not much. What difference this would make to anybody but the silver miners, inasmuch as the coins stay in the Treasury, we fail to see. It also wishes to know "whether the banks of the country would open their doors to them [the silver coins] after the coinage was suspended and the bullion value of the silver still further depreciated." We answer that they would not, if properly managed. Banks are business and not philanthropic institutions. Any bank manager, therefore, who took on deposit a metal which he might be called on to refund dollar for dollar in another metal of greater value, would be either a fool or a knave. Banks have no *duty* about silver, any more than about hides or wool. They are carried on for the purpose of making money. Sentimental banking is always bad banking. The first duty of a banker is to secure his depositors and note-holders and stockholders, and he could not do this if he took depreciated metals of fluctuating value on deposit. We may add that there is no use in discussing economical questions with the *Constitution* or anybody who imports sentiment into the consideration of such a topic as coinage, and talks of "raids on silver," and "hatred of silver," and so forth. The real trouble with the silver men of the South and West is, that they treat the precious metals as animated beings. Several cranks in those regions have seriously maintained that we ought to drive gold out of the country, because it basely abandoned us at the outbreak of the war, and substitute the greenback, which stuck closer to us than a brother.

The recent death of the man who stood at the head of the Louisiana lottery business may prove the first step toward the downfall of this enormous swindle. The New Orleans papers for the first time now have the grace to admit that "doubtless it was an objectionable creation," and they seek to lay the blame for its origin upon the "dark régime of Radical misrule." The excuse which the *Picayune* offers for its continuance thus far under the Democrats is as amusing a development of the protection theory as was ever presented. It says that the Louisiana institution was permitted as a defensive measure against a similar institution in Havana, which used to monopolize the business and withdraw large amounts of money from New Orleans. In other words, the Louisiana lottery people were really a set of public benefactors, who were building up an "infant industry" against the competition of "pauper labor" in Cuba, and who, therefore, had a just claim to the support of the State. It was thus, it will be seen, only a brotherly feeling which made the chief Philadelphia organ of protection to home industry publish the advertisements of the Louisiana swindle until it was compelled by law to stop.

A few of the Blaine worshippers still continue to burn incense, but the number constantly dwindles. Halstead, of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*—late of the New York *Extra*—is the undisputed leader in this political idolatry. He still insists that the nomination of Blaine last year was wise, because the Mugwumps, whom he pleasantly characterizes as "supercilious, vain, pompous, cranky, silly, malicious," would have defeated any candidate who was worthy of the confidence of the party. Moreover, he holds that "the glory of the campaign will be a proud and splendid historic possession," and he expresses his pity for "the Republican who does not feel yet the inspiration of the splendid leadership of Blaine in the late campaign." Apparently there is going to be a great drain upon Mr. Halstead's stock of pity. The Sandusky *Register*, a leading Republican paper of Ohio, pronounces Blaine's nomination a "mistake," and declares that the Republican party never makes the same mistake twice. The Dayton *Journal*, another influential party organ, is still more emphatic; it says that the nomination was a "palpable mistake," which was "manifest when made," protests against any more "defensive campaigns," and calls for a "solid candidate" next time. Nine out of ten of the Republican papers throughout the country are evidently with the Sandusky and Dayton organs in this matter. They got their fill of "splendid leadership" last fall.

The caucus has evidently seen its best days when a politician like "Bill" Chandler admits the possible wisdom of disregarding its edicts. A few years ago, when a New Hampshire Legislature was called upon to elect a United

States Senator, the members of the dominant party met and balloted for a candidate. The man who received a majority in the caucus—even though it might be, as in Senator Blair's case six years ago, a majority of but a single vote—thereby secured a perfect claim to the support of every member of the party; and the legislator who ventured to cast his vote for anybody else was denounced as a "traitor." Something was accomplished toward overthrowing this tyranny two years ago. So many Republican members of the Legislature either stayed away from the caucus or refused to be bound by its decision that Rollins, who secured a nomination from a majority of those who did attend, could never command the votes of more than 127 of the 195 Republicans, and finally had to withdraw his name. Chandler tried his luck next, but with still poorer success, and the long contest ended in the choice of an outsider. Chandler showed the first signs of treachery to the caucus system when he hailed this result as "patience's perfect work," and assured President Arthur that the Republican party in New Hampshire was "reunited, courageous, and invincible" after thus defying all the traditions. Two years of reflection have apparently only confirmed him in the error of his ways. Now that another Senator is to be chosen and another caucus is proposed, he publishes in his Concord paper an editorial which says that, if "substantial unanimity" shall characterize the action of the caucus, that action should be endorsed by the party in the Legislature; but if there is a large element which does not acquiesce in the result, it cannot be expected that they will be bound by it. In other words, he admits the right of private judgment, and is ready to sustain the bolter, instead of "branding" him. Such sentiments might be expected from a wretched Mugwump, but nobody expected the day would ever come when "Bill" Chandler would give utterance to them.

The difficulty, and in fact the hopelessness, of getting people interested in a special election has been again illustrated in the experience of Illinois. It was provided years ago that the election of Supreme and Circuit Judges in that State should be held in June, on the theory that it would be easier to procure a non-partisan judiciary by holding a special election for their choice, than by voting for judges along with other elective officers in November. But the result has been extremely disappointing. The party lines have been as strictly maintained as before, and last week in every circuit in the State—outside of Chicago, where the present circuit bench was reëlected without opposition—Republicans and Democrats voted for candidates of their own political faith, just as they would have done if the election had been held at the same time as other elections in the fall. So little interest, however, is manifested in these special elections that it is even easier for the politicians to manipulate conventions and elect their special favorites than it would be in the case of a November election, while the expense of the business to the taxpayers is about a quarter of a million dollars, which would be saved if the Supreme and Circuit judges were chosen at the usual time, as is the case with judges of the lower courts. The Legislature is urged to submit a Constitutional amendment doing away with the June election system, and it would seem as though the change ought to be made. The experience of Illinois with June elections for the judiciary is in the same line as that of this city with spring elections for Mayor years ago. One important election a year is as much as voters generally want or will attend to, and the true policy for those who want to secure the best judges or city officials is to have them elected at the usual time in November, but to separate the choice so far as possible from that of Federal officials. The Constitutional amendment which was pressed upon the New York Legislature at its last session proposed to accomplish this by making the elections of city officers come in the intermediate years between the Congressional elections. The reform was deferred through the refusal of the Legislature to endorse the project, but it is bound to come, sooner or later.

There is at last a promise that Ferdinand Ward will be brought to trial and his days of luxurious living in Ludlow Street Jail, at the expense of the people whom he robbed, be terminated. An indictment for grand larceny has been found against him by the Grand Jury, based upon Ward's alleged theft of his grip-sack of securities, amounting to about a million of dollars, from the vaults of the Marine Bank. Fish testified that Ward was allowed, because of his friendly and business relations with the bank, to visit the vaults where the grip-sack was, and that he took advantage of this privilege by walking off with the contents of the grip-sack, leaving the bank with no security for its heavy loans to him. The District Attorney has seized upon this point in Fish's testimony as the first opportunity which has presented itself for getting Ward into court on a criminal charge. He is at present in civil custody of the Sheriff, in default of $500,000 bail which was demanded in the suit brought against him by the late J. Nelson Tappan, and cannot be reached on the two pending indictments against him for violation of the National Banking Law, because so long as he is in charge of the State authorities he cannot be made amenable to the laws of the United States. The new indictment, however, being for violation of State laws, can be tried while the civil suit is pending, as was done in the case of Tweed.

The trial of Ward on this indictment will be very interesting. It will bring out his side of the story of the relations between himself and Fish, and will probably lead to developments concerning the methods of this precious pair which will throw important light upon the mysteries of their memorable swindle. Few people are prepared to believe that Ward's "grand larceny" of the grip-sack was committed without the knowledge of Fish, and there are sceptical persons who think it was a joint theft planned by the two. If we can get them into court, pitted against each other, we are likely to secure, before the case ends, a great deal of valuable information. They ought to have been disposed of months ago, but Ward's counsel were shrewd enough to obstruct affairs with the old expedient of a civil suit. There has been no such obstruction in Fish's path, and we are hopeful that the long delay in his case has about reached its limit.

While the depression of business continues in most parts of the country, it is pleasant to learn that there is one quarter where the people are already congratulating themselves upon the coming of good times and the assurance of still better. This is in the northwestern corner of the United States—the State of Oregon and the Territory of Washington. Oregon especially is in high spirits over the situation and prospect. While the great wheat-growing States will have a short crop this year, and California less than half her usual surplus, Oregon's crop will be the largest ever known. The decreased exportation of grain from California will cheapen tonnage rates from the Columbia River country, and there is thus an excellent promise of good prices to the Oregon growers. The population of the State is growing at a very rapid pace. For ten weeks past the arrivals by rail, ocean, and wagon have averaged a thousand a week, and the tide slowly swells as the season progresses. The new comers are mostly Americans of the best class, who bring more or less money with them, and soon find satisfactory settlement. Portland, the metropolis of the State, is doing a larger and healthier business than ever before, and the *Oregonian* concludes a review of the present encouraging situation with a confident prediction of still better times in the near future.

The extent of the diversion from the ocean to the railroads of our exports to Mexico, of which we recently spoke, may be seen in the customs revenue reported from El Paso. The amount realized in the month of April last was $98,145, as against $34,482 in the same month of 1884. Yet this rapid increase in the business of the Central Railroad is not viewed with entire complacency by Mexican merchants, especially those outside of the capital. The provincial press, together with the opposition newspapers of the City of Mexico, is filled with protests against the iniquity of differential rates which, it is alleged, are ruining the domestic trade of the country. Raw cotton can be shipped from San Antonio or Galveston to Mexico City at the rate of 1½ cents a pound, while from Villa Lerdo the rate is 2¾ cents. Cotton sheetings are carried from New York for $44 a ton, while from the cotton mills of Durango the rate is $63. Tallow from New York pays $33 a ton, from El Paso $55. Against such inequalities is urged the 46th article of the concession to the Central Company: "Freights shall always be adjusted with the most perfect equality. The company shall not concede to any one an advantage which is not conceded to all in the same circumstances." Under this section, and under the authority of the Secretary of the Interior to revise the rates of transportation every two years, the Government is urged to compel the railroad officials to place all shippers on an equality. The President has, in fact, appointed a commission to investigate the matter, and assures the aggrieved merchants that he will do everything possible for their relief.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 3, to TUESDAY, June 9, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President has not receded in the least from his position that worthy and faithful Chiefs of Divisions shall be safe in their places. Appeals have recently been made to him by the friends of chiefs who have been removed or threatened with removal. His replies have been clear and emphatic. He has said that the members of the Cabinet are bound by an understanding that no competent and deserving chief is to be removed. It is very necessary, in the President's opinion, that heads of departments shall be confident of the loyalty and ability of their chiefs, and that a serious doubt as to a man's fidelity or efficiency is ample excuse for his removal. He believes that no departure from these principles has been made.

Some of the active friends of civil-service reform in Washington claim to have obtained within the last few days new light on the President's reform policy in some very interesting directions. According to these gentlemen, the President's advocacy of a non-partisan civil service goes much further than even the most radical reformers have supposed. They assert that every act of the Administration which has been personally sanctioned by the President has been in accordance with these ideas. The President thinks that the protection of the Civil-Service Law should be eventually extended to many classes now exempt from its provisions. He does not believe that this should be ordered while nine-tenths of the employees of the Government are Republicans, and a large percentage of them appointed on political grounds.

The President has amended civil-service rule 9, relating to the examination of applicants for office, by inserting after the words "no person dismissed from the public service for misconduct," and before the words "shall be admitted to examination within two years thereafter," the following words: "And no person who has not been absolutely appointed or employed after probation."

President Cleveland has appointed Herbert F. Beecher Collector of Customs for Oregon and Washington Territory. He is a son of the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, and a resident of Port Townsend, where he is engaged in the steamboat business. It is said that his father persistently refused to speak in behalf of his son's appointment, or to allow any other member of his family to do so.

Among the President's nominations on Tuesday was Henry C. Urner, to succeed Lot Wright as United States Marshal for the Southern District of Ohio. He is a lawyer by profession and a resident of Cincinnati. He was formerly President of the Chamber of Commerce. Fred H. Marsh was nominated to succeed A. M. Jones as Marshal for the Northern District of Illinois. He at present holds the office of Sheriff of Ogle County. This nomination is a snub to the "gang" which has controlled Chicago politics.

The Commission which has been investigating the workings of the Internal-Revenue Bureau has completed its report, and the result has been virtually approved by the Secretary of the Treasury. The report will not be made public at present, and probably its entire scope will not become known until the end of the fiscal year, when most of the recommendations will go into effect. It is estimated that, if effect is given to the recommendations, the total annual cost of the collection of internal revenue will be reduced 30 per cent., and that the expense of the internal-revenue establishment in Washington will be reduced 25 per cent. Radical changes are proposed in the method of collecting the revenue, and an additional consolidation of districts is recommended.

The Secretary of the Treasury on Saturday received a strong protest against the continued coinage of the present silver dollar, which contains the signature of almost every banking association and business man in the State of South Carolina. Among the signers are the Treasurer and the Comptroller-General of the State.

General Crook telegraphed the War Department on Saturday through General Pope that citizens have been killed by the Indians as follows: 7 in the Blue Mountains and around Aliva, 5 near Silver City, 2 near Old Camp Vincent, and 3 near Crafton, a total of 17. There may have been others killed, but there are no reliable data obtainable.

Minister Lothrop had a warm reception from the Michigan Legislature on Thursday. In a brief speech he thanked the members for the kind feeling they had expressed toward him.

John H. Aufdemorte, for seventeen years a confidential clerk in the United States Sub-Treasury in New Orleans, has absconded with Government money which may amount to $50,000. He is supposed to be in Mexico.

Isaac Hibbs, Postmaster at Lewiston, Idaho, has swindled the Government out of about $50,000, by means of fraudulent money orders.

The Ohio Greenback-Labor party on Friday nominated a full State ticket, with J. W. Northrop for Governor.

At a meeting of the Tammany Committee of Twenty-four in this city on Wednesday evening resolutions were adopted declaring, "That the most complete harmony exists in the ranks of the Tammany Hall organization, and that we look forward with pleasure and gratification to the early return of the Hon. John Kelly to his place at the head of our organization." The resolutions were signed by the representatives of all the Assembly districts.

It is decided that the New Orleans Exhibition shall reopen in November. Enough money has been subscribed, and large numbers of exhibitors promise to return.

Governor Hill on Tuesday signed the bill to regulate the height of dwelling-houses in New York.

Mayor Harrison, of Chicago, has decided to enforce vigorously the ordinance against gambling in that city.

The Hessian fly is reported to be ravaging the wheat in Kansas and Maryland.

The statue of "The Pilgrim," erected by the New England Society in Central Park, near the Grand Drive, was formally unveiled at 3 o'clock on Saturday afternoon. George William Curtis delivered a commemorative address.

It was announced on Wednesday that Richard S. Scott, paying teller of the Bank of the Manhattan Company of this city, had absconded with $160,610 42. He had been employed for twenty years by the bank and had an excellent reputation. He has fled to Canada. It is believed that he is residing near Prescott, Ont. The bank's surplus unimpaired after the above loss is $925,000.

It is now a little more than a year that Ferdinand Ward has been confined in Ludlow Street Jail. On Thursday he was brought to the bar in the Court of Oyer and Terminer in this city to plead to an indictment charging him with grand larceny in the first degree. His plea was not guilty, and his case was postponed until the 15th instant. More indictments were presented against him on Friday and Monday.

Ex-Governor Hale, of New Hampshire, failed on Saturday. It is reported that his liabilities may reach $1,000,000.

The jury at Richmond which tried Cluverius for the murder of Lillian Madison, found him on Thursday night guilty of murder in the first degree.

Robert Treat Paine died in Brookline, Mass., on Wednesday, at the age of eighty. He was the grandson of the distinguished man of the same name who signed the Declaration of Independence. Mr. Paine was graduated from Harvard in the class of 1822, and was almost the last survivor of that class. He studied law and was admitted to the bar. He was a member of the Boston Common Council in 1828, '33, and '34. During the greater part of his life he devoted his time to benevolent and scientific labors, chiefly in astronomy.

The Rev. Daniel Denison Whedon, D. D., LL.D., late editor of the *Methodist Quarterly Review*, died at Atlantic Highlands, N. J., on Monday, aged 77.

FOREIGN.

Lord Randolph Churchill, speaking in East London on Wednesday evening, summarized the Tory policy of the future as follows: "For Ireland a return to the policy of Pitt, Peel, and Beaconsfield; a comprehensive revision of the present fiscal revenue arrangements; rigorous retrenchment in national finances; a reform of the procedure of the Commons by meeting earlier, rising earlier, and giving much larger power to the committees of the House; a large scheme of local reform for Ireland, England, and the metropolis; a comprehensive inquiry into the whole operation of Indian government; confirming British predominance in Egypt, and making a close alliance with the Sultan."

The House of Commons reassembled on Thursday. Mr. Gladstone announced on Friday that Russia and England had come to an agreement concerning the points of difference between them which were to be referred to arbitration. He also stated that the Governments of the two countries have likewise agreed upon the arbitrator. But as the person chosen for arbitrator has not yet been formally asked to accept, he was therefore unable to say further on the subject then.

The majority of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, led by Earl Spencer, would maintain the following provisions of the Irish Crimes Act: First, enabling a change of venue of a trial; second, giving power to try special cases with special jurors; third, giving power to try summarily for intimidation before two resident magistrates; fourth, giving power to conduct a preliminary secret examination. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, in a speech at Birmingham on Wednesday night, said the task of the new Parliament would be to give the widest possible self-government to Ireland consistent with the integrity of the empire, and to find a safe mean between separation, which would be disastrous to Ireland and dangerous to England, and excessive centralization, which would impede legislation.

The British Cabinet on Friday discussed Irish coercion for two hours, but failed to reach an agreement. Earl Spencer, in a recent interview with Mr. Gladstone, stated that an irreducible minimum of coercion he considered indispensable for governing Ireland. He showed by his absence from the council that he was determined there should be no compromise. Mr. Gladstone asked Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke to accede to Earl Spencer's full demands for one year. The excitement in Ministerial circles over the crisis became intense.

On Friday evening in the House of Commons Mr. Gladstone announced the following as the order of Government business: The second reading of the budget, on Monday; the consideration of the Scotch Crofters' Bill and the bill for the renewal of the Irish Crimes Act, remodelled, on Thursday, and the introduction and consideration of an Irish Land Purchase Bill as soon as possible.

Mr. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon that the extra duty on spirits and beer had been fixed at a shilling a gallon. This was a reduction, he said, which would involve a loss to the public revenue of $1,500,000 per annum. The additional duty on beer, the Chancellor said, would be retained until May 31, 1886, and no other changes in the budget would be made.

Mr. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced in the House of Commons on Monday evening that the Government had decided not to refund to the taxpayers the amount of the increased duty on spirits paid over and above the extra shilling per gallon finally decided on, because consumers had been charged higher rates after the announcement of the original increase. Mr. Childers moved the second reading of the budget, and in his supporting speech explained that, of the total increase in the beer and spirits duties, England pays seven-ninths, Scotland one-ninth, and Ireland one-ninth. The Conservatives denounced the increased duty on spirits, asserting that the amount needed could have been raised by increasing the duty on tea or wine. Mr. Gladstone in his reply said he thought that the Opposition were creating a precedent which they would regret when they came into power again. The previous reduction of wine duties had a beneficial effect in preventing adulteration and increasing the trade many millions annually. It would be most impolitic to increase the wine duty, unless under the most extreme pressure. The Opposition cavilled at the mode of raising the money without suggesting an alternative. Tea would require an additional tax of 3d. per pound to produce the same amount, thus raising the duty 75 per cent. on an innocent beverage. The Government had to choose between alcoholic liquors and tea and sugar. They would accept the issue of the vote as one of life or death, and did not envy those who, if they gained a victory, would have to bear the consequences. Mr. Gladstone's remarks were received with prolonged cheers. The Government was defeated on a motion for the second reading of the budget by a vote of 264 to 252. Tremendous excitement was caused by the announcement of the result. Mr. Gladstone immediately adjourned the House.

A Cabinet Council was held on Tuesday afternoon, and, after a thorough discussion, it was decided to resign. When Parliament met, Mr. Gladstone said the Cabinet thought they were under obligation to submit a dutiful communication to the Queen. It would be premature on his part to enter into particulars concerning the nature of that communication just now. As a few days must elapse before the result of that communication could be arrived at, he moved the adjournment of the House until Friday. This was carried. Mr. Gladstone's bearing was dignified and even cheerful, and his reception was highly demonstrative.

The crisis produced a general depression of the London stock market. The effect of the resignation on the negotiations with Russia may be very serious. It is believed that the Conservatives will assume office.

Sir Peter Lumsden arrived in London on Saturday. He is severely censured for talking freely on the way about the Afghan dispute, but lays the blame upon the reporters. A Tory ovation has been talked of.

Great excitement was caused in St. Petersburg on Saturday by the announcement of the *Novosti* (newspaper) that it had been privately informed from the Caucasus that the Amir of Afghanistan, Abdurrahman, had been murdered by his suite. It is said that the murder took place in Persia, where the Amir was at the time travelling, and that Ayub Khan, the deposed Amir, will be his successor. Abdurrahman Khan, who in the summer of 1880 was acknowledged by the British Indian Government as Amir of Kabul, had long been an exile in Turkestan. He is the lineal representative of Dost Mohammed, the founder of the Barakzai dynasty, and is the eldest son of Afzul Khan, a half brother of the late Amir Shir Ali. It is believed that Abdurrahman was born about 1830. Nothing confirmatory of his reported death has been received in London, and the rumor is not credited.

The English troops will leave Assuan about the middle of June for Cairo at the rate of 1,500 a week. The rebels have occupied Korti, and it is expected that they will advance upon Dongola when the English have gone. The Guards have been ordered to remain at Alexandria for the present.

Mr. Phelps, United States Minister to Great Britain, was the principal guest of the evening at the dinner given in London on Wednesday night to the judges by Lord Mayor Fowler at the Mansion House. Mr. Phelps, in responding to a toast, said that he had no such claims to the hospitalities of Englishmen as his predecessor, Mr. Lowell, had established, and, therefore, the flattering reception that had been accorded him was all the more gratifying. He ascribed the warmth of his welcome to the natural and abiding love between Englishmen and Americans, which was fostered and constantly broadened and deepened by their great international intercourse. Those present and the press of the country warmly praise Mr. Phelp's speech. The *Times* says he spoke with a grace of diction and an elevation of tone that proved him fitted to fill Mr. Lowell's place, as well socially as officially. He will be the medium of bringing English and American bars and benches together in other modes than by their partnership in law-books and axioms.

The Corporation of London will present ex-President Arthur with an address and a gold casket upon his expected visit to London, and the Lord Mayor will give a reception.

Oxford University will on June 9 confer the degree of D.D. on the Rev. Phillips Brooks, of Boston.

The first part of Mr. John Ruskin's autobiography has appeared. In the preface he says: "I have written frankly and garrulously of what gives me joy to remember, passing in total silence things which give me no pleasure in reviewing. My mother's influence in moulding my character was conspicuous. She forced me to learn daily long chapters of the Bible by heart. To that discipline and patient, accurate resolve I owe not only much of my general power of taking pains, but the best part of my taste for literature."

The slander case of Charles W. Adams against Lord Coleridge has been compromised. The terms of the settlement are these: The Lord Chief Justice settles an income of £600 yearly on his daughter, Mildred, on the occasion of her marriage to Mr. Adams, and the legal disputes are to be referred to arbitration.

James Moncrieff Arnott, F.R.S., the celebrated Scotch surgeon, is dead, in his ninety-second year.

Sir Julius Benedict, the musician and composer, died in London on Friday. He was born at Stuttgart, November 27, 1804, and at an early age showed much musical talent. From 1821 to 1824 he had the benefit of Weber's exclusive instruction, and was treated by him rather as a son than as a pupil. At the age of nineteen, on Weber's recommendation, he was engaged to conduct the German operas at Vienna. His first opera was produced at Naples in 1827 and was not successful. He went to England for the first time in 1835. In 1836 he undertook the direction of Opera Buffa in London, at the Lyceum. His operetta "Un Anno ed un Giorno" was well received. After this he turned his attention to the English musical stage. "The Gypsy's Warning," his first English opera, was produced in 1838, and was a remarkable success. He visited this country in 1850 with Jenny Lind. His most popular opera, the "Lily of Killarney," was produced at Covent Garden in 1862. The oratorio "St. Peter," his last choral work, was written expressly for the Birmingham festival of 1870, and is considered by far his best composition. "Graziella," a cantata, was performed at Birmingham in 1882. Queen Victoria conferred on him the honor of knighthood on March 24, 1871. He received many other honors and decorations from European sovereigns.

By an explosion of fire-damp in a Durham (Eng.) colliery on Wednesday, twenty-two miners lost their lives.

The winner of the Derby at Epsom Downs on Wednesday was Lord Hasting's bay colt Melton. He was the favorite in the betting, and was ridden by the famous jockey Fred Archer. Captain C. Bowling's bay colt Paradox secured second place, and Mr. Childwick's bay colt Royal Hampton third place.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday resumed the discussion of the report of the Committee of the Initiative advising the rejection of the motion to impeach the entire Ferry Ministry. M. Brisson, Prime Minister, speaking for the present Government, urged the House to accept the report of the Committee. To reject the report now, on the eve of a general election, would be a useless proceeding. Such action would but reopen a discussion that could only result in dividing the Republican party. The impeachment motion was rejected by a vote of 322 to 153. The scene in the Chamber during the debate was exceedingly stormy.

The Paris *République Française*, in what seemed to be an "inspired" editorial, on Friday, said: "France demands that the equal rights of all European Powers in Egypt be recognized and secured, so that no Power shall be able to interfere alone."

It is asserted that the manuscripts left by Victor Hugo will fill ten volumes. Three of them will be prose and poetry; the others notes and letters written during his exile.

The treaty of peace between France and China was signed on Tuesday.

Letters from Saigon, the capital of French Cochin China, state that the Cambodian revolutionists against French authority have, with the King's secret support, attacked Namwang, the capital of Cambodia, and driven the European residents from the city. The refugees were sheltered on board a French ship which lay in the Me-Kong River.

A Spanish Government commission has declared Asiatic cholera epidemic in the province of Valencia.

It is asserted that there have been eleven cases of Asiatic cholera and two deaths in Madrid.

Prince Bismarck, in replying recently to a number of petitions from the Eastern Provinces of Prussia in favor of a bi-metallic standard for the coinage of money, said that the question was being studied by competent authorities, and that the Government would await their report before taking action.

The Russian Council of the Empire, at its session on Wednesday, discussed the question of an increase of the tariff. Although nothing of a definite nature was done, the general conclusion was that the increase of the duties on most of the importations should be 20 per cent.

A cyclone disastrous in its consequences struck Aden, Arabia, on Wednesday. The damage done is estimated at $250,000.

The report that Dumont, Riel's lieutenant, had been captured at Fort Assiniboine is incorrect. He has arrived at Fort Benton, Montana.

A courier arrived at Battleford on Thursday from the front. He reported that General Strange had had three engagements, in the last of which one man was killed and three wounded. Big Bear sent a flag of truce to General Middleton, but the bearer was killed by a shell. Big Bear was reported to be fleeing northward.

The news reached Winnipeg on Sunday that General Middleton had marched against Big Bear on June 4. The latter fled, dividing his men in two forces. One division, containing 300 men, was met by Captain Steele's force of police, numbering 100, and, after a severe skirmish, was routed. The Indians escaped over a large creek. General Middleton is in pursuit. A number of the prisoners with Big Bear have escaped.

THE DIPLOMATIC SERVICE.

WHATEVER may be thought about the wisdom of this country's maintaining a diplomatic system, there can be no question that, so long as it is continued, it ought to be fairly representative of the whole nation. For many years this has not been the case, since one section of the Union has practically monopolized all diplomatic places. When the Republicans went out of power last March, not only was every first-class foreign mission filled by a man from the North, but among all the sixteen envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary only two, the Ministers to Mexico and to the United States of Colombia, had been appointed from the South, while of the forty officials who filled the places of ministers-resident, chargés-d'affaires, and consuls-general, only five came from below the old Mason and Dixon's line. In other words, of the important places in the diplomatic service forty-nine were occupied by men from the North, and only seven from the South, while these seven were all second or third-rate.

The new Administration has done well to put an end to this most glaring and unjust one-sidedness. The four first-class missions were originally divided equally between the two parts of the country, the North receiving the English and German and the South the French and Russian, though the doubt as to Mr. Lawton's eligibility resulted in the last-named place also going to a Northern man. Of the twelve ministers plenipotentiary thus far appointed six are from each section, while of the nine new ministers resident six are from the North and three from the South. In all, seventy appointments of various sorts have been made in the diplomatic and consular service, of which thirty-eight have been from the North and thirty-two from the "Solid South." This almost exactly answers to the relative populations of the two sections, while the wiping out of the old sectional line rescues this branch of the Government from the reproach of representing but one part of the country.

The Blaine organs have had a great deal to say the last few weeks about the "wholesale changes" which have been made in the foreign offices, and many people have doubtless got the impression that the State Department has been demoralizing the service by indiscriminate removals. So far is this from the truth that a comparison between the early weeks of the Garfield and the Cleveland Administrations actually shows a greater number of changes, in that portion of the service which should be outside the range of American politics, during the brief period of Blaine's undisputed reign as "Premier" before Garfield's assassination, than under Bayard, although the Republican Secretary found the places already filled by adherents of his own party, while the Democratic chief could discover scarcely a representative of his party in any foreign office.

It is conceded by all fair-minded men that a new Administration is entitled to fill the chief diplomatic posts with men in hearty sympathy with its purposes. An entire change in the personnel of our foreign ministries after the 4th of March might, therefore, have been expected, and would be justifiable. As a matter of fact, however, instead of any indecent haste about such proper changes, three months after the Democrats came into control of the State Department, no less than nine of the thirty foreign missions are still to be filled by the new régime. While the justice of changes in the missions is obvious, every consideration of sound public policy dictates that the incumbents of consulates should not be ousted every time a new administration takes command at Washington. The argument against such changes is all the stronger when the new Administration is of the same political faith as its predecessor. Yet the statistics show that the Garfield Administration, whose election maintained in control the same party which had held the reins for twenty years, made more changes in the consulships than the Cleveland Administration, which restores to power a party that has scarcely had a foreign—or, for that matter, a domestic—office for a quarter of a century. Thus far only twenty-nine consuls have been appointed since Cleveland was inaugurated, while thirty-seven changes in such offices were made by Blaine during Garfield's brief Administration.

As the whole number of consulates in 1881 was only about 180, it will be seen that a full fifth of the men whom Blaine found in office appointed by Secretaries of his own party were discharged within four months for the sole purpose of paying off political debts. Anybody familiar with the names of working politicians during the years preceding 1881 will recognize at a glance the motives which dictated the appointment of nearly all the consuls whose commissions were signed between the 4th of March and the day when Garfield was shot. The purely political basis upon which foreign appointments were made—openly confessed when such a man as Kilpatrick was sent to represent the United States in Chili, and Hurlbut was allowed to bring disgrace upon the country as Minister to Peru—ruled in the changes among the consulates, hardly one of which was not for the worse.

Mr. Bayard's administration of the State Department has been by no means beyond criticism. The lack of knowledge of Italian politics displayed in choosing a man of Keiley's record as Minister at Rome was remarkable, while the notion that the ancient Court at Vienna would welcome a man whom Italy was unwilling to receive, was scarcely less so. But as a rule the foreign missions have been well filled. The average level of our representatives at London, Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg has seldom if ever been higher than it will be with Phelps, McLane, Pendleton, and Lothrop. The consul-generalships have been given to good men, with the exception of that at Melbourne, which the Administration was tricked into bestowing upon a worthless fellow by persons in whom it had a right to confide. The new consuls have been, as a rule, men qualified for their places. But the most creditable thing about Mr. Bayard's course is the deliberation and moderation which he has shown in making appointments in this branch of the service. Actions speak louder than words here, and the fact that Mr. Bayard has made fewer changes thus far than Mr. Blaine did in a corresponding period, when one considers the tremendous pressure for office upon the first Democratic Secretary of State in twenty-five years, goes far to show his fidelity to his professions in favor of civil-service reform.

Mr. Bayard, like Mr. Cleveland, appears to comprehend a fact which too many Democrats do not yet appreciate. This is the fact that the country has made a great advance during the past four years in its demands regarding the foreign service. The public will not endure now from a Democratic administration what it accepted as a necessary part of politics under the Republicans. Mr. Blaine's prompt removal of a fifth of the consuls when there had been no change in parties, is evidence that he would have made short work of the other four-fifths if he had succeeded a Secretary of the other party; but the country would not stand from Mr. Bayard in 1885 the logical completion of Mr. Blaine's work in 1881. The policy which has been pursued regarding the foreign appointments is, all things considered, a strong proof of the Administration's fidelity to the pledges upon which it secured power.

THE CIVIL SERVICE AND THE SOLDIERS.

THE passage of the bill by the Massachusetts Legislature exempting soldiers and sailors from the operation of the Civil-Service Law of that State is being used to some extent by the enemies of the reform, as an indication that the popular sentiment in its favor is not as strong as it has been supposed to be, even in States like Massachusetts. Some have been so much impressed by it as to fear that it might have some effect on President Cleveland's determination in executing the Federal Civil-Service Act. The answer to this is, that we have yet to see anywhere the success of a direct attack on the competitive system. Such attacks have been made, but they have invariably failed, and have never been led by politicians of any weight or respectability. They have usually been the work of small demagogues who find difficulty in keeping themselves before the public. In fact, there has been no more remarkable phenomenon in politics in recent years than the rapid diminution in the number of politicians of note who are willing to avow themselves enemies of the new mode of appointment and admirers of the spoils system. This need not be ascribed—in fact, we dare say that in a large number of cases it cannot be ascribed—to real change of opinion. It is, however, quite certain that, in nearly all cases, it indicates a belief that the reform is growing in favor with the voters. It is very rare nowadays to meet among politicians holders of unpopular opinions or supporters of unpopular systems. When politicians favor a thing, it is pretty certain that they think it a good thing, in the low as well as in the high sense of the term, to favor; and when they assail anything it is, as a rule, pretty certain that they do not believe it has much popular support. In other words, we should to-day have neither the Federal Civil-Service Law, nor that of either New York or Massachusetts, if legislators were not convinced that the change was called for by a growing public sentiment, and that its opponents would be punished for their opposition at the polls.

That anything has occurred to shake the

President's belief in the competitive system, we believe, and indeed we may say we know, to be untrue. On the contrary, it is right to assert that he is to-day more of a civil-service reformer than when he came into office, and more determined than ever to extend the operation of the new system, when he gets relief from the present "pressure." And one of the strongest reasons for his upholding and extending it is, that it is emphatically a popular system, that through it for the first time the Government service is thrown open to the people, and especially that portion of the people which is poor, and has no "influence," and does not "work" in politics. It gives the workingman's son, for the first time in American history, a chance to get a place under the Government without asking a favor of any great man, or even knowing a great man. It puts a check on that terrible degradation of the national character which was caused by the rapid growth of the army of political solicitors, dependents, and henchmen. Nothing is more un-American or more dangerous to free government than the existence of such a class, and it was a class which, under the spoils system, was increasing with alarming rapidity. Our Senators at Washington, as well as some members of the House, were, under it, rapidly taking the place of the Roman patricians, with a huge tribe of clients and freedmen at their heels, dependent on their favor for comfort and often for a livelihood. In fact, we were gradually building up an aristocracy only surpassed in baseness by a plutocracy. President Cleveland sees this as clearly as anybody. In other words, he is a genuine American, and, besides this, in his habits of thought is a modern business man, who hates humbug, and phrases, and disguises.

The explanation of the attempts to exempt soldiers and sailors from the operation of the civil-service rules is to be found in the exhaustion of the previous modes of capturing or placating what is called "the soldier element" in the voting population. For some years after the war this was done by imagining the existence of a body of persons who were aiming at the withdrawal of the pensions, and denouncing them vigorously in the party platforms. Nobody knew exactly who these persons were, but the soldiers and sailors were given to understand that the party managers had their eyes on them, and would at the proper time frustrate their knavish tricks. Afterward, when this device began to grow stale, the plan of increasing the number of pensioners and making pensions easier to get was resorted to, and persisted in until the present law was passed, which offers a pension to nearly everybody who has heard a shot fired in war. Under it, indeed, it is difficult for a soldier or sailor to avoid being pensioned, so that there is not much more to be done for "the soldier element" in that direction.

Under these circumstances, the passage of the civil-service acts in this State and in Massachusetts was a real godsend to those who cultivate or stand in fear of the soldiers and sailors. It promised them what was very difficult to find, something to offer to this class of voters—namely, exemption from examination as a condition of getting office. The soldiers and sailors were already, under the law, entitled to a preference in all cases of equality in answering, but this was something apparently much better—namely, relief from answering altogether. Of course a moment's reflection would show that the thing was conceived in humbug, and would do the soldiers and sailors no good in practice; but politicians do not expect their schemes to be analyzed closely by those for whose benefit they appear to be intended. On its face it would seem as if the exemption would lead to an equitable distribution of offices among those who have served in the army and navy and are dependent on their labor for a livelihood, but in reality it will do nothing of the kind. It will simply enable politicians to thrust into office that portion of the "soldier element" which "works" in politics, and likes the occupation of a "heeler" or henchman. It will, in fact, take away from the respectable and intelligent soldier the chance of entering the service which the civil-service examinations would give him, for the places he might have got will be filled by the generally worthless favorites of the politicians.

THE WINE INDUSTRY.

It is estimated that the quantity of wine produced annually in all the civilized countries of the world is 2,485,829 gallons. Of this, France produces nearly one-third. Seven years ago wine-making, owing to the ravages of the phylloxera, seemed in danger of extinction in France. To-day she has within one-fifth of as many acres of vineyards as before the plague set in. Moreover, large quantities of new land are being turned into vineyards by people who believe that the late troubles were in part due to the wearing out of the old soils. If this movement continues at the same ratio as during the last ten years, France will have next year under vine culture not simply 6,214,572 acres, as before the phylloxera plague, but probably 7,500,000 acres. It must be remembered, too, that a great increase—though perhaps not as great as this—is going on in the wine production of Italy, Spain, Austria (including Hungary), Greece, Algeria, and the United States. The consequence is, according to M. Leroy-Beaulieu, that the wine-growers are threatened with just the same kind of crisis as that through which the corn and wheat-growers of the Old World are passing—that is, they are in danger of finding more wine on their hands than they can sell, while the cost of growing vines has in France greatly increased, owing to the precautions which have now to be taken against insects and disease. A large number of wine growers in France have taken the most radical, but the most expensive precaution of all, that of planting American vines instead of the French—the American being the only one which has thus far shown ability to defy the phylloxera without artificial aids. There were about 125,000 acres planted with American vines in 1884. Next year it is thought there will be 250,000 acres; but this means a great outlay of capital.

Great efforts were made in Italy, Spain, and Greece, while France was suffering from the phylloxera, to take her place in the wine markets of the world, which the French endeavored to resist by importing foreign wines, especially those of Spain and Italy, and reëxporting them as French wines. But they suffered seriously in the struggle, and undoubtedly would permanently lose ground if their foreign rivals were not themselves beginning to experience the French plagues. The phylloxera has transferred itself to Spain and Italy and Portugal, so that the production of wine in these countries is not likely to increase in the old ratio. M. Leroy-Beaulieu is not afraid of any very rapid increase in this country, because, he says, "Americans cannot be taught to drink wine."

The greatest enemy of the French wine-grower now, however, is, according to him, the foreign falsifier and adulterator. He gives a most dolorous account of the very flourishing manufacture of French wines which goes on in Hamburg, where German wine dealers advertise and sell large quantities of Lafitte, Latour, Margaux, and indeed all the finer brands of French wine, made out of German red wines at ridiculously low prices. They sell, for instance, a cask of Château Lafitte which, if genuine, would cost in France $400, for $26. But the truth is, that it is the French themselves who have taught foreigners the art of counterfeiting wine, and it is poetic justice that they themselves should suffer from it. There is at Cette one of the greatest wine factories in the world, where with the coarse Roussillon wines as a basis, any wine you call for is got up, and sold dirt cheap. During the years, too, of the phylloxera plague the adulterating industry was carried on in France on an enormous scale. The exports of every variety of French wine continued to be as large as ever, and there was no rise in price. But the importations from Italy, Hungary, and Spain were as large as the exports, and these were doctored by the French themselves into any brand of French wine for which there was a demand.

It is not, however, at all likely that the wine growers of Europe will ever have to contend with the kind of glut from which the wheat growers and cotton manufacturers are now suffering. The consumption of wine by the population of civilized countries is exceedingly small as compared with their consuming capacity, and the amount of wine a man can dispose of is, unhappily, not nearly as well marked as the amount of clothing and food he can use. The consumers of whiskey and brandy, whose number is enormous both in this country and Europe, offer a new field to the enterprise of the wine grower such as no other manufacturer has within reach. In fact, his greatest enemy is the temperance reformer, but he is not wholly an enemy, for there are few temperance advocates who are not willing to compromise with the whiskey drinker on claret or hock. Beer is the most powerful competitor that wine has to contend with, and has invaded even the French market very seriously. Which will get the upper hand as a popular cheap drink in this as well as some European countries, is still doubtful.

"THE DESECRATION OF THE SABBATH."

The Chamber of Commerce last week discussed and passed Mr. Dodge's excellent resolution advising its members to adopt in their

business the custom of closing on Saturday at 1 o'clock from June 1st till September, which has been so successful in England. Mr. Jesup supported it on the ground that it disposed of or neutralized the argument in favor of opening the libraries and museums on Sunday, that the clerks have no other day on which they can visit them. But this argument is, after all, not by any means the principal one. The chief one is that the views of a small minority of the Christian world as to what constitutes "desecration of the Sabbath" ought not to prevail in the management of public institutions, and that the clerks and workingmen are, or ought to be, in the matter of Sabbath-keeping, sole judges of their duty. In other words, every man should consult his own conscience in making his choice among different modes—in themselves harmless—of passing the first day of the week, and should not have his choice restricted by the workings of other men's consciences.

The law which forbids ordinary and unnecessary labor on Sunday is really a sanitary regulation, beneficial to health, and through the health to the morals of the community. But all attempts, direct or indirect, either by legislation or otherwise, to control the choice of adults as regards innocent modes of spending Sunday are mischievous in the extreme. In the first place, they prejudice workingmen against the whole class to which Mr. Jesup belongs—that is, the class which believes in passing Sunday in the old Puritan way, in religious exercises or religious meditation, and in abstinence from all amusement or recreation, and they thus lessen the influence and authority of this class on other matters. This we hold to be a real misfortune, because there is no more useful, self-sacrificing, and public-spirited class in the community. We are largely indebted to it for nearly everything the city possesses in the way of libraries and museums, as well as other good things, and it is, therefore, a public misfortune to have the ears of the masses closed against its advice in general, because its advice in one particular savors of intolerance or spiritual arrogance. No sober, intelligent, and industrious workingman or clerk—that is, no man whose tastes and intelligence make him desire to pass his Sunday in a museum or library—likes to be told by Mr. Jesup or Mr. Prime that he does not know how to pass his Sunday, that he needs restraint to prevent his passing it improperly or wrongly. There are very few who will not resent it, and, in consequence of it, become slower to listen to these gentlemen in matters on which their authority is unquestionably high. In fact, it is in our day hopeless to try to put restrictions on freedom of conscience as to the mode of passing Sunday, any more than as to the obligation of going to church. Men will have their liberty in both, and the wise course for those who love the old Puritan Sabbath is to recommend it as much as possible through their own tolerance, and charity, and example, and impose it as little as possible on others through rules and regulations.

We must remember, too, that what Mr. Jesup and other good men consider "desecration of the Sabbath" is not so considered by the great majority of the Christian world. Protestants of Continental Europe have never held his view. The way people look at the Sabbath, like the way they look at so many other things, seems to depend largely on education and custom. The late Count Gasparin, as spiritually minded and religious a man as ever breathed, shortly before his death, talking with an American friend about President Lincoln, expressed in strong terms his sense of the pain it caused him that Mr. Lincoln should have been at the theatre when he was killed, but not because, like so many religious people in America, he objected to theatre-going. It was because Lincoln went on the evening of Good Friday, a day which Continental Calvinists "keep" with great solemnity, but to which an American Presbyterian pays no attention whatever. Count Gasparin, on the other hand, would not have had the smallest objection to taking a ride, or visiting a library or museum, on Sunday, or going to a public promenade after church hours. A New England divine of considerable eminence has told us of the surprise, and at the same time of the profitable lesson in tolerance and charity, which he received when he first went to Berlin and delivered his letter of introduction to a leading German theologian, whose learning and piety he had long admired. It was on Saturday when he called, and he did not find the theologian at home, but he got a note from him the same evening making an appointment with him on Sunday in a well-known beer garden, where they met accordingly and had a most edifying talk across the mugs of beer and tobacco smoke.

The danger there is for some minds in trying to apply the letter of the Bible to the solution of modern social problems was well illustrated in the opposition to Mr. Dodge's resolution by Mr. Isaac Phillips, who held that the proposed half-holiday would be wrong, because the commandment says, "Six days shalt thou labor." He had in fact discovered in the Commandment which only binds Mr. Jesup to pass Sunday in religious exercises and in abstinence from mundane pleasures, a positive prohibition of any other holiday or half-holiday. So that, according to the Phillips theory, breaking off work on Saturday would be as much a "desecration" of that day as working on Sunday would be of the Sabbath. People are best saved from these vagaries by asking themselves, when any change in social usage is proposed, whether it will make men and women healthier, happier, more refined in their pleasures, higher in their standards and ideals of life, and wider in their mental horizon. If they satisfy themselves on this point, they may feel well assured they have got nearer to God's will in the matter than ninety-nine out of one hundred of them can ever get by trying feats of hermeneutics on the Bible.

UNSURPASSED ENGLISH.

A MEMOIR of Onoocool Chunder Moorkerjee, who died in 1871, one of the judges of the "High Court" of India—its highest tribunal—was published at Calcutta, shortly after his death, by a nephew. A copy of the third edition, issued last year, has come into our hands, and we greatly regret that we cannot give it *in toto* (as the author would say) in these columns. But such space as we can afford we gladly devote to the most remarkable passages of this verbatim reprint, though the preface states that "the first edition of this humble and unassuming treatise was assailed on all sides by native and European papers." For our part, we find it highly amusing and interesting.

The subject of this little volume was unmistakably a really admirable man, who, "by dint of wide energy and perseverance, erected a vantage ground above the common level of his countrymen—nay, stood with the rare, barring few on the same level with him, and sat arrayed in majestic glory, viewing with unparalleled and mute rapture his friends and admirers lifting up their hands with heartfelt glee and laudation for his success in life." "His father died when he was very young, and the large estate which he had bequeathed to his children was gradually squandered away by his eldest brother in unfortunate blind bargains and speculations. The family was threatened with Barmecide feast. . . . Onoocool Chunder was pressed by his mother to search for an employment. . . . 'All love the womb that their first beings bred,' and Justice Moorkerjee was not out of the pale of it." And his nephew, enlarging on this topic, after some rather surprising remarks on childbearing, reminds us that "there cannot be a greater instance of self-denial than a mother endures during the whole existence of her offspring. Nothing in the world can make her facetious when her child is not so, and nothing in the world can make her lugubrious when her child is not so. . . . Ergo, on the contrary, a mother is loved and respected in every age."

Ergo, on the contrary, "the late Hon'ble Moorkerjee could no longer sit at home"; he "saw that an effort was necessary, and an effort he did make." He applied for a "Nazirship," and served for five years under three successive magistrates, each of whom, "as he left the magistracy, gave him a certificate testifying to the excellence of his character and his *cui bono* in the post he held." Meantime an English judge became acquainted with him and interested in him, and advised that he should "be nurtured for the bar"; and "Onoocool Chunder began to study law, for none can be great *Impromtu!*" And in 1855, when he was twenty six years old, he joined the bar of the Sudder Court. "It is impossible to describe the oblactation with which he contemplated this change in his position." "His first business, on making an income, was to extricate his family from the difficulties in which it had lately been enwrapped, and to restore happiness and sunshine to those sweet and well-beloved faces on which he had not seen the soft and fascinating beams of a simper for many a grim-visaged year."

In 1869 a discussion arose between Mr. Moorkerjee, who was what, in Indian parlance, is called a "Pleader," and a Mr. Mone Mahone Ghose, a barrister "fresh from England," on a point which had never been raised before, namely, the Pleader's right, when engaged conjointly in a case, to have precedence over the barrister in arguing the case, if he (the Pleader) were the best prepared and the senior. The judges before whom the question was brought gave decision in favor of the barristers.

"Justice Moorkerjee [he was not "Justice" till two years afterward] was now stung to the quick for the first time of his life, and returned to his chamber malcontent. On the next day he received a letter from the Chief Justice (Sir Barnes Peacock) asking him to become Advocate of the High Court. He thought that if he accepted the offer, he, being senior to many barristers, would have the pre-audience to many; but, on the other hand, he would thereby leave to go to wreck his hope of becoming a Judge, and would also leave his brother Pleaders to opprobrium. Accordingly, he held a meeting in the bar-library for determining whether he should accept the offer. After a heated discussion, all the pleaders *una voce* said 'No!' And the Hon'ble Moorkerjee did nill the offer politely."

A few weeks after this incident his eldest

brother died, and "now Hon'ble Moorkerjee was once again thrown into the peck of troubles." In the same summer he "was attacked with a doloriferous boil"; but in the autumn he "felt himself much emendatory in his health." The next year he was offered and accepted a seat in the Legislative Council of Bengal. "This was the first time (and in the case of the Hon'ble Moorkerjee) that we see a Pleader of the High Court taking a seat in the Bengal Legislative Council, solely by the dint of his own legal weapon, and he was an *au fait*, and therefore undoubtedly a transcendental lucre to the Council. . . . The selection in Justice Moorkerjee was most judicious and tip-top." But within the year he resigned his seat in the Council to accept a seat on the Bench.

"This was a *desideratum* to him. The hope which he so long hatched at last yielded him what he hankered after, and in seven-league boots, 'True hope is swift and flies with swallows' wings'; and he might have justly said: Veni, vidi, vici! The law study to which he had devoted so long his midnight hours, with indefatigable ardour and the zeal of a martyr, yielded him fruits most sacchariferous and wished for, *position*, *respect*, and *wealth*. . . . His elevation created a catholic ravishment throughout the dominion under the benign and fostering sceptre of great Albian."

He had, however, but short enjoyment of his success. Within eight months, one day after delivering a judgment in court, "he felt a slight headache, which gradually aggravated and became so uncontrollable that he left like a toad under a harrow"; and sent

"to inform or apprize Justice Jackson with whom he was sitting on the same Bench of his indisposition, which will cause him to be absent from the Bench for that day,—and who knew to EVERNESS! . . . All the well-known doctors of Calcutta . . . did what they could do, with their puissance and knack of medical knowledge, but it proved after all as if to milk the ram! His wife and children had not the mournful consolation to hear his last words, he remained *sotto voce* for a few hours and then went to God at about 6 P. M. The doctors all . . . [were] with tears in their eyes, [we must, most regretfully, greatly abridge] . . . his wife . . . shrieked bitterly, . . . his children did *fondre en larmes*, . . . his friends . . . departed broken-hearted, . . . his servants cried out. . . . The house presented a second Babel or a pretty kettle of fish."

But it is not merely mirth that these pages excite when read unbrokenly. There is a very touching short conversation reported in this comical style, which the Judge had with a friend after his seizure, reminding him, "I have told you about fifteen days ago that my time was very near to its close, and my father went to reside with the morning stars at about this age of mine." And the whole impression of his life is most agreeable. "He was a faithful Hindoo," and "the Hon'ble Moorkerjee did bleed freely, but he was not a leviathan on the ocean of liberality; . . . the mode of assignment of his charities was to such men as we truly wish and recommend and exsuscitate enthusiastically. He used to give monthly something to . . . many relicts who had no hobbardy-hoy even to support them, and had no other source of sustenance left to them by their consort." Among other details of his personal appearance our author says:

"When a boy he was filamentous; but gradually he became plump as a partridge. . . . His dress was unaffected—he used to wear *Dhootee* and *Chadur* on all occasions except when going to court, office, or to see any European gentleman, or attending any European party. And even on going to see a *Nautch* or something of the like I have never seen him in a dress fine as a carrot fresh scraped, but *esto perpetuum* in Pantaloon and in satin or broad-cloth Chapkan, with a Toopee well quadrate to the dress."

We can easily believe and understand that "when the Hon'ble Onoocool Chunder Moorkerjee left this earth all wept for him, and whole Bengal was in lachrymation—and more I shall say, that even the learned Judges of the High Court heaved sighs and closed it on its Appellate and Original Sides."

BRITISH HOME POLITICS.

LONDON, May 25.

IN England, a registration bill comes after a franchise bill as naturally as plum pudding after roast beef. We have an excessively complicated and cumbrous system of registering voters, which is always needing to be cobbled up after a change in the franchise and the constituencies; and on this occasion there was the more need for a measure because the ordinary process of registration has to be quickened in order that a general election may be held before the end of the present year. Nothing less interesting than a registration bill can well be imagined; it is full of details which hardly anybody understands, and in which even a draftsman can find no pleasure. But three discussions arose upon this bill which were so instructive, so indicative of features in our present political condition and prospects, that I cannot do better than present some account of them. It is not always in the large questions, the great party debates, that we find the best illustrations of the tendencies that are beginning to move men's minds, and destined before long to show an irresistible force.

The first of these debates turned on a very trivial question, whether undergraduates in the universities who have reached the age of twenty-one should be permitted to vote at Parliamentary elections. A clause in the Reform Act of 1832 declared, as respects England, that the occupation of rooms in a college should not confer a vote. No such prohibition existed in Ireland, and accordingly there the occupants of rooms in Trinity College, Dublin, both graduates and undergraduates, voted in respect of their rooms. As they nearly all voted against the Parnellite party, the latter determined to take this opportunity of disfranchising the undergraduates, and moved an amendment to that effect in the Irish Registration Bill. This amendment was lost, whereupon they moved, in the English Registration Bill, which came on later, the repeal of the clause above mentioned in the Act of 1832, alleging that since Irish college residents were to have votes, English college residents ought to have votes also. The Government at first opposed the proposal, but finding it advocated by their Liberal supporters, who wished the graduates resident in colleges to have votes, and by the Tories, they gave way, and the clause was struck out. A further amendment was then proposed, by some of the Liberals connected with Oxford and Cambridge, to exclude undergraduates from this enfranchisement, on the ground that they had really, as being mere birds of passage, no connection with the boroughs of Oxford and Cambridge, and that to give them votes would interfere with the discipline of those universities, whose authorities exercise the right of forbidding their students to attend any political meetings in the town, on the ground of the disorders which might ensue. This view was supported by a resolution of the Council of the University of Oxford, which strongly objected to bringing the undergraduates into local politics. The Government intimated their view that undergraduates ought not to have votes; but the Tory Opposition, who counted on the votes of the undergraduates to carry the seats in the towns of Oxford and Cambridge for their party, fought the point with the greatest warmth, and received help from many Liberals, who declared that the more people receive the vote the better, and that it was ridiculous to exclude undergraduates from the franchise when agricultural laborers were being admitted. However, the advocates of exclusion carried it by a small majority, but when the contest was renewed on the Irish Bill, which had now come up in a later stage, they were defeated, and the Dublin undergraduates confirmed in their suffrage. When the English bill went to the House of Lords, the Tory party seized their opportunity and struck out the clause which disfranchised undergraduates; Lord Salisbury, who is himself Chancellor of the University of Oxford, going out of his way to sneer at the University dignitaries, who seemed so incapable of maintaining discipline that they could not trust their undergraduates with the suffrage. The House of Commons acquiesced, feeling that the anomaly of giving the franchise in Ireland and withholding it in England could not well be defended.

Whether the English undergraduates will, after all, obtain votes, is doubtful, because they are not really legal tenants of their rooms in the ordinary sense of the word, but are merely permitted by the colleges to occupy them during term time. But the interest of these skirmishes lies first in the revelation of the heat of party spirit, which caused so small a matter to be discussed at such an expenditure of time—it is plain that if the Redistribution Bill had not been settled as a compromise, the battles over it might have filled two sessions—and, second, in the strength of the notion that electoral privileges ought to be extended as widely as possible, and it was a sort of wrong to debar any one from them. This is really a new idea in England, for till the recent agitation began, it was only the advanced Radical party that cared for extending the franchise, and the progress which the idea has made seems to show that we have by no means reached the bottom, but may go on to manhood and universal suffrage. It is in the same abstract notion that all citizens have a right to vote, much more than in any expectation of good results to follow, that the strength of the Women's Suffrage party lies; and the power of such abstract notions is a comparatively new thing in the ruling classes of England.

The second question related to the disqualification from voting which our electoral laws have hitherto imposed upon persons in receipt of parochial relief from the poor-rates. Such a disqualification was absolutely necessary, not only because it tends to repress pauperism, but also because the vote of a pauper could not be a free vote, since those who dispense relief might control him in his exercise of his rights. And this disqualification extends not only to relief given in money, or in articles of food or clothing, but also to medical assistance—*i. e.*, medical advice and medicine. The number of persons excluded from the suffrage by such medical relief has been heretofore small, because in the cities there exist public hospitals and dispensaries supported by endowments or subscriptions, where the poor can get advice or drugs, while in the rural districts the poor have not had the suffrage at all. Now, however, that they are to obtain it under the Franchise Bill, the question becomes important, for a good many will doubtless be debarred from its exercise by having received the attendance of the parish doctor. Hence it was proposed to abolish this disqualification so far as related to medical relief, on the ground that as no one will break his leg or catch a fever in order to get help from the parish, there is no danger of inducing people to become a burden to the parish by removing the penalties attached to the receipt of this kind of relief.

Forty-five years ago, shortly after the passing of the New Poor Law, as it used to be called, the party of economic reform was the Whig party. It was they who had carried that great measure; it was they who defended it against the assaults of the Tories. They were the rigid scientists in

economic matters, and the Tories the humanitarians. Now, however, the generation of strict economists has all but died out. Other matters have filled the public mind, and the Liberal party has become very largely a party of sentimentalists and sentimentalism. There is no more economic science among the Tories than in old days, but there is certainly far less among the Liberals, as any one may perceive who reads the oft-recurring debates on the modes of applying charitable endowments. In this instance the movement to remove the restriction came from the Liberal side, and was supported by the vast majority of that party: some because they thought it bore hardly on the poor, some because they believed it would destroy many county votes that would otherwise have gone to Liberal candidates. The Tories defended the restriction mostly for the same reason that the Liberals sought to remove it—because they expected a party gain from it; but a few, conspicuous among whom was Mr. Albert Pell, the most experienced and successful local administrator of the Poor Law who sits in the House of Commons, were no doubt moved by their sense of the danger of weakening any barrier against the increase of pauperism. The Ministry declared themselves in favor of the existing law, but fought the point so languidly that when it was raised in committee they obtained only a small majority, and when it came up again in the stage of Report, they were beaten, nearly the whole of their usual supporters and a section of the Tories voting against them. The House of Lords replaced the disqualification in the bill, and the Commons, at the instance of the Ministry, somewhat sullenly acquiesced; so the law remains unchanged, and medical relief will disqualify a voter. But the tone of the debate was significant. The economic arguments urged by Mr. Pell fell on heedless ears. To both parties the question presented itself only as one of party advantage, or as of a hardship on the poor which it was unkindly and ungracious to perpetuate. "Why," said a Tory alderman—"why shouldn't the poor laborer have the parish doctor to look after him? His lot is a hard one, and you will make it harder if you force him to choose between going without the doctor and losing his vote." This "common-sense view" of the matter commended itself to politicians on both sides, who, now that they have bestowed electoral power on the laborer, shrink from the unpopularity of seeming to take back any portion of the gift. It is plain that we are destined to move further and further in the direction of State Socialism, and away from those strict economic doctrines which the Whigs of fifty years ago revered as another Magna Charta.

The third contested point in the Registration Bill related to the payment of the expenses of registration. The Tory party, which finds its chief support among county members, has for some years past complained of the pressure of local rates upon real property, and sought to shift various local burdens on to the national exchequer. An opportunity arose on this bill, at which they jumped, of throwing registration charges on the exchequer instead of, as heretofore, on the local rates; and as they had the Liberal county members with them, the position of the Ministry was perilous. To avoid defeat, Mr. Gladstone was obliged not only to declare that the Government would resign if they were beaten, but also to bend to the storm by offering a grant from the Treasury in aid of the local rates for the present year, when the registration charges will be exceptionally heavy. By this concession he escaped defeat, but added one more to his previous pledges that the first business of next session will be to reconstruct our whole system of local government, and revise our whole system of local taxation. As the Tories insist that land is now taxed too heavily, and the Liberals that it is taxed too lightly, there are materials here for an angry conflict. It is one which will test, and perhaps finally decide, the balance of power in England between the landed gentry and the industrial classes.

Y.

THE GROSVENOR GALLERY EXHIBITION.

LONDON, May 28.

THE Grosvenor Gallery serves the art world not merely as another on the list of exhibitions to receive the pictures which overflow from the Royal Academy, but as the favorite field of certain painters who have not the latitude or consideration at the Academy which that institution gives to its own members, as well as for certain kinds of art which do not show to their full advantage among the exaggerations and intensities which dominate there. It is a small exhibition, comprising only 418 numbers, including water-colors, and a few busts, etc.; and what has the good fortune to be admitted is treated on a different system from the commercial Academy, to which the Grosvenor bears the relation that a gentleman's drawing-room bears to the reception-room of a huge hotel. The pictures are more carefully placed, and are not hung so near the stars as to be practically out of the art world, as many are at the older institution; and they are visited by a far more select public than that of the Academy, where during the season it is impossible, except at certain hours the most unfashionable, to see the pictures to any advantage.

Thus the Grosvenor has a prestige quite its own, a prestige due certainly to the proprietor's being a gentleman to whom art has an intellectual value, and to whom the exhibition is a possession, looked at, as a work of art ought to be, not as so many pounds sterling, but as an agent of culture. This leads to the welcoming to its hospitality of many forms of art which the Academy turns the cold shoulder to, or which avoid the Academy as too huge, too indiscriminate, and too shoppy for them to expect a fair appreciation. Here one sees Burne Jones sometimes, and the school which sympathizes with his aims and those of Rossetti and Watts—the school of art for art's sake, which comprises here Stanhope, Strudwick, Crane, Mrs. Stillman, Miss Pickering, Albert Moore, etc. This year the Grosvenor shows in extraordinary force the productions of a young man whose work I do not recall in the exhibitions of the years when I knew English exhibitions—Mr. W. B. Richmond, who contributes nothing to the Academy, but whose power is such that it may well be that he shall take the first place in English art, subject only to the alternative of Mr. Watts. His chief picture, "An Audience in Athens during the Representation of the Agamemnon," is certainly the great picture of the year, not only for its intellectual power, but for the mastery of technical resources and the triumph over the greatest difficulties in art. It represents the audience of a Greek theatre looking at the play which is going on out of the picture, no other element of the tragedy appearing on the canvas than the varied emotions in the audience. There is none of the affectation of archæological exactitude which hampers the freedom of design in many pictures of this class, and the theatre, instead of being put under the south slope of the Acropolis Hill, where the play was really performed, is put far down on the road toward Eleusis; the Acropolis, seen at a distance in the east, glowing with the light of the sinking sun, the Theseum at the left, and the Hill of the Nymphs showing at the extreme right. To have attempted the Theatre of Bacchus as an actual scene would have necessitated the immense audience of that huge structure, and made the picture a spectacular affair, in which any study of individual character would have been lost, and the opportunity of introducing an outside world, glowing in rosy, peaceful light, which adds so immensely to the tragic effect of the horror in the faces of the audience under the shadow of the velarium, would have been thrown away. It is only a small theatre, constructed for Mr. Richmond's special use, and even only a small sector of the semicircle, which is shown. The composition of the picture and the needs of the painter have been consulted to the complete disregard of the science of archæology. There is no affectation of detail or archæological research. A colonnade of Ionic columns surrounds the theatre and bears the velarium, which throws the audience into complete shadow; only a few straggling rays of sunshine, coming through crevices or rents in the shelter, emphasize the shadow. The marble of the seats is just recognizable as marble. The landscape seen through the interspaces of the columns is simply and broadly painted, and the draperies, though carefully studied, and disposed with the dignity which befits our modern conceptions of an Athenian audience, do not catch the eye as stuffs. No tendency is there in any part to the extreme realization of mere accessories, which is so commonly regarded now as the triumph of art, and which is the most deadly enemy of every form of ideal art; but the fullest force of the painter is given to the faces of the audience, each one of which is a study of expression, and the ensemble is a masterpiece of dramatic power. The moment chosen is evidently the crisis of the tragedy. The spectators, not a huddle of populace, but a chosen assemblage of judges rather, show each in his own way the instant's horror. One has caught his chin in his hand; one, wide-eyed, half rises from his seat; another clutches the arm of his seat with a nervous grip, and every face is a mirror of the catastrophe. I do not know anything in the vein of archæological restoration in art so entirely in the right classical form, and so true to the inspiration of Greek art, as this picture. It is useless to attempt to describe it more in detail—one could only do so by cataloguing the heads and assigning each its quality of expression.

In writing of the Academy I had put Mr. Ouless at the head of English portrait painters, because I had seen none of Richmond's portraits; but there are eight of them in this exhibition, and several of these are of a quality which puts any competitor in English art quite out of the comparison, either for grasp of character in subtlety or in variety, or for technical power. There is none of the gratuitous display of physical energy which injures so much the work of Millais, Herkomer, and the Academy portraitists generally, and on which I animadverted in my Academy letter; but a simple, subtle, and varied treatment in the vein rather of Mr. Watts than of any other painter. The portrait of Andrew Lang, half-length, in a most characteristic and happy attitude, is considered by those who know the original to be a singularly fine portrait, and is really more like a Velasquez than any of the intentional imitations of that master which affect his brush and show none of the brain power which lay behind it. Certainly Mr. Richmond (if I may take a judgment from so partial and short experience of his art as shown in these varied and individual portraits—scarcely even recognizable as the work of a single painter—and the ideal work which he contributes) seems to me the man destined to be the great English master of the generation succeeding Mr. Watts. In comparison with Millais he suffers in no serious quality, for though Millais is the more vigorous in execution, he is generally ostentatiously so,

which means vulgarity; and in this, Herkomer leads him a hard race, the lesser men, except Ouless, coming in *haud passibus æquis*, while Richmond has absolutely no affectation of any kind. His drawing is simple and inclined to the severe, his painting facile and varied in resource, and his perception of character singularly profound, and in this respect only the portraits of Mr. Watts among English painters of to-day can compare favorably with his.

Holman Hunt has a character-bust, "The Bride of Bethlehem," a contemporary Jewess, in the paraphernalia of her class—I suppose, correctly rendered, for Mr. Hunt has studied the details of Palestine life long enough to be at least accurate in them; but his picture—a life-size—is certainly one of the most disagreeable crudities I have ever seen. Opalescent, with dabs of all the tints that enter into flesh color—pink, and rose, and blue, and purple—laid on over a white ground, and of a garish intensity which could only be rendered into harmony by a sort of zoetrope motion—it is not art, this, but a mere fad; an eccentricity which seeks its market as such. It is always something in the estimation of the English public that a painter is eccentric, and this merit Holman Hunt certainly has; but his quest for a style has gone too far afield here for lovers of pure art or of common-sense nature-painting.

A sensational success, in the popular estimation, is a "Hypatia," by Mr. C. W. Mitchell, a new man and a student of Paris. It represents the martyr as she takes refuge at the altar—nude and gathering her hair around her to hide her nudity. It is a life-size study of a model, with admirable drawing, the foreshortening of one of the legs being most remarkable; but the attitude is strained and the conception theatrical. The type of figure is of the grisette order, without the least idealization, and the expression of fright in the face is rather that of a woman who is afraid of being pelted with rotten eggs than menaced with an awful death. It shows a thorough appreciation of what the French school can teach, but artistic and intellectual aims of a low order. It is one of the nudities as to which the English public is just now greatly excited, owing to the ridiculous protests against all nude *female* figures which the usual prude of exhibition season raises. It is not one of the salacious worse-than-nudities which the public winks at, but a negative Academic study, which could only excite the enthusiasm it has evoked in a country where good drawing was rare and the higher qualities of art little cared for.

Stanhope has a "Birth of Venus" of the antagonistic tendency, and which, while even more completely nude than Mitchell's "Hypatia," is so severe, so pure in its drawing, and so purely ideal in color, that no one could for a moment, be she ever so much a prude, find herself embarrassed by a crowd of such nudities. The whole question involved in the voluminous correspondence which has been running on in the *Times* for some weeks, and in which prudery has been at blows with art, lies in a nutshell. When art has for its object mere realization of the nude human figure, and especially of those types of it which provoke erotic feeling, it is difficult, if not impossible, to escape sensuality of motive; while when idealism of form and color—or even form alone, as in the Greek sculpture, or color alone, as in Venetian painting—is the study of the artist, it is very difficult to do anything which shall excite pruriency or deserve the denunciation of the moralist. Those who are disposed to revolt against Stanhope's "Venus" or Watts's "Love and Life," of which a duplicate hangs opposite the "Hypatia," should never go into a picture gallery, for they are not able to profit by the study of art.

There are two portraits of Robert Browning—one by his son, not at all flattering, and not at all commendatory of the artist's skill. It seems to indicate a flimsy style and poor draughtsmanship, and the likeness is not at all good; while that by Mr. Lehmann, its pendant, is merely a show of the society Browning—very like, but a most irritating likeness, with all the special character of Browning gone. Of the two, it seems to me the portrait of the son is the more valuable; but as painting it does not justify the hopes which he inspired years ago.

Alma-Tadema sends a charming little picture, not at all archæological but classical, of a girl waiting on a marble terrace for her lover's bark coming across a bay. But even here the painting of the marble is so much better than any other thing in the picture that it becomes a fault.

There are some American contributions in the Grosvenor, which I shall notice with others elsewhere exhibited. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

CHARLES EGBERT CRADDOCK'S DIALECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When, about two years ago, I read for the first time a story from "Charles Egbert Craddock" in the *Atlantic Monthly*, I felt that I had discovered a new writer, and immediately commenced a search through the back numbers of the magazine for more stories of the same kind. I was almost ashamed at first to ask about the author, through fear of exposing my own ignorance; for I supposed that one who wrote so charmingly must, of course, be well known. I hoped the author might prove to be a Southerner, one of a brilliant trio whose mission it was to depict those peculiar phases of Southern life that had so long waited in vain for an interpreter; and wished to find in him an added proof that we are, as I have for some time fondly believed, on the eve of a literary era in the South. But one thing troubled me. The dialect, while on the whole well rendered, seemed to me in some respects inaccurate, and to err in just those little points where one "to the manner born" would instinctively go right. I made a close study of the language of the stories, and reluctantly fell upon the hypothesis that the author was a Northern person who had spent perhaps many years in the South. I questioned, moreover, every one of my acquaintance who had lived in the Cumberland or Smoky Mountains, and found my criticism of the dialect sustained in nearly every instance, though every one agreed with me in my enthusiasm for the stories themselves. The fact that the newspapers began to publish Mr. W. L. Murfree, of St. Louis, formerly of Tennessee, as the author, did not shake my theory at first, for I felt that the dialect was sufficient proof to the contrary. But a phrase which the author used in his own name in 'The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains' had of itself, before Miss Murfree declared herself, almost convinced me that I was wrong. It was this: "a wagon body inverted, with a heavy *rock* upon it." I knew that a Northern, even a Western, writer of the grade of Craddock would have said "stone." I am rejoiced that my theory was wrong, that Miss Murfree is a Southerner; but my objections to the dialect remain.

There is, for instance, I believe, no place in the South, mountain or valley, where *ez* (as) is used for the relative *that*. Joel Chandler Harris, who renders the dialects of the South more accurately than any other writer, never allows this usage. He makes, for instance, Uncle Jake Norris, in 'At Teague Poteet's,' say: "I'm sorter like the gray colt *that* tried to climb in the shuck-pen—weak but willin'." Not "*chil'ren*" but *childern* or *chillern* is Southern dialect; so not "*hefted* the sledge," but "histed" or "raised," not "ef Vander air *lef' be*," but "*let* be" or "*let* alone." The rustic says not an *ox* but an *oxen; beastis* in the plural, but not in the singular; *you-uns* for several persons, perhaps even for one, but never *you-un;* not "*sodden* with drink," nor "stood in *amaze*"—rather *amazement* or *'miration*. Both *sodden* and *amaze* belong to Miss Murfree's own vocabulary, as may be seen by comparing, for instance, pages 9 and 18 of 'Where the Battle was Fought.' Further, in the mountaineer's dialect it would be not "*pretty*," but *putty* or *purty* (J. C. Harris); not "*fund*" but *foun'*; not that a horse "cast a shoe," but *los'* or *drapt*. *Differ* is with him not a noun, as "Vander tells a differ," "Live stock air a differ"; and the mountaineer's phrase, as, indeed, anybody's, is not "'twarn't *much shakes* of a calf," but "*no great* shakes"—compare Carlyle's "Will Douglas, *no great shakes* at metre"; and he says not "*get* the blame *shet o'* the idjit," but "get the idjit shet o' the blame."

I feel sure no mountaineer would understand what it is to "get a good *hank* on his knack for new notions"; and if he guessed the meaning of "this wild *junketing* after governors and sech through all the valley country," it would be from the connection and not from any acquaintance with the word junketing. I do not believe that one would hear anywhere in the South such a phrase as "Vander Price *her kem* ter be mighty *difficult*," but has come to be mighty *bigity* or *stuck-up;* so, also, not "a mighty *suddint* man," but mighty *quick* or *techy*. Moreover, *comical* (queer, strange), which is heard in Virginia, does not belong to the Tennessee mountain dialect any more than "*evil* one," "*evil* doer," or "*evil* man." A letter in the *Nation* recently pointed out, among other things, the incorrect use of "*harnt*" for *ha'nt*, and "*stiddier*" for *stid o'*.

The dialect of mountaineers is usually very limited, it is true, but there are still many quaint words and phrases current among this people which Miss Murfree does not use. Best of all, there are often, no doubt generally, good old usages which survive in these remote districts. It would be a pity if one who has certainly found the secret by which to interpret the long-hidden life of these people should not thoroughly master the dialect and preserve it in this most readable form, thus earning the gratitude of the philologist as well as of the general reader. It would be unfortunate if what is so well done should not be still better done.

With Joel Chandler Harris the dialect is more accurately rendered, but the mountains and mountain life are a sealed book to him compared with what Miss Murfree reads there. She is unequalled in depicting the mountain scenery of this region, but her mountaineers are hardly less picturesque than her mountains; and underneath their rough exterior she shows us sometimes a moral grandeur so high and so pure that we are ready to say with her: "The grace of culture is, in its way, a fine thing, but the best that art can do—the polish of a gentleman—is hardly equal to the best that Nature can do in her higher moods." Charles Forster Smith.

Vanderbilt University.

WAGNER AND VERDI IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of the 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' part 20 (*Nation*, 1036), you use, I think, much too weak a word when, in commenting on the article on Verdi, you say:

"In Germany . . . Wagner, Meyerbeer, Mozart, Lortzing, and Weber *outrank* Verdi in popularity." I have resided in Leipzig a little more than eight months. The high order of excellence in the operatic performances in the Leipzig City Theatre requires no comment. During the past eight months Wagner has been given 21 times, Mozart 12, Lortzing 8, Beethoven's "Fidelio" 4, Meyerbeer 3, Rossini 2, Cherubini 2, and Verdi only *once* ("Aida"). Furthermore, I have kept track with some regularity of the weekly répertoires of Dresden and Weimar, where Wagner averages once a week and Verdi's name has not appeared. In Berlin, the prevalence of Millöcker and operas of the hand-organ type averages everything else out of sight. It is worthy of remark that in a city where Wagner's real admirers are probably fewer than in any other city of the Empire, albeit that Leipzig is the city of his birth, his operas still lead the list.

To-day is the anniversary of Wagner's birth. It occurs to me that perhaps the following simple and just inscription under his bust in the Theatre here may prove interesting to those of your readers who share your opinions of his greatness:

"Denker und Dichter
Gewaltigen Willens
Durch Worte und Werke
Wecker und Meister
Musischer Kunst."

Respectfully yours, C. H. G.

Leipzig, May 22, 1885.

SCUDDER'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If you are willing to spare a few more lines to Mr. Scudder's History, I desire to apologize for my inexcusable blunder in ascribing its publication to Messrs. E. H. Butler & Co. My attention was first called to the error by a note from Mr. J. H. Butler, who in correspondence has shown a courteous and delicate anxiety to do justice to my review, and is incurring considerable expense to free himself from every suspicion of garbling or misrepresentation. It would not be easy to look at the matter more correctly or kindly than he has done.—Yours very truly,

The Reviewer.

June 8, 1885.

JUDGES AND JURORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The position taken by your influential paper in the case of the State vs. Short, and especially regarding Juror Munsell, so far in both matters as concerns Judge Van Brunt's action, has been such as to command the gratitude of all thoughtful men who would protect the liberty of the citizen and the rights and duties of jurors from assaults by judges like Van Brunt. It is to be hoped that the Bar Association of New York may take steps looking to the impeachment of Van Brunt; and I should be glad to contribute to the expense of printing in pamphlet form the articles from the *Nation*, embracing the facts and the comments, for distribution to all the judges and lawyers in the United States. If lawyers will not protect themselves and express their condemnation of the action of judges like Van Brunt, they deserve neither the respect of the bench nor the confidence of jurors and clients.—Thanking you on my own behalf, I am,

Your obedient servant,

J. A. Beecher.

Newark, N. J., June 8, 1885.

Notes.

Mr. Sibley's example in preparing biographies of the earliest graduates of Harvard, of which the third volume appeared recently, has been imitated at Yale. Henry Holt & Co. publish this month 'Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College, with Annals of the College History, from October, 1701, to May, 1745,' of which Mr. Franklin Bowditch Dexter is the author. The work is printed in a limited edition, and sold only by subscription.

A book of hunting adventure, 'Nimrod in the North,' by Lieut. Frederick Schwatka, will be shortly published by Cassell & Co. It is based on personal experience.

Mr. Lowell's 'Biglow Papers' will be the next numbers in the Riverside Aldine series. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will also publish directly 'By Shore and Sedge,' Bret Harte's new book.

A new and revised edition, in three volumes, of Alfred H. Allen's 'Practice of Commercia Organic Analysis' is in the press of P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia.

In July, Ginn & Co. will have ready Lotze's 'Outlines of Practical Philosophy,' translated by Prof. Geo. T. Ladd, of Yale College.

The appearance of the second number of the *American Journal of Archæology* has been delayed on account of the decision to bring out a double number. It contains articles by H. W. Henshaw, Eugène Müntz, of Paris, Charles C. Perkins, W. M. Ramsay, of Oxford, the explorer of Asia Minor, and Dr. A. Emerson, as well as correspondence from Mesopotamia by Doctor Ward, and on Tunis by E. Babelon, who was sent to Carthage by the French Government.

We can praise the first samples of the "Daintie Edition" and "Cabinet Edition" of classic English authors undertaken by Arthur Hinds, at No. 3 West Third St. The former thus far includes Irving's 'Rip Van Winkle,' 'Legend of Sleepy Hollow,' and 'Mutability of Literature'—square little books, bound either in embossed paper or in blue cloth. The Cabinet edition is introduced by Lamb's 'Tales from Shakspere' in two "blue and gold" volumes of a very handy size. In these the paper is perhaps a little too transparent, but of both series it can be said that the typography has been well studied and is a pleasure to the eye.

The last degree in the popularization of the Revised Version of the Old Testament is its appearance in Harper's Franklin Square Library, in four numbers. The preferred readings and renderings of the American Revisers are given in foot-notes. To the same series has been added 'The Professor,' by Charlotte Brontë.

The students of our colonial history will be interested to learn that the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts proposes to publish its manuscript journals from the time of its foundation in 1701 to 1800, provided 250 subscribers can be obtained. It is estimated that they will fill five octavo volumes of about 700 pages each, costing six guineas for the set. As their efforts were originally almost wholly confined to this continent, and their agents and correspondents were scattered in all parts of the colonies, it is easy to see that the journals must contain much valuable historical material. In fact, the Society has received so many applications for information by students that it has been led to issue these proposals. It would seem as if it would not be difficult to secure subscribers for the entire edition in this country.

The third edition of Dr. N. S. Folsom's 'Translation of the Four Gospels' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.) differs from the second only in having a few corrections and additional notes. The author's unfaltering fidelity to his theory that the Greek Aorist and Present must always be rendered by English Aorist and Present, and Greek Subjunctive and Optative by "may" and "should" respectively, introduces some bizarre locutions: "whenever he may tell the lie, he tells [it] out of what is peculiarly his own"; "if you are children of Abraham you would be doing the works of Abraham"; "and they come to the synagogue-ruler's house, and he views a tumult and . . . he says . . . the young child had not died, but is asleep"; "the kingdom of heaven was like a man having sowed choice seed in his field." Nobody will accept such writing as English. Yet, in spite of this blemish, the translation has so well caught the simple, straightforward spirit of the original, and so judiciously modernizes the language, that it is pleasant to read, and by a revision might be made valuable. The notes are short and sensible, and the tone of the venerable author's preface is so manly and genial that the reader cannot fail to be attracted to him: he is first a Christian and then a Unitarian. His renderings of disputed doctrinal texts are the same as in former editions, and have already been noticed in the *Nation*.

The Psalter of Richard Rolle, of Hampole, the Latin Biblical text with English translation and commentary, was once a popular and useful book. Richard himself was a notable personage, a sort of learned Bunyan, one of the men who prepared the way for Wiclif. His commentary is written in the loosely allegorizing style of the time, without attempt at careful exegesis, without originality, finding references to Christ everywhere—a fair picture of the ordinary Biblical learning of the fourteenth century in England. It gives us, also, a glimpse of the literary activity of the period. Richard Rolle died, according to his editor, in 1349, and as he himself wrote many books, we may conclude that there was no little study of religion in England in the first half of the fourteenth century. The dialect is that of North Yorkshire, and the book should be welcome to students of English. It is carefully edited from manuscripts by Rev. H. R. Bramley, of Magdalen College, Oxford, and printed at the Clarendon Press.

When Mr. Gladstone was Rector of the University of Edinburgh, twenty-five years ago, he was so struck with the historical interest and importance of the Catechism of Archbishop Hamilton, a copy of which happened to be placed in his hands, that he strongly urged a fresh publication of the work. In accordance with this suggestion, the Catechism has been edited by the librarian of the Signet Library, Mr. T. G. Law (Oxford; Clarendon Press), and Mr. Gladstone furnishes a pretace, in which he points out the bearing of the work on the history of ecclesiastical and religious development in Scotland and England. The striking thing is, that the Archbishop's official and authoritative book of popular instruction, issued before the beginning of the Scottish Reformation, makes no mention of the Pope or of the Church of Rome. The origin of the reform movement in Scotland and England lay deeper than the whims of Henry VIII. or any other such outward fact: it was in the great religious life of the people. Hamilton himself was not an edifying character. He was not worse than the mass of the clergy of the time, but he was not better; and though he was a not unimportant element in the progress of liberal ideas, he seems not to have had any firm principle, but to have accommodated himself easily to circumstances. The Catechism is admirably written, and leaves little to be desired as a popular text-book. As to its literary form, the editor has properly preserved the spelling of the original.

The 'Annual Cyclopædia' for 1884 has been issued by the Appletons, and its value need not be insisted upon, though this, as usual, lies more in its collection of facts than in critical or judicial editing, as in the reviews of American and British literature, and in the biographical sketches. The four articles of prime convenience are Congress, United States, Events (of the current year),

Obituaries. In this last we think it highly desirable to introduce a cross-reference to such biographical sketches as are inserted independently. For example, the late Secretary Folger is found in the main alphabet, but not among the grouped obituaries. A steel portrait of President Cleveland serves as frontispiece, and both he and Mr. Blaine have articles devoted to them, the unfortunate Augusta speech being fatuously set down as if to the latter's credit. Mr. E. O. Graves gives a résumé of the official progress of civil-service reform. Timely political articles are those on the Congo International Association and on Egypt, Gordon's portrait being added. Among the fresher miscellaneous topics are bicycles and tricycles, catamarans, microscopy, music (tonic-sol-fa), spelling reform, etc. This last gives the latest rules for the reformed orthography, which is itself observed in printing the article. We must not omit to mention a general index for the volumes 1876-1884—the so-called "New Series."

A new edition of J. Fitzgerald Molloy's 'Court Life below Stairs, or London under the First Georges, 1714-1760' (Scribner & Welford), completes the series which we lately mentione l in connection with the second volume. Chapter four of the volume now before us deals with the episode in the married life of George I. which has just been treated by our Paris correspondent.

The Rev. M. Harvey has prepared a 'Textbook of Newfoundland History,' which, though he is a very competent writer on this subject, and though he has again secured Boston publishers (Doyle & Whittle), is not likely to be used in United States schools. He has made, nevertheless, a readable abstract of his former work, which children can enjoy. A chapter in the appendix, on the early history of the Atlantic cables, recalls to deserved prominence the late Frederick N. Gisborne, as the pioneer in actual endeavor to raise capital for the making of a cable between Newfoundland and the British Isles. He laid the first submarine cable on this continent, and his unsuccessful larger scheme he communicated and relinquished to Mr. Cyrus W. Field, whose faith and energy at last carried it through.

The laborious and praiseworthy compilation entitled 'Our Police Protectors: History of the New York Police from the Earliest Period to the Present Time,' is published by the author, Mr. A. E. Costello, for the benefit of the police pension fund. It is a mine of information on a subject in which every city in the country has a vital interest—the development of a constabulary force equal to the demands of increasing population and increased facilities for crime, disorder, and destructiveness. The chapters on the draft riots of 1863 connect this work with the political history of the republic. Great numbers of portraits and other illustrations add much to the value of the record.

Again we have to report as coming from the West a useful citizens' manual, though this time the idea has been improved upon by addressing not the adult voter, but the child. Professor Macy, of Iowa College, has compiled 'A Government Text-book for Iowa Schools,' in which the origin of our political institutions and their special development in that State are set forth simply and clearly. Both teacher and pupil have been kept in mind in the preparation of it, and in the hands of a good instructor the study can certainly be made attractive. We have observed nothing to criticise, and experience alone can determine how this school-book might be bettered. It is, in fact, put forth tentatively now in order to invite comment. The circumstance that Iowa was settled both from New England and from southern Illinois, brought the Southern county system of local government into conflict with the township system of the East. This is one of the points which make Professor Macy's little work interesting for a much wider class than that which it addresses.

The 250th anniversary of the settlement of Newbury, Mass., has been commemorated by the Historical Society of that town, a recent organization. To Mr. Robert Noxon Toppan was confided the task of writing 'Brief Biographical Sketches' of eminent natives of the place, which the Society has now issued in a neat form. Mr. Toppan's forte does not lie in condensed biography. His sense of proportion is very imperfect, and he has dwelt at length on lives which are amply presented in the cyclopædias. Caleb Cushing, for example, fills twenty-eight pages, while only one is given to Joshua Coffin, the historian of Newbury, and a character whose marked individuality would attract any born biographer. Mr. Toppan, moreover, has not discarded his prejudices, and shows little but a superficial familiarity with many of the lives he has undertaken to narrate.

Thoroughly readable and full of instruction is the address of Mr. John M. Shirley before the New Hampshire Historical Society on June 13, 1883, now just printed by the Society (Concord). The subject is the "Early Jurisprudence of New Hampshire," from the records, and the treatment is a model of its kind. The chapter on the law of the marriage relation involves the question of divorce, which is brought down to the present time, so that this pamphlet is a valuable contribution to one of the burning questions of the day. Mr. Shirley, speaking for his State, says t at divorces have multiplied as the population has increased, but otherwise there is nothing to favor a pessimistic view of social tendencies in this regard.

The International News Company send us a specimen number of the reissue of Letts's 'Popular Atlas of the World,' of which there will be thirty parts containing 150 maps. While having a place among the cheaper atlases of its class, this does not rank with the best German ones, though for regions British it naturally possesses some advantages.

A side-map of the bay and environs of Assab is the most valuable feature of a large colored map of the Red Sea, Egypt, and the Eastern Sudan which accompanies the March-April *Bollettino* of the African Society of Naples. A map of Massowah and a plan of Khartum are also given on the same sheet.

What a Catholic reviewer in *Polybiblion* calls a washed, neutralized, and fumigated Voltaire for use in primary schools ('Le Voltaire des écoles') has been published by Delagrave in Paris. It is praised for everything but its editors' failure to scourge the great writer whom the anniversary of the St. Bartholomew massacre afflicted as often as it recurred.

By a recent decree the Russian language is henceforth to be used instead of the German, in all the public schools of the district of Dorpat in the Province of Livonia. Private schools of every description must obtain permission from the Government for carrying on their instruction in German. This will be granted only on condition that Russian history and geography shall be taught only in Russian, and that instruction in this language shall be given at regularly prescribed hours. It is expected that similar action will be taken throughout the Baltic provinces.

The Observatory Department of the Colony of South Australia was established in 1867, and its director, Mr. Charles Todd, reviews its work for a period of seventeen years in his last report. The observatory at Adelaide is well supplied with all the self-recording and other apparatus necessary to constitute it a first-class station as defined by the Meteorological Congress at Vienna. There are also fourteen well-equipped stations of the second order, from Port Darwin in the extreme north of the Continent to Cape Northumberland in the extreme south. Mr Todd is also General Superintendent of the Post-office and the Telegraph for the colony, and these interests are harmonized with those of immediate scientific interest. Rain-gauges are kept at every telegraph office in the colony, making reports from 46 stations in 1870, and in 1883 from 254. A system of weather telegraphy has been arranged between the Australasian colonies, these being subdivided into districts to facilitate the transmission of messages, and to afford the necessary data for laying down the isobars. Mr. Todd has lately secured the coöperation of Mr. Clement E. Wragge, who has established a high-level meteorological station on Mount Lofty, and who brings to the work great practical experience and unbounded enthusiasm. The important operations which Mr. Todd has executed in determining the chain of Australasian longitudes telegraphically, we have already alluded to.

— The June number of the *Century* is not remarkable, but it is readable. Prof. Edward S. Holden sketches the extraordinary lives of the three Herschels, William, Caroline, and Sir John; and T. Johnson engraves their portraits excellently. Sir John's face is very effective, and William's is delightful with its good-humored wisdom. The second instalment of the account of the New Orleans Exhibition drops here and there hints worth noting on the condition of Louisiana and the South. New Orleans is not decaying, but it is not advancing; the grain does not go that way, as was hoped, the cotton does not yet come in as it did before the war, and it does not give so much profit in its transit, because it comes already pressed and ready for shipment. The leading idea of the Exhibition was to foster the trade with the Spanish-American countries, but if this comes out of it, it will be by the energy of Northerners. Louisianians by birth are too lethargic; the Northerner himself may resist the enervating influence of the climate, but his children will surely feel it. Throughout the South, manufactures, in spite of the great increase—109 new mills in four years—are neither very productive nor productive of fine goods; a single town in Connecticut will turn out more than all of them. Yet there is a new spirit of industry in the South which will lead to something, particularly if Northern men, with their inherited manufacturing instincts and their habit of close application and attention to detail, shall see any inducements to do in the South what they already have done in the West. Theodore Roosevelt's "Still-hunting the Grizzly" belongs to a class of literature that must very soon disappear from the world; for we take it grizzlies will never be "preserved," even in parks of the size of the Yellowstone. Howells's "Florentine Mosaic" is dangerous reading for those who can almost but not quite afford to travel. It will throw too heavy a weight in the scale marked "Go." But there is another side to it. If one could only see all that Mr. Howells sees in a place, one would not need to travel so very much, and perhaps reading his articles may help to that result. His story is becoming almost exciting. The illustrations to Miss Herrick's "Orchids" are excellent pieces of plant engraving, yet not wholly satisfactory; the texture is well represented, the color could hardly be suggested. In the "Open Letters" Walter B. Hill complains of the law's delay, making no suggestions, however, to expedite matters; and in the "Topics of the Time" the editor sets forth clearly some of the necessary causes of delay, and suggests some remedies designed to relieve the courts of appeal. John Brown's Harper's Ferry raid is described by an

eye-witness of the attack, who was one of Brown's prisoners in the engine-house. He confirms one's admiration for the high-motived courage of the man.

—The *Century's* war papers for the current month are briefer than the last, but do not lack in interest. The battle of Gaines's Mill is described by Gen. Fitz-John Porter, on the one side, and by Gen. D. H. Hill, on the other. They both restrict themselves closely to the incidents of this fiercely-contested engagement, and only in a casual way refer to the larger problem of the struggle between McClellan and Lee. Both say enough, however, to give emphasis to the reader's natural inquiry whether Lee's attack by concentrated forces upon McClellan's isolated corps at Gaines's Mill would not have sacrificed Richmond and the Confederate campaign, if the Federal commander had taken advantage of the opportunity to push upon Richmond with the three corps south of the Chickahominy. General Hill does not conceal his opinion that the situation was perilous in the extreme for the Confederate army. The two accounts do not differ as to the larger facts in the history of the battle, but the different standpoints of the writers pleasantly vary the perspective, and together they give a very vivid picture of this hard-fought field. General Imboden contributes a lively sketch of "Stonewall" Jackson's campaigns in the Shenandoah valley, with a number of personal reminiscences of the famous Confederate which are strongly characteristic. It goes without saying that the illustrations are abundant and rich. The portraits are of Longstreet, Porter, and A. P. Hill.

—Such of the London inns of court as have not already been pictured in the series of prints issued annually by the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London, have been grouped in the issue of the present year. Staple Inn has, indeed, been shown as to its Holborn front in No. 24; but here we have, in No. 107, a view of its Hall from within the Garden, offering many points of architectural interest and even beauty. Of Clement's Inn, too, No. 105, we are shown the "Garden House." with a bit of the grounds. Clifford's Inn, No. 106, and Gray's Inn, No. 103, comparable in their general situation, attract, the one rather by its buildings, the other by its more considerable enclosure of trees. The Hall of Gray's Inn, again, No. 104, with its screen of fine old woodwork, compares with the contemporary Hall of the Middle Temple, No. 102, which is, however, the more grandiose, and has a stained-glass window of 1570. If the tables shown in the former were the gift of Queen Elizabeth, it can be said of the latter that here took place the first recorded performance of Shakspere's "Twelfth Night" (1601-1602). The Temple, as is proper, receives the largest amount of attention. Besides the view last described there is one of Fountain Court, in the Middle Temple, a charming nook; the Gatehouse of the same quarter, a piece of Wren's designing, just two centuries old; the Gatehouse also of the Inner Temple, a still older structure, dating from the time of James I., and now occupied by an enterprising barber who does "hair-brushing by steam power"; a doorway in King's Bench Walk, and Churchyard Court (once so called), both in the Inner Temple. This last print exhibits the plain memorial slab of Oliver Goldsmith, placed in 1860 in a corner of the court already adorned with monuments, in default of exact knowledge of the spot where the great author reposes in the churchyard. No. 108 is the first of the series devoted to more than a single subject. It contains six curious carvings, all but one of stone—the exception being the Wooden Midshipman of 'Dombey & Son.' The rest are various insignia, private, municipal, and royal, and two are relics of the City gates. We regret to learn that the Society will probably cease to publish after next year. Its American support has been, if not very considerable, at least gratifying.

—The extension of female employment is going on slowly but surely throughout the world, even in places which no one would have thought half a century ago it could ever reach. Not long since, for instance, Signora Giulia de' Cavallari, having passed an examination for a doctorate in philology at Bologna, was appointed by the Italian Minister of Instruction Professor, or Professoress, of Latin and Greek in the girls' academy, "Fua Fusinate," in Rome; and four young Turkish ladies, after examination before a commission appointed by the Turkish Minister of Instruction, have been appointed instructresses in certain girls' schools. It is no new thing for a woman to be a professor in Italy; on the contrary, the practice is so old as to have gone out of fashion and to need revival; but in Turkey female teachers are not at all in accordance with the manners and customs of the 'Arabian Nights,' and the teachers mentioned in the accounts of recent travellers are all English governesses. It is an advance that natives are found capable of filling such positions and are allowed to do so. Even the opponents of the higher education of women may view these facts without dismay. In our own country, however, there is a little more justification for those who fear that when learning enters at the door, love will fly out of the window; that there will be so many professors and lecturers and so forth, that there will be no more wives and mothers, and that, in short, the emancipation of woman means the extinction of man. For such forebodings a few statistics from the Tenth Census will be the best corrective.

—There are now some twenty-five million women of all ages in the country, of whom at least ten millions must be of marriageable age. If annexes and joint colleges are more successful than even their friends expect, there can hardly be found in the course of years more than twenty thousand young women who would have the means and the inclination to seek the higher education. Taking a college course at four years and the marriage period at thirty, this would transfer less than two hundred thousand from the ranks of possible wives and mothers to the ranks of blue stockings. Now, granting that a thorough education invariably makes all who receive it averse to love, inspires a distaste for maternity, and disqualifies for its duties—an assumption which facts contradict every day (indeed, the stock argument of the opponents of co-education has always been that there would be too much love and too little learning)—but, granting this assumption, there would still remain nine million eight hundred thousand possible wives and mothers; enough, one would think, to utterly prevent the American race from dying out. And these mothers will be all the more able to perform their wifely and maternal duties because it is evident, from the character and aims of those who at present seek the higher education, that a large part of the two hundred thousand will be employed in educating the children which the nine millions bear. And, perhaps, after all, the conservatives are right in their anticipations: this may be the next step in the evolution of the race, a specialization by which the two hundred thousand scholars become the (intellectual) workers in the hive, and the fourteen millions the (rather numerous) queen bee.

—The firm of Cotta at Stuttgart, publishers of Goethe's works, make the following statement through the organ of the German book-trade in regard to the sums paid for the copyright of Goethe's works from 1795 to 1865, at which date they became public property. Goethe himself received in round numbers, in American money, $100,000, Goethe's heirs (since 1832) $118,000; in all, the firm paid $218,000. This is the first authentic statement, and it is now made in correction of an erroneous computation from figures not long ago published in Cotta's correspondence with Schiller, which made $114,000 the total paid by Cotta for Goethe's works. From this correspondence it also appears that Goethe was hard to deal with, and fully aware of the commercial value of his writings, while Schiller was liberal in the extreme. He had little occasion to regret the confidence he placed in Cotta, whose imprint all his books bore after 1794. From this date to 1805 Schiller received $14,400 from Cotta (for "Wallenstein" and all he wrote subsequently); Schiller's heirs received about $52,500 more. It has to be taken into consideration that up to 1830 (and in some smaller States—"Raubstaaten"—to a much later date) book-pirating was as flourishing a trade in Germany as it now is here, and Cotta had only a small field which the Emperor's "Privilegien" covered, and even this was flooded with unlawful reprints. But making allowance for the higher value of a thaler then, these sums, as they stand, should dispose of the ridiculous fiction of the feasting publisher and the starving poet. Cotta's dealings with Schiller reflect much credit on him; and, in perusing the published correspondence, it is difficult to say whether the publisher or the poet was the more generous or large-hearted of the two. When "Wallenstein" proved a better success than the publisher had anticipated, he added of his own free will to the stipulated $1,000 royalty half as much more; and when Schiller was unwilling to accept for the "Bride of Messina," because a shorter piece and sold at a lower price, the honorarium agreed upon in advance for every new drama (300 ducats), Cotta insisted on his taking the full amount, and declined taking off 50 ducats as Schiller proposed. "I should act ignobly if I availed myself of your offer," Cotta writes, and on another occasion: "In my opinion the honorarium can never be an equivalent for the poet's work, and the publisher's obligation does not cease with paying it. Whenever the success of a book warrants it I shall gladly do more in recognition of such a man's friendship. I shall feel myself your perpetual debtor." The book is full of such traits, and redounds to the credit of both men as well as the present proprietors of Cotta's firm, who have handed over for publication unreservedly all the letters in their possession to and from Schiller. There is no occasion to wish a single line suppressed.

—Moderation, a poetical nobility of sentiment, and an amiable inconsistency characterize the political as well as the literary career of Count Terenzio Mamiani, who died recently at the age of eighty-five. A native of the Marches, educated in Rome, he took an active part in the revolutionary movement of 1831 in the Romagna, became a member of the provisional government, and soon after an exile in France. Here he founded a "committee of propaganda," and coöperated with men like Leopardi, while elaborating works of sentimental philosophy, such as the 'Rinnovamento della filosofia antica italiana' (1834), which made Gioberti exclaim, in his 'Principato,' "Qual amatore di sapienza e di eleganza non conosce e non ama Terenzio Mamiani?" Recalled to his native country in 1848 by Charles Albert of Sardinia, he soon repaired to Rome, accepted the portfolio of Minister of the Interior under Pius IX., in a Cabinet of which Antonelli and other cardinals were members, tried in vain to hold the balance between the Clericals in the Curia and the Mazzinians in the Constituent Assembly,

succumbed to intrigues of the former, and retired to Turin, where he worked with Gioberti in the cause of Italian federation. The flight of the Pope to Gaeta brought Mamiani back to Rome. He became Minister of Foreign Affairs, counselled energetic measures, but opposed the deposition of the Pope, and was forced by the ultra-revolutionary current of events to resign. Seeing the Roman ship of state helplessly drifting between the Austrian Scylla and the clerical Charybdis, he is said to have favored French intervention. It came, and drove him to Genoa. Elected in 1856 a member of the Sardinian Parliament, he supported the policy of Cavour, became under him Minister of Public Instruction in 1860, and subsequently represented the court of united Italy at Athens and at Bern. From 1870 he resided in Rome, where he again chiefly devoted himself to philosophical pursuits, honored with the dignity of Senator, and enjoying a high reputation as an elegant writer in prose and verse, an ardent and liberal patriot, and a venerable old man, "d'animo e di costumi gentilissimo." His works are very numerous. In his philosophy he began as an ontologist bent on reconciling reason and sentiment, science and faith, through psychological investigation. He was influenced by Rosmini to abandon the empirical method, and in his 'Dialoghi di scienza prima' (1846) he made common sense and immediate perception the basis of his doctrine; in his 'Confessioni di un metafisico' (1865) he expounded a kind of Platonism; and, after becoming more and more sceptical, returned, in his 'La Religione dell' Avvenire, ovvero Della Religione positiva e perpetua del genere umano' (1880), to a system in which the spiritualistic element predominates, and in which Christianity, demolished as a whole, is in large part reconstructed out of its fragments.

—Whoever has enjoyed the pleasure of reading the three small volumes which bear upon their title-pages the name of J. P. Jacobsen will be grieved to learn of this author's death at Thisted, Denmark, the place of his birth, upon the last day of April. He was born April 7, 1847, and studied at the University of Copenhagen. Early in life he wrote a considerable quantity of verse, of which, however, but little has been made public, but in 1874 he published an "Arabesque on a drawing by Michael Angelo," and another "Arabesque" was printed in a Danish anthology in 1882; and in addition to these, his prose works contain a few exquisite poems. He studied natural history and was strongly impressed by Darwin's works, and contributed, during 1871 and 1872, a series of articles to *Nyt dansk Maanedskrift* on the "Origin of Man," "Natural Selection," etc., designed to acquaint the Danish reader with the Darwinian theories. This led to his becoming Darwin's champion against the attack of Bishop Monrad. He also translated and published the great naturalist's principal works in three volumes. In 1872 he wrote, in French, a monograph upon the Desmidieæ of Denmark, which was printed in 1875-76 in the 4th volume of the 2d series of the *Journal de Botanique* of Copenhagen. This treatise was awarded the gold medal of the University. It was naturally a surprise, therefore, to the readers of the *New Monthly* when the promising young naturalist and student of Darwin reappeared in the pages of that journal in 1872 with his first story. Two years later the periodical edited by Georg Brandes, *Det nittende Aarhundrede*, contained his second short story, "Et Skud i Taagen" (A Shot in the Fog); but it was not until the appearance, at Christmas, 1876, of his historical novel, "Fru Marie Grubbe: Interieurer fra det syttende Aarhundrede" (Madam Marie Grubbe: Interiors from the Seventeenth Century), that Danish readers realized that the naturalist had been transformed into a great story-writer. Three years later he published a short but powerful story, "To Verdener" (Two Worlds), and this was followed, in the fall of 1880, by his second larger work, "Niels Lyhne," which had been conceived and begun in 1875. A fanciful sketch entitled "Der burde have været Roser" (There ought to have been Roses), appeared in the journal *Ude og Hjemme*, and, finally, in 1882 the author's first novel and the three short stories already named, with two new ones, "Pesten i Bergamo" (The Plague in Bergamo), and "Fru Fönss" (Madam Fönss), were published in a single small volume, entitled 'Mogens og andre Noveller' (Mogens, and Other Stories).

—This enumeration of the products of Jacobsen's literary life, which barely covered ten years, does not indicate great literary activity. Taken collectively, his works contain hardly as much printed matter as a single story by Henry James, jr.; but this lack of quantity is due, not to indolence, but rather to the almost morbid desire of the writer that every portion should be as nearly perfect as possible. "Marie Grubbe" represents four years of conscientious labor, and the author has endeavored to impress his style upon the book so completely that it should be recognizable as his not only by a single chapter, but by a detached page or fragment. He attempts in each passage to give a distinct, brilliantly-colored picture, and some of his stories are hardly more than a series of these vitalized images, each one an essential part of the whole, but each complete and containing in itself the explanation of its relation to the others. Scandinavian critics have commented upon the influence which his studies as a naturalist may have had upon his work as a poet and novelist, and have noted, also, the probable influence of Flaubert; but none the less his originality is unquestionable. Mr. Georg Brandes, in an elaborate study of Jacobsen's works, published in a volume of essays in 1883, speaks of him as "the great colorist of our modern prose. Never before in our Northern literature has there been such word-painting as his. His language is saturated with color, his style is the harmony of color." A fine characterization of the novelist was contributed to the January, 1883, number of *Nyt Tidsskrift* of Christiania, by Mr. Henrik Jæger; and German readers can find translations of his two last stories in the *Deutsche Rundschau* for 1883—"Fru Fönss" in the April number, and in the May number "Pesten i Bergamo," with a *Nachwort* from the pen of Georg Brandes.

—For the past ten years the Royal Observatory of Greenwich has been assiduously observing the spectra of more than fifty of the brightest stars, for the purpose of determining the velocity of their motions toward or from the earth in the "line of sight"—the line joining earth and star. The Reports of the Astronomer Royal have given the annual results, but no general exhibition of the present state of the question has been made until lately, when Mr. Maunder, the observer, has collected them in an interesting paper in the *Observatory*. Mr. Maunder points out, in the first place, that the conclusions which are drawn are worthy of confidence in spite of the extremely small displacements of the spectral lines upon which they depend. The entirely independent researches at Greenwich and those of Doctor Huggins and Doctor Vogel mutually confirm each other; and, moreover, if the method is applied to the measurement of the difference between the velocity of approach of the two limbs (edges) of the sun or Jupiter, the results are consistent with what we know of the rotation-times of these two bodies. We can compute exactly how fast one limb of the sun is approaching us, and how fast the opposite limb is moving away; and these same quantities can be determined by the spectroscopic methods with substantially the same results. Hence the spectroscopic determinations of the velocity of a body in the line of sight may be fairly said to belong to exact astronomy. The directions and the velocities for some fifty stars have been thus determined at Greenwich by measures extending over several years. Velocities of thirty to forty miles per second are not uncommon. A velocity of less than ten miles corresponds to such a small displacement that its determination becomes difficult. The case of *Sirius* is an interesting one from the fact that its motion has changed from a recession of twenty-one miles per second in 1875-6 to an approach of twenty-one miles per second in 1884. The proof is very clear, the separate years giving:

1876	21	miles	per	second;	recession.
1877	23	"	"	"	"
1879	15	"	"	"	"
1880	11	"	"	"	"
1881	2	"	"	"	"
1882	5	"	"	"	approach.
1883	19	"	"	"	"
1884	21	"	"	"	"

—But the interest of this research is not in accumulating data as to the motion of individual stars, however important this may be. The real point is, What light does this method throw upon the theory that the sun, with the whole solar system, is moving toward the constellation Hercules at a rate of some 590,000,000 miles per annum? Attempts have been previously made to show that the spectroscopic data confirm the theory, which, indeed, has a fairly firm basis on other grounds. Mr. Maunder declares that these attempts are premature; and that the spectroscopic data are as yet insufficient. So far as they go, they rather indicate a motion toward *Alpha Aquarii*. "Still, if the sun's speed be small compared with the average speed of the stars observed, there is nothing in the observations incompatible with the generally accepted direction." Mr. Maunder points out the fact that Greenwich Observatory is the only observatory prosecuting these researches, which demand a refined spectroscope, a large telescope, and a very clear and quiet atmosphere—conditions all lacking at the Royal Observatory. He expresses the hope that the Observatories of Nice and Melbourne may devote their large telescopes to this work. In America we have several large refractors admirably suited for this work, and it is to be hoped that some one of them may be exclusively devoted to it.

THE REVISED OLD TESTAMENT.—I.

In order to show what the Revisers of the Authorized Version of the Hebrew Scriptures have done or have not done; why they have made certain alterations and forborne to make others; how far, in our estimation, they were guided in their conclusions by decisive reasons; how much, in proportion to the texts, their emendations amount to; and how high, on the whole, we may rate the value of their arduous labor—we deem it best to lay before our readers small fragments of Genesis, Joshua, Job, Psalms, Proverbs, Isaiah, and Hosea, taking the first five verses of the tenth chapter of each book, and to append our remarks special or general, as we proceed. We shall thus introduce every group and almost every class of Scriptures; present, as far as possible within such narrow limits, a fair average of work and merit; and escape the suspicion of making selections for effect. The differing portions of the Revised Version will appear in italics, enclosed in the text of the Authorized:

Genesis X.

1. Now these are the generations of the sons of Noah, Shem, Ham, and Japheth [*Shem Ham and Japheth*]: and to them were sons born after the flood.

2. The sons of Japheth; Gomer, and Magog, and Madai, and Javan, and Tubal, and Meshech, and Tiras.
3. And the sons of Gomer; Ashkenaz, and Riphath, and Togarmah.
4. And the sons of Javan; Elishah, and Tarshish, Kittim, and Dodanim.
5. By [*Of*] these were the isles of the Gentiles [*nations*] divided in their lands, every one after his tongue, after their families, in their nations.

"Shem Ham and Japheth," undivided by commas, was chosen in order to obviate a possible misapprehension of the slightly ambiguous connection, in the sentence, of those three names with the preceding one. This ambiguity might be effectually removed by substituting *Noah's sons* for "the sons of Noah," but that construction would be contrary to the general usage of the Authorized Version, and hence to the rule laid down for the Revisers by the Canterbury Convocation of 1870, that "the style of the language employed in the existing Version be closely followed." The same rule also made it incumbent on them to preserve more than half a dozen superfluous conjunctions in verses 2 and 3. The Hebrew particle corresponding to our *and* is a short syllable or half-syllable, *ū* or *v'*, which, like the Spanish *y*, Italian *e*, or Slavic *i*, smoothly and lightly attaches itself to the following word, while our *and*, like the Greek *καί*, and the German *und*, grates upon the ear when often repeated. Literal fidelity to the sacred original was the paramount consideration of King James's translators, but literalness in translation is often the contrary of fidelity. Had a Hebrew of our age written an epitome of ancient and modern history worth translating, no translator would think of making him say in English, "Magog, and Madai, and Javan, etc.," or "The tribes of Israel were: Reuben, and Simeon, and Levi, and Judah, and Issachar, etc."—*cf.* Gen. xxxv. 23, in either version—any more than of rendering a sentence in the modern portion of the epitome thus: "Now the first five Presidents of the United States were: Washington, and Adams, and Jefferson, and Madison, and Monroe." The damage done to the more ornate, and especially the poetical, portions of the Old Testament by such literal adherence to the words and forms of speech of the original is enormous. But in a contest with dogmatic conservatism, taste is bound to succumb, and our Revisers were enjoined to follow in the wake of the translators of three centuries ago. Besides, it is a great convenience to joint workers to have strict rules of uniformity, obviating all discussions and conflicts on points of taste. It is therefore fortunate that our equivalent for the Hebrew *v'*, which is repeated nearly a hundred times in the short chapter before us, is not a polysyllable like the kindred *also, equally,* or *simultaneously.*

Marginal notes to verses 3 and 4, in the Revised Version, properly call attention to different readings in the corresponding list of Chronicles: *Diphath* for *Riphath*, and *Rodanim* for *Dodanim.* The Authorized Version has only, in reference to the latter name: "Some read it *Rodanim*," which is rather loose, ignoring as it does both the text of Chronicles and the Septuagint's confirmatory Ῥόδιοι in the verse before us. That the Revisers did not here introduce in the text the more probable reading is quite natural, for it was not their task to follow probabilities, but to render exactly everything in the Masoretic text that might possibly be correct; and the author of the ethnological table may, after all, not have spoken of Rhodians, but of Dodonæans, Dardanians, or Daunians, as the various conjectures run. There is no end to more or less plausible emendations of the Hebrew text—beginning with the very first verse of the Bible, which a bold Jewish critic, by dropping one Hebrew letter, makes to read: "In the beginning God created the *water* (*hammayim*) and the earth," thus harmonizing it with the mention of "the deep" and "the waters" in verse 2, and with the succeeding narrative of the creation of "heaven" on the *second* day (*He'hālūç* iii. 97). But conjectural emendations require weighing and elucidation, and can be presented only in extensive notes, as conjectures. Allusions to the most tempting of them in marginal notes would be bewildering to most Bible readers.

The alterations in verse 5 recommend themselves at first glance. *Gentiles* is generally replaced by *nations* (as the rendering of *gōyīm*), but left in the text of Judges iv. 2 ("Harosheth of the Gentiles"), which conflicts with "Galilee of the nations" in Is. ix. 2, the *gōyīm* of Harosheth being evidently a part of the Galilean *gōyīm.* The substitution of *nations* for *Gentiles* in the verse before us has unfortunately rendered the following "every one after *his* tongue" apparently ungrammatical; but the Revisers probably felt bound to tolerate this objectionable phrase, being convinced that the words *These are the sons of Japheth* are wanting before it, corresponding to "These are the sons of Ham" in verse 20, and to "These are the sons of Shem" in verse 31. (See Knobel's irrefutable argument, *in loco.*)

JOSHUA X.

1. Now, it came to pass when Adoni-zedec [*Adoni-zedek*] King of Jerusalem had heard how Joshua had taken Ai, and had utterly destroyed it; as he had done to Jericho and her King, so he had done to Ai and her King; and how the inhabitants of Gibeon had made peace with Israel, and were among them.
2. That they feared greatly, because Gibeon was a great city, as one of the royal cities, and because it was greater than Ai, and all the men thereof were mighty.
3. Wherefore Adoni-zedec [*Adoni-zedek*] King of Jerusalem sent unto Hoham King of Hebron, and unto Piram King of Jarmuth, and unto Japhia King of Lachish, and unto Debir King of Eglon, saying,
4. Come up, unto me, and help me, that we may [*and let us*] smite Gibeon: for it hath made peace with Joshua and with the children of Israel.
5. Therefore the five Kings of the Amorites, the King of Jerusalem, the King of Hebron, the King of Jarmuth, the King of Lachish, the King of Eglon, gathered themselves together, and went up, they and all their hosts, and encamped before [*against*] Gibeon, and made war against it.

The changes in these verses are insignificant—though improvements all—and it is the paucity of rhetorical changes which calls for remarks. Why do we read: "Joshua had taken Ai and destroyed *it*," and immediately after, "Ai and *her* King," and again, "Gibeon . . . , and all the men *thereof*"? Simply because the word *its*, unusual in the times of James I., is generally discarded by our Revisers in deference to the style of the old version. To the same deference we owe "*unto* Hoham," "*unto* Piram," "*unto* Japhia," and "*unto* Debir"—and thousands of other *untos* in the Revised Version, renderings of the brief Hebrew *l'* or *el;* as, "unto me" for *lī*, "*unto* him" for *lō*—and also "it hath made." Now this, whether the rules of the Convocation be alone responsible for it or not, is not literal fidelity in rendering the word of God—which may excuse scores of thousands of *ands* superfluous in modern English—but fidelity in copying forms used in an old translation, which in numberless instances distort the words of the Scripture for us. Let us see, first, as to the non-use of *its.* Tayler Lewis translates Job xiv. 7-8, faithfully enough, thus:

> "For a tree there is still hope.
> Cut down, it springs again;
> Nor do its suckers fail.
> Though in earth its root be old,
> Its stump all dead and in the dust."

The Revised Old Testament, faithfully copying every *thereof* of 1611, has this:

> "For there is hope of a tree, if it be cut down, that it will sprout again;
> And that the tender branch thereof will not cease,
> Though the root thereof wax old in the earth,
> And the stock thereof die in the ground."

Is this fidelity to the sublime poetry of Job? The three times repeated *thereof* stands for the Hebrew termination *ō;* the five words "and the tender branch thereof" stand for one word in the original, *v'yōnaqtō.* And yet, there is nothing really objectionable in the modern *its*, even in the eyes of our Revisers, for they substitute it occasionally for the Authorized Version's *his* or *her*, as in the following rendering of Ps. i. 3:

> "And he shall be like a tree planted by the streams of water,
> That bringeth forth its fruit in its season."

It is clear that the beautiful brevity of the Hebrew—as in *v'hāyāh*, "and he shall be"—is inimitable in any of our Occidental languages. It is unfortunate that literal fidelity to the meaning may demand the rendering in our excellent idiom of *hambass'rōth*—in German *die Botinnen, die Heilbotinnen* (Sachs), or *die Siegesbotinnen* (De Wette)—by "The women that publish the tidings" (Ps. lxviii. 11, Revised Version); the rendering of a Hebrew saying in four words, as clear as it is pithy (1 Kings xx. 11), by "Let not him that girdeth on his armour boast himself as he that putteth it off"; or even the rendering of *t'hīmennāh mēādām* (Mic. ii. 12: they shall noisily swarm with men; Arnheim, "sie werden wimmeln von Menschen") by "they shall make great noise by reason of the multitude of men." But, this being so, why add in translation unnecessary to unavoidable length? Fidelity to the meaning of *orkō v'ro'hbō* (Ez. xl. 20) is perfectly satisfied with *its length and breadth;* literal fidelity may require *its length and its breadth;* but why say "the length thereof and the breadth thereof"? And in the second verse following, why translate three Hebrew words meaning *And its windows, arches, and palm-trees* by "And the windows thereof, and the arches thereof, and the palm-trees thereof"? In the same utterly prosaic narrative we read "*unto* me," "*unto* thee," and "*unto* the gate which look*eth* toward the east."

"*Unto*," at least, occasionally alternates with *to*, in both versions—here and there inconsistently, as in Ex. xix.: "*say to* [*l'*] the house of Jacob" (verse 3) "what I did *unto* [*l'*] the Egyptians," "brought you *unto* [*el*] myself" (v. 4), "*said unto* [*el*] Moses" (v. 9); and, distinguished from *to*, it also stands, in its old sense, for *as far as* (*'ad*), (*e. g.* in Neh. iii: "unto the broad wall," "unto the place," "unto the pool," "unto the house," etc). The verbal termination *th, eth,* however (as in "hath made," "look*eth*"), which never alternates with *s*, has, in 1885, as an invariable form for both prose and poetry, no intrinsic justification whatever. It reflects throughout the English of three centuries ago, but never the Hebrew of two or three thousand years ago.

In almost all this—we must repeat, in justice to them—the Revisers have been bound by their rules. The literal adherence to the text of the Authorized Version enjoined on them was demanded in the ecclesiastical and religious interest of the Anglo-Saxon Protestant communities; and the reverential feeling which lies at the bottom of this interest inspires even Matthew Arnold to write thus, in the introduction to his 'Isaiah XL—LXVI' (1875):

"I have had a most lively sense of the risk one runs in touching a great national monument like the English Bible, and how one is apt, by changes which seem small, to mar and destroy utterly. . . . I am conscious of an 'affectionate reverence' for the diction and rhythm of the English Bible, greater even, perhaps, than that of many of the official revisers—a reverence which, while for our purpose some change is needed, makes me eager, notwithstanding, to preserve its total effect unimpaired, and binds me, in this aim, to a moderation in altering much more than commonly scrupulous. . . . Nothing would be so gratifying to me as to find that a reader had gone from the beginning of the chapters to the end without noticing anything different from what he was accustomed to, except that he was not perplexed and thrown out as formerly. No corrector should

wish to claim any property in the English Bible. That work, and the glory of it, belongs to the old translators; and theirs, even if their work is amended, it should remain."

MEDIEVAL THOUGHT.

Illustrations of the History of Medieval Thought in the Departments of Theology and Ecclesiastical Politics. By Reginald Lane Poole. Published for the Hibbert Trustees. 1 vol., 8vo. London: Williams & Norgate. 1884.

THIS volume has special interest as a manifestation that England is at last awaking to a sense of the value of the work done during the so called Dark Ages; and if the Hibbert Trust had accomplished nothing else, it would have justified its existence by the travelling scholarship which enabled Mr. Poole to make these studies. It is, in fact, in no sense flattering to English culture to observe that, notwithstanding so many of the schoolmen here discussed were of British origin, or connected with Britain, the authorities cited by Mr. Poole are so largely Continental. The fashion of sneering at the intellectual achievements of the Middle Ages has lasted longer in England than elsewhere, and it is to be hoped not only that the present volume is a proof of enlightenment, but that it will serve as a stimulant and a guide for further honest work in the same direction.

We may smile, if we please, at the trivial subtleties of the schoolmen, and at their enormous waste of intellectual power on matters which the world has come to recognize as useless, yet none the less are we their heirs, who should be thankful for the inheritance so laboriously worked out for our benefit. When the Latin Church civilized the barbarians, the scheme of life which formed itself in Christendom rendered it inevitable that theology should dominate philosophy—should become the supreme object of intellectual effort. Successive schools of thought sought to reconcile the two—to render theology philosophical, or philosophy theological; and, puerile as were often the debates which occasioned such uproar in Paris and Oxford, in Prague and Cologne, they formed part of the general movement in which the human mind was gradually training itself to adjust the antagonistic claims of authority and progress, of tradition and speculation. What was futile in these discussions may safely be relegated to forgetfulness; but not a few of the eternal problems which will ever confront the thinker were explored with a boldness and acuteness that have never been surpassed, leaving their indelible impress upon modern thought. Erigena and Abelard, Aquinas and Occam were supreme types of a multitude who not only kept alive the sacred fire of intellectual effort, but rendered possible the further development of which our modern civilization is so proud. These men took as their motto the saying of William of Conches: "Nos autem dicimus in omnibus rationem esse quærendam" (p. 128); and, imperfect as were the methods by which the reasons and causes of all things were sought, the hardy spirit which prompted the attempt, and the acute training which it insured, were of no little service to the progress of humanity. These paved the way for the emancipation of theology in the great movement of the sixteenth century; and when theology once came to be acknowledged as subject to debate in its fundamental dogmas, the evolution of the scientific spirit in turn became a necessary consequence. The intricate and formal dialectic of the schools is naturally repellant to the superficial reader, and it was easier for the mocking eighteenth century to ridicule it than to penetrate and understand it. Its true import and significance in the historical development of thought have for some time been appreciated on the Continent, and profound investigations have been made into its methods and objects and results. Some of the salient points of these investigations are now presented to the English student by Mr. Poole, who has controlled them by accurate and independent work of his own. His modest title of "Illustrations" disarms the criticism that the book is somewhat fragmentary in character, and it can be warmly recommended to all who value the inheritance which we have received from these able and resolute champions on either side of the great questions of existence.

Yet we may be permitted to remark that Mr. Poole's special studies appear to have been too exclusively scholastic. A wider acquaintance with the institutions and internal development of the Middle Ages would have given him greater breadth of view; would have saved him from making some positive assertions on points which are, to say the least, doubtful; and would probably have led him to embrace within the scheme of his labors some intellectual movements of peculiar interest because they spread among the people and were not confined to the schools. Thus we think that a more accurate knowledge of the condition of the Church in the twelfth century, and of its relations with the populations, would have softened his judgment of St. Bernard, in his account of the tribulations of Abelard and of Gilbert de la Porrée. It is true that St. Bernard's most unamiable aspect is exhibited in his persecution of Abelard, but allowance is to be made for the inevitable antagonism between that brilliant but impracticable scholar and the objects to which Bernard's life was devoted. If Abelard stood for independence and freedom of thought, St. Bernard was no less the champion, not alone of orthodoxy, but of reform within the Church; nor can we venture to affirm that his ideals were less high, while his objects were vastly more direct and practical. To a twelfth-century churchman the welfare of the Church and people could only be accomplished by the enforcement of respect for authority, and Abelard was the type of intellectual revolt. The moral force of Bernard prevailed against the intellectual force of Abelard; and this could scarce be otherwise, for Bernard was the highest example of the prevailing mind of the age, while Abelard represented but a few daring souls, impatient of the trammels of tradition and authority. Yet the antagonism which he excited was not so much caused by what he had said and written as by dread of what he might say and write if permitted to continue his career unchecked. Mr. Poole, it seems to us, does not attach the importance it deserves to Abelard's first essay in the field of theology—the "Sic et Non." This remarkable work may be, as he suggests, merely a collection of notes for the writer's own use—a commonplace book of the contradictions of dogma, canon, and decretal, yet none the less was it the most dangerous assault that had ever been made against the authority of tradition and the infallibility of the visible Church. It could not of itself be made the ground of arraignment, but we may be sure that thereafter the author was a marked man, whose transcendant abilities only rendered more dangerous the resolute spirit of free inquiry which gave them purpose. It requires no great depth of historical insight to see that, to a man like St. Bernard, it was the plainest of Christian duties to deprive the iconoclastic logician of further capacity for evil.

In the same way, Mr. Poole's interesting chapters on the hierarchical doctrine of the State would have been more philosophical if he had familiarized himself with the influence which the revived study of the Roman law exercised upon the thought of Europe. It was this, more than all other causes combined, which effected the transformation of the feudal medieval sovereignty into the absolute monarchies of the seventeenth century; and the difference between the political theories of France and Germany at the beginning of the fourteenth century, to which Mr. Poole calls attention, is to be explained quite as much by the greater ardor with which the imperial jurisprudence was studied and applied in France, as by the virtual collapse of the Holy Roman Empire during the great Interregnum. Mr. Poole is thus led to attach too much importance to the speculations of Marsilio of Padua, who sought, in his remarkable "Defensor Pacis," to sustain the failing cause of Louis of Bavaria by transplanting the French theories to Germany, where they withered in an uncongenial soil. As a bold thinker, Marsiglio was in many ways far in advance of his age; but Mr. Poole gives him undue credit in saying that he had "arrived at the fully mature principle of religious toleration which modern writers are apt to vaunt as their own peculiar discovery" (p. 272). In denying all secular power to the Church, Marsiglio argued that the divine law pronounced no temporal penalties for its own infraction, and that heresy was punishable only by human law, which it was the province of the secular authorities to decree and enforce, calling in ecclesiastics merely as experts to determine its existence, and taking care that the confiscated goods of the heretic should not inure to the benefit of the Church. He had no objection to the persecution of heretics, provided it gave added power to the State and not to the hierarchy. In fact, it would have defeated his purpose, in that age, to proclaim any broad principle of religious toleration. Somewhat rash is a similar tribute to Wiclif—"He alone had the courage to strike at the root of priestly privilege and power, by vindicating for each separate man an equal place in the eyes of God" (p. 292)—seeing that the Waldensian churches had long been based upon the individual responsibility of each man to God, and the denial of any mediatory power between the Creator and the creature.

All this evidently arises from a lack of sympathy and of acquaintance with popular currents of thought outside of the schools; and to this lack may be attributed Mr. Poole's mistake in speaking (p. 280) of the schism in the Franciscan order under John XXII. as caused by "the latter's condemnation of their newly proclaimed doctrine of the necessity of 'evangelical poverty,'" and in further alluding to it as "the doctrine that the clergy are bound to hold no property." This manifests an entire misconception of one of the most curious phases of thought in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, which, if rightly investigated, would have opened to him a region of speculation not inferior in interest to any of those which he has examined—of greater human interest, indeed, as it was glorified by the martyrdom of those who eagerly preferred the stake to the abandonment of the theories which they had adopted.

We trust that the reception of the present volume may be such as to encourage Mr. Poole's further labors in the same field, and that he may hereafter enrich English literature with a work of more ambitious character, giving not only isolated sketches but a history tracing the continuity of thought in its evolution from the ninth century onward, and noting not merely the learned disputations of the schools, but the popular developments, such as those of the Spiritual Franciscans, the Brethren of the Free Spirit, the Friends of God, and others. Such a work, executed by a man of Mr. Poole's general accuracy and clearness of thought, would be of great value, and might be made of surpassing interest.

Under the Rays of the Aurora Borealis, in the land of the Lapps and Kvæns. By Sophus Tromholt. 2 vols. 8vo, xvi, 288 and x, 306 pp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

DURING the progress of the work of the International Polar Commission, it was considered highly important to determine, if possible, the height of the aurora borealis above the surface of the earth. As it seemed probable from earlier investigations that this height was between 60 and 120 miles, a distance of some sixty miles in a north and south direction between two observing stations offered the best opportunity for simultaneous observations of the vertical angle by which the actual height might be computed. When Bossekop on Altenfiord was selected as the Norwegian station, it became evident to the author of these volumes that the village of Koutokæino was advantageously situated for the purpose. It lies nearly due south, about 63 miles from Bossekop, is situated nearly in the maximum zone of frequency of auroral displays, on a nearly level sandy area, affording a clear view of the horizon, and enjoys a comparative immunity from the clouds and moisture of the mountainous coast-lands. The present work is devoted to a popular description of the journey to and from the station, of the results obtained there, of a flying visit to the Finnish station of Sodankylä, a hundred miles southeastward, and of the life and manners of the native population which finds a congenial home in Finmark.

The author's style is lively and amusing, seeming to have suffered little in the translation made from the Norse by Carl Siewers. Almost the only indication we have noted of a failure to grasp the English idioms occurs in the attempt to represent the ages and sexes of the reindeer by the terms "ox" (!) cow, and calf, which in one instance has produced a comical confusion. The work is profusely illustrated by sufficiently good "process" engravings from the author's photographs, and two chromotype plates of Lapp costume. It has a map as good as the knowledge of the region permits, and a tolerable index. The author has avoided giving too great prominence to his physical researches, which would have resulted in a loss of interest for the general reader. He does not seem to have been specially trained to observe matters of natural history or ethnology. Yet the most interesting and valuable parts of his book are those devoted to the manners and customs of the Lapps and Finns, or Kvæns, as the latter are called by the Norwegians. Doubtless there was much that escaped his observation, but the book, taken in connection with its very characteristic portraits of the people, is probably the best summary we have of the general features of the life of these little known, half-civilized hyperboreans.

Leaving Bergen in August, 1882, the writer skirted the coast of northern Norway, which he briefly and pleasantly describes, with an interlude on the fisheries of Lofoten, the most important in northern Europe; terminating his voyage at the southern extreme of the Altenfiord. Here his inland journey was to begin, at Bossekop, which is Lappish for the "village of whale bay." This little town, only twenty degrees from the pole, seems exceptionally favored by nature. The bay is as lovely as an Italian lake, smooth, surrounded by a garland of green and gray mountains, with soft rounded outlines, a level beach of white sand, a distant vista of blue snow-capped peaks, a valley where a river winds between the feathery birches and green firs, with banks gorgeous with wild flowers and rich with berries. The little town consists largely of pretty villas tenanted by hospitable folk, and the sky, blue by day, is nightly arched by the lambent flames of the aurora, ceaselessly playing, with a depth of color and beauty of form seen nowhere else in Europe. This is the most northern spot in the world where grain ripens. The Alten River is one of the richest salmon streams in Norway, and near the bay is a small street of little houses, the most northern market-place of the world. Generally deserted, in April and December it teems with varied life. Then the great Bossekop fairs are held, Lapps, Finns, and Norwegians in motley costumes throng the little square, flags and bunting fly from every pole, and for a time commerce and gayety hold joint sway. Bossekop is also a classical spot in the annals of science. The French Scandinavian expedition under Lottin and Bravais sojourned here in 1838-9, and did admirable work on the physical conditions of northern Europe, especially on the aurora.

Leaving this attractive spot, after a rough but interesting journey Tromholt reached his wintering place at Koutokæino in September. Here the landscape, for Norway, seemed unique. Not a mountain being visible, the river forms a broad white plain of sand, an "intervale" bordered by steep banks; while stretches of heathery moor and low ranges of rounded dunes alternate with tiny lakes like mirrors. Near the river is a little red church nearly two centuries old; a few birch trees, the only ones in sight, guard the graves which the sand threatens to engulf. There are four frame buildings, a school and the residences of the vicar, the sheriff, and the post-trader. On either side of the river are the farms of the settled Lapps. Here was a settlement before the *Mayflower* sailed; its cemetery, disused for more than two centuries, still exists, though the river has invaded it. There are but few families here; the Mountain Lapps, who form the chief population of the parish, are generally on the move with their deer. Their valuables are left in little huts on posts, like small pigeon-houses, which form the sole fixed property of the Mountain Lapp. The residences of the settled people are generally of logs with turf roofs, surrounded with sheds for sheep and cattle, elevated hayricks, a hut where the hay is boiled for the stock in winter, and a well with weighted pole, like that of some New England farm-house.

The dress of the Lapp, in its essentials, is that adopted by all boreal people. The boots, tied at ankle and knee, stuffed with non-conducting straw, and the deer-skin blouse differ in details of form and ornament, but at bottom are the same for Eskimo, Lapp, and Kamchadal. The head-dresses of men and women are characteristic and much ornamented. Their riches are in their herds of deer, which afford them milk, meat, and transportation. These reindeer are much smaller than the wild American caribou, but are hardly specifically different. Though under control and even broken to harness, they can hardly be called tame; and if the driver loses his hold on the single rein, they are apt to attack him with their fore feet. They receive very rough usage from their masters. The sledges resemble a shallow, keeled boat, truncated abruptly behind. There are no runners. With a good animal and favorable conditions, sixty miles a day can be made over the snow.

The masters of the deer live in a tent made of a blanket-like woollen material called vadmel. The tent is conical, stretched over poles eight or ten feet high, with the hearth in the centre, and the sole chimney, window, or ventilator above it. The small entrance is closed with a "portière" of vadmel. The earth is covered with birch twigs, on which the inmates squat, eat, work during the day, or sleep at night. Their dress is their bedding: unlike the Eskimo, they do not strip at night. Their utensils are few and simple; wooden dishes, scoops, or trenchers, spoons of horn, wood, or even silver; a few kettles and pots. Each carries a large camp-knife. There are no fixed meals. All take turns in guarding the deer, and eat when they return or feel hungry. The pot is always over the fire. Reindeer meat, milk or cheese, and snow-water are their chief reliance; they are devoted to tobacco and to coffee when they can get it; spirits do not last long enough with them to warrant the charge of habitual drunkenness. There is no privacy in the tent, which is also shared by the dogs, and the status of these people is distinctly below that of the western Eskimo. This is not true of the settled members of the race, who are often fairly prosperous and semi-civilized. Labor is pretty fairly divided between the sexes, but, curiously, the men do all the cooking. The race is phlegmatic, and brutally practical. There is little filial affection, and while hospitable of fire and house room, they do not offer food to the visiting stranger of their own race. They are nominal Christians, but full of superstition, which, by evil counsellors, has at times been so fostered as to break out in extraordinary fits of insane fanaticism. They do not dance, and have no musical instruments except whistles. They are great talkers, eager for news, and have a certain sense of humor. Of sentiment there is little, and marriages are invariably made on a business basis. For details which our space does not admit of summarizing further, the reader may be referred to the book itself. It is certainly one of unusual interest.

Samuel Adams. By James K. Hosmer, Professor in Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. 12mo, pp. 442.

IN his preface, Professor Hosmer makes an unnecessary apology for the presumption of a Westerner in writing a life of a typical Bostonian. But, wherever born, it would be impossible for a Hosmer to be other than a Yankee, and the only evidence of local feeling is shown in the author's tendency to treat his topic somewhat abstractly. A few literary peculiarities may be assigned to the same cause, but these are most apparent in the opening chapters. Mr. Hosmer has prepared an interesting and appreciative Life of Adams—one which fairly sets forth the man, his work, and his times; and it will certainly be of great service in renewing the fame of this pioneer of the Revolution. Materials, indeed, abounded. Mr. Wells's pious labor in preparing the three bulky volumes of his ancestor's writings has greatly lightened the work of the late biographer. The publications upon the history of the rise of the Revolution are numerous and accessible. Nevertheless, the reduction of the ponderous mass to a convenient summary must have been the result of much care, and the compiler is entitled to the warmest thanks of his public.

One thing is noticeable in the life of Samuel Adams, and that is the entire lack of any individuality in the man apart from his work. Living to the age of eighty-one in the town of his birth, a public character from his earliest manhood, always filling the public eye, trusted and honored as few men have been, he has left hardly a trace of his personality as distinct from his official position. No anecdotes are preserved of his domestic life, his ways and customs, his goings-out and goings-in, not even of his methods of so powerfully influencing the destinies of a nation. There are abundant testimonies to the results he achieved, we see him in his public career, but the inner man eludes our scrutiny. It may, indeed, be that he was so absorbed in the greater work that he lived no other life; but greater men have had a human side. If it be true that he was a fanatic, the incarnation of the institutions of New England, the fact may explain some of the apparent weakness of his later career.

Mr. Hosmer has judiciously contrasted Samuel Adams with his contemporary and rival, Governor Hutchinson. But as regards the latter, how different is the nature of the record. Of Hutchinson's own mind we have a faithful picture in his letters and diary. We can reproduce him to the mind's eye, and see his virtues as well as his defects. Of Adams, apparently, no trace remains, and we are forced to regard him as an instrument of destiny working out almost unconsciously the great problem of human progress.

Public opinion, to which Mr. Hosmer conforms, has agreed in stamping Adams as the "Man of the Town-Meeting." He is the visible sign of that form of popular sovereignty which perhaps reached its most conspicuous height in Boston during the ten years preceding the Revolution. And this personification is doubtless a correct one, though we are still in doubt how far the assembly and its exponent reacted upon each other. In the one view Adams revivified the old forms, but suppressed his own prominence to the greater glory of the system. In the other, Adams was but the creation of the popular will, pushed forward by it, and only the agent in formulating its affections, its hatreds, and its aspirations. Which view is correct cannot be solved by this abbreviated narrative. It is confessed that Adams was not a great orator; it is painfully evident from his writings that he was not a great master of composition. His greatest art, in the eyes of his contemporaries, was his mastery of popular assemblies; and after witnessing the exploits of his successors for a century, that talent does not seem to be so exceptional or so desirable to us as it did to them. That he profoundly moved the Boston town-meetings is certain, but were his methods pure, his intentions honest, his aims right?

To these questions it will be impossible to give succinct answers. His enemies denounced his methods, inasmuch as they accused him of appealing to the prejudices of the more ignorant part of the populace. Of the honesty of his intentions, however, no doubt exists. He lived and died a poor man, incorruptible either by bribes or honors, a man without a known defect in that respect. But as to his aims, there were and always will be various opinions. The more certain that it is that he was the first American to dream of separation from the mother country, the greater is the diversity of opinion as to his wisdom. That he was the first of our Democrats is beyond doubt, and the present generation is not a unit on the validity of that claim to immortality.

It would be obviously useless for us to run through the well-known record of his life. It is told as briefly as possible in the volume under notice. We pass instead to those digressions and comments of the author which open up questions of living interest. Mr. Hosmer has much to say about the town-meeting, or, as he rather affectedly terms it, the folk-mote. He praises it somewhat too much, as after all it is the sign of a very primitive stage of legislation. He traces it to the "primeval Teutons," not apparently noticing the similarity of circumstances in these communities separated by centuries. The individuals were differently equipped, but the founders of New England occupied a position very like that of the first founders of villages in Old England. The town government occupies so prominent a place because it represents almost the only authority and the only cause for mutual concessions and support. For scanty public duties simple forms suffice. The real difficulty lies in adjusting greater burdens, in devising new forms which shall be strong without being arbitrary.

In his closing chapter Mr. Hosmer heaves a sigh over the decay of the town-meeting system. He is unnecessarily alarmed. Our towns will be the same a century hence, for the foreign element in the second generation takes to debates and parliamentary law with an avidity which would have surprised a North End caucus in Adams's time. The real problem, as Mr. Hosmer states, is to organize a city government; and this mainly because a city requires so much more than a town. That problem is being slowly worked out, and its solution is mainly hampered by the recollections of the town-meeting. Massachusetts is again the chosen ground for the fight. Already sixty per cent. of its inhabitants live in cities, and the next social and political revolution will be the transfer of power to those corporations.

The Russian Revolt: its Causes, Conditions, and Prospects. By Edmund Noble. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885.

We are far from satisfied with this little book as a pragmatic exposition, which it aims to be, of the origin, growth, and present significance of the revolutionary movement which for years has been menacing the Czarish order of things in the great Slavic empire. But we can say, on the other hand, that it is the production of a writer familiar with Russia and her history, her people and her woes, from study as well as from personal experience; and—which is saying more—that it can be read with interest even after the writings on the same subject of Eckardt, Leroy-Beaulieu, "Stepniak," and others. The authors just mentioned, though seldom referred to by Mr. Noble, have evidently been his guides; but he presents his views and conclusions with an animation and warmth indicative of personal observation and sympathetic study. There is considerable force in some of his descriptions of the past and present—descriptions, unfortunately, almost always tinged with despondency—as witness the following:

"The tendency really universal in Russia is to pessimism. This penetrates all spheres of thought, gives its hues to every coterie and school, creates resemblances between the most diverse productions of the pen, restores as with a bond of gloom the shattered solidarity of society. . . . Not to be pessimistic in Russia is to be divorced from all contact and sympathy with the national life; to be cut off, either by foreign birth or by some monstrous denial of nature, from the tree of the national development. All influences and epochs have contributed to the tendency. A monotonous landscape, the loss of free institutions, Byzantinism with its cruel law-giving and ascetic tyranny, the fiscal burdens of the new State, the antitheses suggested by European culture, the crushing of the individual, the elimination from Russian life of all those healthy activities which engage citizenship in other countries, the harassing restrictions upon thought and movements, the State-created frivolities of society—all these have contributed to the gloom of the mental atmosphere, until to-day pessimism may be said to be the normal condition of all Russian thought. . . . The lives of Pushkin, Lermontoff, Gogol, Dostoyevsky, and many other of Russia's greatest men were passed in a perpetual struggle with the pessimistic tendency. . . . Herzen doubted whether it was possible for any Russian to be genuinely merry. He called the Russian laugh a *ricanement maladif*. . . ."

This extract contains a virtual epitome of the main point in the author's view of Russian development. Like "Stepniak" and his school, he holds "Byzantine" Christianity and Czardom in its later development—accidental evils, as "Stepniak" would say—responsible for all the terrible ills which Russia has been writhing under. In spite of her "monotonous landscape," on which, as on other "environments," he dwells at length, Russia was happy and merry, because free, federative, and democratic, before the Nessus-shirt of the Byzantine religion was violently fastened upon her, having in its folds "the three unities": "unity in deity, unity in sovereignty, unity in territory." This not unmixed calamity was followed, after some centuries, by the unmixed one of the Tartar yoke, and, when this was broken, by the equally calamitous omnipotence of Czardom. But the Slavs being a freedom-loving race *par excellence*, the protests of the Russian nation against oppression have not ceased, manifesting themselves in the religious schism known as the Raskol; in wild popular insurrections—like Stenka Razin's in the seventeenth century and Pugatcheff's in the eighteenth; in republican conspiracies like that of the Decembrists in 1825; in the clandestine agitations of Hertzen and his school under Nicholas; in the more widespread and earnest propaganda under Alexander II.; in university demonstrations; in the regicidal attempts of Karakozoff, Solovieff, Hartmann, and Salturin, and the fatal one carried out under the lead of Zheliaboff and Sophia Perovskaya; and in the many murders of Czarish officials which preceded or followed the catastrophe of March 13, 1881. This movement is bound to triumph, and with its victory Russia will be redeemed, regenerated, and freed from the lust of conquest, and Europe delivered of a constant menace. This theme is elaborated by Mr. Noble, with occasional obscurity and inflation, in a manner of which the following may afford an example:

"Just as a mass of water may assume the character of a still lake, a rippling brook, a noisy waterfall, may ascend even in vapor and appear as a cloud, yet retain unchanging the nature and properties of its essence, so the Russian revolt takes all protean shapes in the process of its expression. Constrained by circumstance to manifest itself as passive discontent, as religious protest, as philosophical dogma, as ethnological sentiment, as negation in criticism, as Nihilism in morals, as Socialism, as incitement to revolution, or as violence and terrorism, the revolt never varies in its inner being, never changes in its essence, but remains the immutable antithesis of absolutism; in this aspect not tainted with the immorality of force, or soiled with the shedding of blood, but fair as the cause of human liberty, and irradiated with the sunlight of awakened human consciouseness in its struggle with the darker hemisphere of the national life."

Dogmatic one-sidedness is the general defect of the book, which is, besides, not free from inaccuracies of detail, not a little surprising when we consider the author's knowledge of Russian and use of good original materials. Thus—to mention only a few slips—Russia's great painter, Vereshagin, is always called Vere*shch*agin; the "chemist of terrorism," Kibaltchitch, repeatedly Kibal*shch*ich; Sophia Perovskaya is at one place (p. 202) stated to have been the niece, and at another (p. 220)—here correctly—the granddaughter, of the Minister of Public Instruction, Perovski; Vera Zasulitch, who was implicated in the Netchayeff plottings of 1873, is represented as a girl of sixteen when attempting the life of Trepoff in 1878.

The Chinese Painted by Themselves. By Colonel Tcheng-ki-tong. Scribner & Welford.

Bits of Old China. By William C. Hunter. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.

The Cross and the Dragon. By B. C. Henry. A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

'The Chinese Painted by Themselves' is a book purporting to have been written in French by "Colonel Tcheng-ki-tong, military attaché of China at Paris." In its make-up it suggests a projectile, or the use to which volumes are put by irate schoolmasters when the ears of urchins need boxing. It is flung at the reader in a mass, with few of the appurtenances of a well-made book. The frontispiece presents a belted and mandarin-capped young Chinese, who may be the alleged author; but no legend, note, or reference gives any information as to his name or personality. Certainly his garb is not that of a Chinese colonel in uniform. The book, even in its trans-

lated form, is too thoroughly French to deceive. The style is that of the boulevard *demi-sou* newspaper, and the thoroughly Gallic ear-marks are patent. It is a screed intended to satirize Parisian politics, social life, and customs, rather than to inform concerning the sons of Han. In its occasional citing of passages from English books on China its amazing incorrectness in misprinting foreign names is accomplished with true French originality. We doubt whether a Chinaman, without the assistance of a *boulevardier*, could be guilty of such misprints. Such a person as Tcheng-ki tong may exist, he may be a colonel of infantry, and he may have written much of the tedious matter of the book; but the flavor of the writing is so Frenchy that we prefer to trust for our information about the Chinese to foreign instead of native authors of the Tcheng-ki-tong sort. A thoroughly honest book, which can fairly claim the title here usurped, is certainly needed.

'Bits of Old China' is the unpretentious title of a collection of memorabilia by one familiar with life at the seaports of China a generation or two ago. The author was already known by works of a similar nature entitled 'Old Canton' and 'The Fankwae [foreigner] at Canton before Treaty Days.' The sketches treat of curious characters, pleasant places, stirring events of war and peace, literary, epulary, and commercial incidents, which make the days of sailing vessels and non-telegraphic business methods seem romantic and even poetic. The author, in living over the days when American commerce was proportionately more of a power in China than at present, intersperses his narrative with anecdotes interesting to our countrymen, and especially to old residents of China. Some specimen titles of his short chapters may give one an idea of the variety of contents: "Doctor Cox's Visit to a Chinese Patient," "Jade Stone," "Bronze Vases and Tripods," "Black Dragon Tea," "Public Schools," "Macao—Old Residents," "The Sea-Screen Temple," "Incidents of the War of 1842." The following sentence illustrates the author's style:

"With the Chinese the medical man is paid so long as his patrons continue in health, but when sickness occurs payment ceases until recovery takes place; then it recommences. Amongst other droll ideas, . . . we find that the *goose* is the emblem of married life, the *bat* of happiness, the *duck* of domestic bliss, and the long-legged *stork* of longevity. After all, the Chinese are—at least were until Treaty days—a happy and contented people, of exemplary industry, sober, and of simple tastes, passing through the ordeal of existence as sensibly and successfully, in view of their resources, as the inhabitants of any other land."

'The Cross and the Dragon' is the artless story of a missionary's life in Canton. The sub-title, "Light in the Broad East," refers to the increase of Christian life and knowledge in the province of Kwang-tong, in which the city is situated, and of the name of which the English sound is a corruption. The narrative has little value from a literary point of view, though some of its chapters, such as that on Geomancy, are freshly worded, showing that the author has seen as well as heard and read. The book would have gained in value and sprightliness if its original bulk in manuscript had been reduced one-half. The loss of the hideously cheap "process" sketches, and the ridiculous little note by Joseph Cook, which has only local value, would not even now be missed with pain by readers. The style, too, smacks too much of a speech before the General Assembly or Synod. Apart from these defects, the volume contains the results of original observation during a period of ten years, judgments clearly expressed, and facts calculated to encourage the believer in the final triumph of Christianity. As an honest picture of actual missionary labor, methods, results, and prospects, it is one of the latest and best of its kind. The genial, catholic spirit of the writer charms and wins. The frontispiece, representing him surrounded by his Chinese elders, shows that he bears a striking resemblance to the President of the United States.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. E. A. Francis Bacon: An Account of his Life and Works. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Alexander, Mrs. A Second Life. A Novel. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia and Register of Important Events. For the Year 1884. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
A Superior Woman. [No Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.
Ashton, J. Old Times: A Picture of Social life at the End of the Eighteenth Century. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford.
At the Red Glove. A Novel. Harper & Brothers.
Bailey, L. H., jr. Talks Afield about Plants and the Science of Plants. Boston: Houghton Mifflin & Co. $1.
Barbou, A. Victor Hugo and his Time. Profusely illustrated. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 18, 1885.

The Week.

THE Ohio Republican platform, which is significant because it is the first formal utterance of the party since the national election, is very dreary reading. It seems to have been constructed on the model of the daily anti-Cleveland editorial article in the *Tribune*, though we miss the familiar allusion to Higgins and Pillsbury. It declares that the Democratic victory of last fall was won by "wilful suppression of the ballot," which is a much less striking way of putting that "issue" than the temporary Chairman of the Convention hit upon when he called it "a combination of crimes, accidents, and blunders," which is threatening to grasp this nation and "hurl its dissevered fragments into the vortex of anarchy and dissolution." On the labor question, the platform calls for "such legislation as will harmonize the relations of labor and capital and promote the welfare of the people," demands a national bureau of industry and the enforcement of the eight-hour-law, denounces the importation of contract labor, and favors such a protective tariff as will encourage American development and furnish remunerative employment to American labor. All these "issues" are warmed over from the last campaign, from which they emerged in a very sloppy condition. The remainder of the platform is made up of a demand for the restoration of the wool duty of 1867, condemnation of the national Administration, pledges of fidelity to the Civil-Service Law, and denunciation of Democratic administration in Ohio.

So far as we have seen them, all the party journals which gave the Republican Presidential ticket the most hearty support last year, are delighted with the Ohio Republican platform. Their praise is in all cases centred upon the planks which wave the bloody shirt and denounce the President for putting ex-rebels in office. About the civil-service-reform plank, which is the only sensible utterance in the document, they have little or nothing to say. These comments, taken together with the facts that the platform was reported and probably written by the same man who was at the head of the Platform Committee of the last National Republican Convention, and that its sentiments are the same as those which Mr. Blaine expressed in his bitter speech at Augusta after the election, seem to show conclusively that the party is wedded to its sectional idol, and will live and die in its embrace. This is Bourbonism of the most fatuous kind, for there is nothing in the Ohio resolutions which can be galvanized into a live issue. From first to last—excepting always the civil-service declaration—they are an arraignment of the Democratic party for alleged tendencies, crimes, and misdemeanors which are simply bugaboos. There are no specifications. The President is charged with "general discrimination" in his appointments against Union soldiers and in favor of rebel soldiers; but there is no proof of such a charge, and the people who make the assertion know it to be false. The Republican party is said to look "with the deepest regret upon the failure of the present Administration to promote the reforms of the civil service," yet not an instance can be found in which there has been a violation of the reform laws. Every member of the Civil-Service Commission has testified to this fact repeatedly.

It looks very much as if the public career of the late Secretary Chandler had closed forever. His canvass for the Senatorship in New Hampshire has had a ludicrously weak ending. After a great deal of valiant talk about his strength in the Legislature being so great that it was likely to cause a deadlock, and after a declaration that he would not consent to abide by a caucus decision unless it showed a decisive majority for some particular candidate, he has gone into caucus and come out with a grand total of 37 votes to 108 for his chief rival, Senator Blair. Chandler is said to "feel his defeat keenly," as he expected a prolonged contest in which his power would be demonstrated. He sees now no way of regaining his prestige. His career as a journalist is also clouded. He laid his plans to get the State printing for the paper of which he has recently acquired the control, but the Legislature has voted it to a rival journal. The outlook is gloomy all around. In his recent stirring speech on naval construction there was a fine passage in which he favored taking the navy out of politics. The Legislature seems to have seized upon the idea, and taken him out.

One feature of the Senatorial contest in New Hampshire has not received the attention which it deserves. This is the activity of the Republican Federal office-holders in behalf of Blair, the successful candidate. A careful correspondent who watched the fight at Concord, reports that "Blair's best workers have been the Federal office-holders"; "the most active is Pension Agent Cheney"; "Internal Revenue Collector Putney, with his chief deputy, James E. French, are both here and active"; while Postmaster Stevens, of Manchester, and Naval Officer Hall, of the Boston Custom-house, are also mentioned as among "Blair's best workers." These facts certainly warrant some summary removals by the President of Federal office-holders in New Hampshire, on the ground that they have been "offensive partisans" and that such officials "should be taught," in the words of the famous letter of last December, "that efficiency, fitness, and devotion to public duty are the conditions of their continuance in public place." It is worth while to contrast this display at Concord with the course of the Administration at the Illinois capital during the long struggle over the Senatorship in that State. Although the Democratic Administration came into control of the Federal patronage two months before the conclusion of that contest, it scrupulously refrained from bringing any influence to bear upon the evenly divided Legislature. The leader of "the gang" which has run Democratic politics in the State declares "we could have elected a Democratic Senator if Judd had used the patronage of the Chicago Post-office," and there is no doubt that he tells the truth about it. The contrast is the more striking because Mr. Judd was appointed as successor of a man removed for "offensive partisanship," and his course shows that he at least comprehends the force of the pregnant clause in Mr. Cleveland's letter which we italicize: "such officials, *as well as their successors*, should be taught" their proper prerogatives.

The delegation of Philadelphia Mugwumps who visited the President the other day, came away much impressed with his honesty of purpose and determination to do right. They went on for the purpose of getting two or three Federal officials in Philadelphia, in whose efficiency and non-partisanship they had confidence—among them the Postmaster—retained in office. They found the President very well informed indeed about the Federal functionaries in that city, and he somewhat dumfounded them by the production of a letter of the Postmaster, written in 1881 to a newly-appointed letter-carrier, telling him not to get his uniform or file his bond until he answered the charge of "not supporting the Republican party" at the previous election, and of "working against it." The delegation were only able to plead that Huidekoper had grown in civil-service reform since then, like so many other men; but the President asked for signs of repentance in the appointment of a Democrat or two out of the 80,000 in Philadelphia to assist in the work of the Post-office. These the delegation were not able to produce. At this writing it looks dark for Huidekoper, but we venture to say that if allowed to remain he will never write another letter to a subordinate about "supporting the party," nor if removed will his successor inquire curiously into the politics of sub-carriers. The world moves slowly, but it moves.

Secretary Manning has sent a letter to the General Appraiser of the Custom-house which is of itself a remarkable commentary upon the kind of government we have had in this country for the past ten or fifteen years. He has found it necessary to set forth at much length the law governing the appraising of imports, and to instruct all officers engaged in that service to obey the law. The closing passage of his letter is especially noteworthy:

> "This department expects that all appraising officers, including the general appraisers, will coöperate in all proper measures for the suppression of undervaluations and the just and uniform appraisement of imported merchandise, to the end that the tariff laws may be strictly enforced, and fair and honorable merchants protected from loss by the dishonest practices of unscrupulous importers."

The meaning of the letter is that a Democratic Administration, whose accession was "viewed with alarm" because of its alleged free-trade tendencies, has found it necessary to come to the rescue of the protective system of the country. That the abuses which Mr. Man-

ning says must be broken up, actually exist in the Custom-house management, nobody appears to doubt. The evidence of their existence is overwhelming. There are reams of it, taken under oath, on file in the Treasury Department, and there is not a merchant of any standing in the city who could not add to it out of his own experience. Even the officials who are accused of the violations of the law do not deny it. The former Appraiser, Mr. Ketchum, when confronted with the official record of 1,709 invoices illegally recalled and altered in his department in 1884, did not attempt to explain why he had allowed the law to be violated, but coolly made a calculation that in order for him to recall all these in person he would have had to pass upon an average of five a day, the "very suggestion" of which was "unreasonable and absurd." It was his opinion that most of the "recalling" had been done by assistant appraisers and examiners for corrections of a "purely incidental character." Unfortunately for Mr. Ketchum, there is a great mass of sworn evidence that nearly all the "recalling" was done at his special order, that nearly all of it resulted in reductions, and that a great deal of it was in the interest of the same set of importers. It does not seem to have occurred to Mr. Ketchum that the law expressly forbids "recalling" of any kind.

Proofs that a new era has opened at Washington multiply. The action of the Postmaster-General regarding the subsidy question is especially significant. The last fight which the Republicans made in Congress was in defence of the subsidy system. The Democratic House stood out against it, but the Republican majority in the Senate insisted, and finally succeeded, by means of a conference committee in the last hours of the session, in getting into the Post-office Appropriation Bill a clause authorizing the Postmaster-General to pay $400,000 to American steamships carrying the mails, at the rate of 50 cents a mile. Mr. Vilas has been investigating the subject, and he finds, in the first place, that there is no need of paying any more for carrying the ocean mails than the present liberal rates, and, in the second place, that the appropriation is only a third as large as would be required for a fair and uniform system of payment to all American vessels engaged in this service. As the act of Congress is not mandatory, but merely gives him permission to expend the money, the Postmaster-General has decided, with the approval of the President, to take no action in the matter, but to remit the subject to Congress for more explicit legislation. The practical effect of this conclusion is twofold. It casts a gloom over the stockholders of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, but it saves the taxpayers of the country the snug sum of $400,000.

Two events happened in Florida last week which throw a flood of light upon the character of the two political parties in the South. One was the death on Monday of L. G. Dennis, "the Little Giant of Alachua"; the other, the meeting on Tuesday of the convention called to frame a new State Constitution. Dennis was the typical carpet-bagger of the reconstruction era. He appeared in Florida during the rebellion as a captain in a Massachusetts regiment, settled in the State after the war was over, rose to prominence in the Republican party by reason of his shrewdness and unscrupulousness, stole the vote of the State for Hayes by planning and carrying through a fraud in the returns for his county large enough to overcome the honest Tilden majority, and after years of obscurity and obloquy, made a last bid for fame by a wager that he could drink two quarts of whiskey at a sitting, winning his bet, but losing his life by delirium tremens.

The second was the action of the Constitutional Convention—the first which has met in Florida since the Democrats came into power. If Republican predictions were good for anything, its assembling should foreshadow terrible woes to the poor negro. Unfortunately for the Blaine organs, however, the body began its work by unanimously electing as President a liberal and progressive Democrat, who made a speech which it is quite impossible to "view with alarm." He pronounced the present an auspicious time for such a convention, since "the passions engendered by the late war have cooled; the Union is firmly restored and permanently established; the people have become accustomed to their new political relations; those to whom the right of suffrage was extended by the Reconstruction Acts are learning to discharge the duties of citizenship with judgment and intelligence; the importance of educational progress was never more generally realized; the great work of internal improvement is extending to every portion of the State, and our wonderful resources are being constantly and industriously developed." He insisted that mere partisanship had no proper place in their councils, and declared that the new instrument "should be broad enough to cover our entire population" and "should clearly recognize the changes made in the national Constitution." Indeed, there is nothing in either the letter or the spirit of the speech to which any honest Northern man can take reasonable exception, and a comparison of the way in which this convention opens, with the record of "the Little Giant of Alachua," ought to unseal the eyes of even the bitterest Republican partisan.

The custom of lumping together all the old slave States as "the solid South," and the frequent reference to the civil war as a struggle between slavery and freedom, are calculated to give the rising generation a very incorrect idea regarding the parties to that great contest. Indeed, many of the generation which lived through it have either forgotten or never fully appreciated the large measure of assistance rendered to the Union cause by the more northern of the slave States. A recent compilation of the deaths which occurred in the Union army brings out this interesting feature of the struggle very clearly. Kentucky's population available for military service was not much larger than Michigan's, yet no less than 10,774 Kentucky men gave up their lives for the Union, as against 14,753 from Michigan. Tennessee, still nearer the heart of the Confederacy, sacrificed no less than 6,777 of her sons in the same cause. Missouri, with not so many white males between the ages of 18 and 45 as Massachusetts by over 25,000, had a death-roll in the Union army of 13,887, while that of Massachusetts was but 13,942. Delaware had only about half as many white males as Rhode Island in 1860, and her 882 Union dead constituted a larger proportion of her population than Rhode Island's 1,321. Such figures as these show how absurd it is to talk about the Southern States which voted for Cleveland as "rebel States." It may not be true that, if the slave States had gone solidly into the rebellion, it would have succeeded, but it is certainly plain that but for the help given the Union cause by Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri of the "Solid South," the struggle would have been much prolonged, and the difficulties of the Federal Government vastly increased.

The Republicans in the Tennessee Legislature have again defeated the passage of any registration bill at the extra session, as they had previously done at the regular session. A measure was proposed by the Democrats last spring which provided for a fair system of registering voters in all large places throughout the State, but the Republicans fought it bitterly from the first, by fair means and foul. Last week the bill was passed in the Senate, three Republican members refusing to break a quorum, but when it came up in the House, just before the session must expire, the Republicans interposed all sorts of dilatory tactics, and, as a last resort, enough of them to break the quorum left their seats, ran down the aisle, leaped over the iron wicket gate at the rear, and escaped before the Sergeant-at-Arms could stop them. Republican organs have long been abusing the Democrats roundly for their failure to throw safeguards around the ballot-box. It is a curious commentary upon these diatribes that a Democratic Legislature in Ohio was the first to pass a registration law for the great cities of that State, and that it was the Republicans who prevented the adoption of such a system in Tennessee.

Both parties share in the responsibility for denying Pennsylvania a new apportionment of legislators and Congressmen. The Democratic Governor vetoed the bill passed by the Republican Legislature, on the ground that it was a gerrymandering scheme, and the Republicans in the Legislature have failed to carry it over his opposition, because a dozen Republicans in the House, from personal motives, sought a new deal, which they hoped might be more favorable to their political ambition. The whole business has been wretchedly botched. The scheme presented by the Republicans was more favorable to the Democrats than the existing arrangement, and fair enough to command the votes of some Democrats against sustaining the veto. The Governor's course was not justifiable as a matter of public policy, and it was as stupid in its partisan bearing as that of Governor Hill regarding the census in this State.

Some statistics were recently presented regarding the consumption of spirituous liquors, malt liquors, and native wines in 1860 and 1884 respectively, which showed a considerably smaller production of spirits in the latter year than in 1860, despite an increase of more than 75 per cent. in population, while there had been an immense growth in the call for malt liquors and native wines. An attempt has been made to impugn the deduction from these figures that there has been a marked diminution in the prevalence of whiskey-drinking, by the claim that no fair comparison can be made between the production of spirits in 1860 and 1884. It is said that at the earlier date the cheapness of alcohol led to its extensive use in the arts and manufactures, and particularly in the composition of "burning fluid," while the imposition of the internal-revenue tax carried up the price so high as greatly to diminish its use in these branches of industry, and the discovery of petroleum supplanted the old-fashioned illuminating agent. The most conclusive way to dispose of this question is to dismiss all consideration of the 1860 figures and substitute the record for a later period, when all such disturbing elements had no more weight than now. Here are the official statistics of the production of spirits from grain during the five fiscal years beginning with July, 1870, and the five beginning with July, 1880, the total for the twelvemonth now closing being estimated by the Commissioner of Internal Revenue:

Years.	Gallons.	Years.	Gallons.
1870-71	54,576,446	1880-81	117,728,150
1871-72	68,275,745	1881-82	105,853,161
1872-73	68,236,567	1882-83	74,013,308
1873-74	68,805,374	1883-84	75,435,739
1874-75	60,930,425	1884-85	72,000,000

The manufacture of whiskey, like all other industries, is affected by the general financial condition of the country, and the flush times which preceded the panic of 1873, as well as the boom which culminated in 1882, led to great activity in this business. This was aggravated in the latter period by a great speculative movement, and the whiskey market has not yet recovered from the tremendous overproduction of 1880-1882. The figures for those two years carry the average for the second period a trifle above 89,000,000 gallons annually, although the probabilities are that the actual consumption is not over 80,000,000 gallons. With these two years included, the average yearly product from 1880 to 1885 is 38 per cent. greater than from 1870 to 1875. The actual production for 1885 was only 25 per cent. larger than in 1870, but a fair estimate would make the real demand fifteen years ago about 60,000,000 gallons, and now not over 80,000,000—an increase of 33 per cent. Within these fifteen years the population of the country has increased fully 45 per cent., or considerably faster than the production of whiskey. On any possible showing, therefore, it appears clear that the American people do not drink so much whiskey per capita now as they used to do.

Medford rum is, we believe, still made in Massachusetts, but its glory is a thing of the past in its ancient stronghold. The substitution of the milder malt beverages for the old-fashioned stronger liquors is making steady progress in the old home of the Puritans, as in other parts of the country where the influence of German immigration was more immediately felt. The Police Commissioners of Boston report that during the past year only 1,318 licenses were granted in that city for the sale of distilled liquors to be drunk on the premises, as against 1,535 in the previous year, while the number of places licensed to sell only malt liquors and light wines rose in the same period from 56 to 236. The whole number of saloons thus remains nearly as large as before, but the number where only the milder sort of drinks is sold has increased fourfold. Such a change in the character of the liquor drunk ought, theoretically, to be reflected in a decrease in the amount of intemperance in the community. The facts sustain the theory, as the arrests for drunkenness during the past year, despite a perceptible increase in the population, were less by over 10 per cent. than in the previous year. There is food in these figures for much reflection on the part of temperance advocates.

The June report of the Department of Agriculture is on the whole very encouraging. It gives an increase in the cotton area of 5 to 6 per cent., the total being about 18,000,000 acres. The promise of the crop is better than in the three preceding years in June, with unusual uniformity in the various States. The accounts of the winter wheat, on the other hand, are very dismal. The report says that its condition is lower than ever before in June, and the average yield will not be over ten bushels to the acre. Spring wheat looks better, with an area about the same as last year, and the indications as to the yield are 360,000,000 bushels, or 23,000,000 bushels short of 1881. There is no perceptible change in the rye and barley prospect of last year, but the acreage of oats has increased.

The figures of railroad construction in this country have for years constituted a sort of financial barometer. In the flush times which preceded the panic of a dozen years ago there was a boom in this industry, which carried the number of miles of new track laid in the first five months of 1872 up to 1,305. From this height there was a rapid and steady fall, until the total for the corresponding period of 1875 was only 250 miles. Then a rise set in, at first gradual and then by leaps and bounds, which made the construction for the first five months of 1882 no less than 2,991 miles. Since then there has been a falling off each year of nearly or quite one-half from the record for the preceding year, until the *Railroad Gazette* reports the number of miles of new road constructed between January 1 and May 31, 1885, as only 451. The corresponding figures for 1884 were 885 miles, and there are no signs as yet of any recovery in the business. The showing, however, is not altogether discouraging. Nothing is plainer than that the activity of 1880-1882 in this direction was to a large extent feverish and unhealthy. The business of railroad building was overdone, and many lines were constructed in advance of any adequate demand or support. The effect was bad on the general financial situation, and the country now has much more reason to desire a return of moderate activity in this branch of industry than any such spurts as those of three to five years ago.

Some suggestive statistics regarding traffic movements by the trunk lines are presented in the current number of the *Railroad Gazette*. Allowing a reasonable estimate for the Lackawanna and the West Shore roads, which have made no detailed reports, the movement of all freight, except live-stock and dressed beef, from the Western termini of the Eastern trunk lines destined for New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, reached a total of 7,484,286 tons in 1880, rose to 8,258,834 in 1881, and then sank suddenly to 5,487,677 in 1882, from which it fell still lower in the next two years, the aggregate for 1884 being only 4,680,580 tons. Seven-tenths of this falling-off was in the two great staples of flour and provisions, and the decrease was, of course, chiefly due to the diminished demand for export. This is demonstrated by a comparison of the shipments from the same Western points to Eastern destinations outside the seaboard cities, and therefore exclusively for home consumption, which have increased from 3,060,062 tons in 1880 to 4,225,808 in 1884. The West-bound movement of freight is a better index to the business condition of the country, since the prosperity of the community is measured by its ability to purchase goods, and more than five-sixths of the imports are made at these four seaboard cities. There was a steady and enormous growth of this traffic from 1878 to 1882, the yearly total rising in this period from 1,288,225 to 2,405,460 tons, but it has fallen off largely in the past two years, reaching only 1,922,192 tons in 1884, although two more roads were competing for the business in the latter year. The showing, as a whole, is not one which stockholders in any of the trunk lines can contemplate with much satisfaction.

The appearances are all in favor of the supposition that "The Foreign Resident" who has written the little book on 'Society in London,' is no other than Mr. Edmund Yates, the editor of the London *World*. The style is distinctly that of 'The Memoirs of a Man of the World,' by the same author. The account of Mr. Labouchere is simply a specimen of the banter so frequently exchanged between "Edmund" and "Henry" in their respective journals. The portrait of Lord Coleridge is evidently the work of a man who has suffered at his hands, and is determined on vengeance of some kind. Finally, to Mr. Yates himself are assigned the qualities on which, if one may judge from his autobiography, he most plumes himself—vivacity as a talker, talent as a raconteur, a tenacious memory, a quick eye, the possession of much social reminiscence, and, to crown all, lots of "vitality and vigor." To have said less or more than this would have excited suspicion. The treatment of Lord Coleridge is in somewhat striking contrast to that accorded to most of the other characters. It is the fashion in this species of literature now to be kindly on the whole, and, when there is any damning to be done, to do it with faint praise or very delicate irony.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, June 10, to TUESDAY, June 16, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has furnished another illustration of his determination not to make any appointments of members of his own family. The most prominent candidate for superintendent of one of the new public buildings in Ohio—Mr. Bacon, of Toledo, an architect of high repute—is a brother-in-law of the President, and was strongly recommended. But the President says it will be better to bestow the appointment on some one else.

With the approval of the President, and after consultation with the Cabinet, Postmaster-General Vilas has decided not to advertise for bids to enter into contracts for the transportation of the foreign mails upon a mileage basis, under the permissive authority conferred by the act of Congress of March 3, 1885. He thinks that the compensation is already fair and just, and a carrier by water, as by land, is bound to receive and carry for a fair compensation. Then, too, foreign vessels which compete with American steamship lines have been willing, and are still willing, to carry for the same rates. At the rate of fifty cents per mile it would require $1,151,615 to pay the American vessels employed during the year 1884, and it becomes at once apparent that the $400,000 appropriated cannot be so extended as to afford all these vessels a subsidy at the full rate.

Secretary Manning has revoked all Treasury orders about the disinfection of rags, leaving all vessels entering American ports with rags on board subject to the local health regulations. The authorities believed that the work of disinfection could be safely intrusted to local health authorities, and that it would be as thorough as it could be under the Government. Surgeon-General Hamilton, of the Marine Hospital service, abandoned his opposition to the repeal of the regulations on the ground that the health ordinances of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and other ports have become much more stringent.

In a letter to the Appraiser at Philadelphia Secretary Manning writes: "There appears to be no good reason for the failure of the appraising officers either in Philadelphia or New York to advance invoices of consigned goods which are unquestionably undervalued to equal at least the cost of production. The fact that a reduction of such advance might be made on appraisement, or that at some other port the same class of goods may be passed at a lower value, is not a valid reason to justify your failure to perform a plain official duty. It is not for you to assume that the importer will appeal from your action, or that, if he appeals, your action may be reversed on reappraisement. The law (section 2,902 Revised Statutes) makes it your duty to ascertain, estimate, and appraise the true and actual market value and wholesale price of the merchandise at the time of exportation and in the principal markets of the country whence the same has been imported into the United States; and when it shall appear that such true and actual market value cannot be ascertained to your satisfaction, you are to ascertain the cost of production pursuant to the ninth section of the act of 1883 referred to, and in no case to appraise the goods at less than the cost so ascertained. These statutes are plain, and the appraising officers must comply with and enforce them."

The despatch boat *Dolphin* made her trial trip at sea on Thursday under the same conditions as if she were actually in commission. Her coal bunkers were full, and the weight of her future armament, of her stores, and of her crew was represented by an equivalent weight of pig iron. She made the run from Scotland Lightship to Barnegat and return in six hours, her average speed being at least 13.9 knots per hour, which is in excess of the Government requirement. On Friday Secretary Whitney telegraphed to the President of the Examining Board: "Yesterday's trial was, as you know, wholly valueless. It occurred without my orders or knowledge. I find that the orders were given here in my absence under a mistake. To test her strength when subjected to the strain of a heavy sea was the object of the trial. I do not doubt her ability to run thirteen knots an hour in smooth water. I want to know whether she is structurally weak or not." He added that more tests should be required if necessary for the Board to make a proper determination of the vessel's qualities.

The report of the Court of Inquiry in the case of Paymaster-General J. A. Smith, Chief of the Bureau of Provisions and Clothing, Navy Department, made public on Tuesday, finds that he has been in many ways unfaithful to the trust imposed upon him by his office. The Secretary of the Navy has decided to order a court-martial for the trial of the case.

Commissioner Mann summoned to his office in Washington on Monday the entire force of the Statistical Bureau of the Agricultural Department, numbering twenty-one persons, and announced that there would remain no money to pay their salaries after the 20th inst. They were all furloughed without pay from the 20th inst. until the 1st of July.

The bill to apportion the State of Pennsylvania into Congressional districts was passed in the Senate on Wednesday night over the Governor's veto by a two-thirds vote. The Republican majority is three less than two-thirds. Senator Agnew, Republican, announced that he could not vote with his party, as the bill was unfair politically, and illegal in other respects; but Senators Hart, Ross, of Green, Sutton, and Vandergrift, all Democrats, voted with the Republicans, making exactly the number necessary to pass the bill. The bill was, however, defeated in the House on Thursday by the votes of several Republicans.

The Republican caucus of the New Hampshire legislators on Thursday night renominated Henry W. Blair for United States Senator on the first ballot. He received 108 votes. Ex-Secretary Chandler got 37.

The Ohio Republican Convention on Thursday nominated Judge Joseph B. Foraker for Governor on the first ballot, with General Robert P. Kennedy for Lieutenant-Governor, Judge George W. McIlvane for the Supreme Court, John C. Brown for Treasurer, J. A. Kohler for Attorney-General, and Wells S. Jones for member of the Board of Public Works. Among the planks in the platform are the following: "The Democratic party, which owes its national victory last fall to the wilful suppression of the ballot, cannot be looked to for the enforcement of these constitutional guarantees, and the hope of the friends of equal laws and equal suffrage is in the Republican party, which pledges itself to wage the contest to a successful end. We are in favor of a protective tariff which will encourage American development and furnish remunerative employment to American labor, and we are opposed to the British policy advocated by the Democratic party under the guise of a tariff for revenue only. We demand restoration of the wool duty of 1867, or its full equivalent, and we denounce the Democratic Congress for failing to make good the pledges they made in this behalf. The elevation to important and honorable offices of the Government of unrepentant rebels, whose political disabilities have not been removed, is a flagrant violation of the Constitution and an insult to the loyal people of the whole country; and we denounce the Administration of President Cleveland for its general discrimination, in the appointments so far made, against Union soldiers and Union men in behalf of those who fought against the Union."

It is asserted that Blaine is to take the stump for Foraker in Ohio.

Governor Hill, of this State, on Thursday, vetoed the Broadway Arcade Railroad Bill. He has also vetoed Dr. Gunn's Medical College Bill, the Brooklyn Bridge Bill, and the bill to provide for the computation and preparation of certain criminal statistics by the Prison Association of New York.

Governor Hill on Saturday filed a document vetoing a great many items of the Supply Bill, among them: "For the deficiency in the appropriation for the expenses of legislative committees, fees of counsel and stenographer engaged therein, and for other contingent expenses of the Legislature, $20,000; for the State Board of Health, for deficiency in their appropriation for sanitary inspectors, compensation and travelling expenses, $15,000; and for Commissioners of Emigration, for rebuilding landing wharf at Castle Garden in the City of New York, $10,000. Not approved."

General Grant was on Tuesday taken from this city to a cottage on Mount McGregor, New York. He made the journey safely, but was much fatigued.

While the epidemic at Plymouth, Penn., appears to be rapidly abating, there is every symptom that it is about to break out in other and neighboring towns. Sugar Notch, a mining borough of about 2,000 people, is suffering from typhoid fever that promises to assume serious proportions.

The Harvard base-ball nine have won the inter-collegiate base-ball championship over Princeton, Yale, Amherst, Brown, and Dartmouth.

The body of Alexander H. Stephens was removed on Wednesday from Atlanta to its final resting place at his old home, Liberty Hall, Crawfordsville, Ga.

Giovanni Francesco Secchi de Casali, editor and proprietor of *L'Eco d'Italia*, of this city, died on Wednesday morning, at his home in Elizabeth, N. J. Signor de Casali was born in Piacenza of a good family. In 1836, when scarcely seventeen years old, he conspired with other students against the Government, and was compelled to go abroad. He established his newspaper here in 1848, and made it very influential among Italians. The King of Italy has several times honored him with decorations.

James H. Rutter, President of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad, died on Friday, at Irvington. He was 49 years of age. He succeeded Mr. Vanderbilt as President in May, 1883.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Parnell is elated at the overthrow of the Gladstone Ministry. He says: "We have taught a lesson to all future Cabinets. We have got rid of the present one, with its successive failures of Forster, Trevelyan, and Spencer; we have saved the only remaining industry of Ireland—whiskey—from a permanent burden; and we have put an end to coercion forever." He adds that his party will give the Tories a fair trial.

The London *Standard* authoritatively announced on Wednesday that the Conservatives, if requested by the Queen, would undertake the formation of a new Ministry.

A private deputation of Conservative members of Parliament waited upon Sir Stafford Northcote and the Marquis of Salisbury on Wednesday, and urged them to refuse office. The Marquis of Salisbury stated that if the Queen called them they must form a Government. He would support Sir Stafford Northcote as Premier, and he expected that the Queen's commands would place Sir Stafford in that position.

The London *Standard* on Thursday said: "There exists a suspicion which daily deepens, that the Gladstone Ministry courted their recent defeat for the purpose of concealing behind its excitement their own dissensions. The statements made since the defeat by some of the Liberal members who absented themselves from the vote on the fatal division, show that

the Government might have saved themselves on that vote if they had cared seriously to do so."

Lord Salisbury, at an informal conference with a number of Conservative members of the House of Commons on Thursday, said he would refuse office unless assured by the Liberal leaders that the factions of the Opposition would not hamper the Administration. If the Liberal majority were willing to give fair play to a Conservative Ministry, office might be accepted. Without some such understanding between the leaders of both sides it would be impossible for the Conservatives to undertake the Government. The possibility of such an understanding is being discussed in the political clubs. Mr. Gladstone, Lord Hartington, and other moderates, it is believed, would accede, while Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke would refuse. Lord Salisbury arrived at Balmoral on Friday. He received an enthusiastic reception along the route.

In the House of Lords on Friday afternoon Lord Granville announced that Mr. Gladstone had tendered to the Queen the resignation of himself and his entire Cabinet; that the Queen had accepted the resignations and had summoned to her presence the Marquis of Salisbury, who was now at Balmoral in conference with Her Majesty. Therefore, Lord Granville said he hoped the House would abandon all ordinary business.

Mr. Gladstone, in announcing the acceptance of his resignation by the Queen in the House of Commons on Friday, said the present Government would go on with the pending legislation concerning the bill for the redistribution of seats only with the full consent of the House. Sir Stafford Northcote, for the Opposition, said that his party desired to proceed with the bill as rapidly as possible. The House adjourned until Monday, when the amendments to the bill made by the Lords were discussed.

The House of Commons on Monday completed the remaining stages of the bill granting an annuity to Princess Beatrice on the occasion of her marriage, and accepted all but two of the amendments made by the Lords to the Redistribution of Seats Bill. On motion of Mr. Gladstone the House adjourned until Friday. The House of Lords also adjourned until Friday, when it is expected the Marquis of Salisbury will announce his programme and probably his Ministry.

An important conference of leading Conservatives was held in London on Tuesday. It was reported that Lord Salisbury and Lord Randolph Churchill reconciled their differences, and that a Cabinet had been arranged.

It was semi-officially announced in London on Tuesday evening that Sir Stafford Northcote will be created a peer and be given a minor place in the Cabinet; that Lord Salisbury will be Premier and Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and that Sir Michael E. Hicks-Beach will be Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader in the House of Commons.

The Queen has offered Mr. Gladstone an Earldom in recognition of his services. Mr. Gladstone has asked that he be allowed to forego the honor.

A committee of the House of Lords on Wednesday began the consideration of the claim of Major Maitland to the Lauderdale peerage. Major Maitland, in his petition to the Lords, says that he is the heir of the fourth son of the sixth Earl of Lauderdale, who, it is alleged, married Mary MacAdam in New York in 1772, two days before his death. Mary MacAdam had borne three sons to this fourth son of the sixth Earl, and it is contended by the petitioner (Major Maitland) that this marriage legitimatized the offspring. Sir James Maitland, a descendant of the fifth son of the sixth Earl of Lauderdale, contests the claim of Major Maitland to the peerage.

At Friday's hearing of the case, Mr. Stephen P. Nash testified that, between the years 1691 and 1830, the laws governing marriage in the State of New York required only a contract of marriage made in the presence of witnesses, without ceremony of any kind. In 1830 the New York marriage laws, he said, were revised. Minister Phelps also testified on the same point. His testimony was similar to that of Mr. Nash. The Lord High Chancellor moved that in consideration of Mr. Phelps's position he be accommodated with a seat in the body of the house. This was a most unusual proceeding, and the action is regarded as a special and extraordinary mark of honor, and as an adequate recognition of the American Minister's courtesy in consenting to appear as witness before the Lords. When Mr. Phelps arose to leave the chamber their Lordships all rose and bowed deferentially to him.

At the furtner hearing on Saturday, United States Senator Edmunds and Mr. Fowler expressed opinions contrary to those of Minister Phelps and Mr. Stephen P. Nash, as given on Friday, respecting the New York marriage laws of 1772. Messrs. Edmunds and Fowler believed that the publication of banns or the obtaining of a license was necessary, but they were unable to cite any judicial decisions showing that a marriage performed without such ceremonials had ever been annulled.

An account of the early life of the Rev. John Harvard, founder of Harvard College, is promised by Mr. Rendle, of Southwark, England. He has found a record of the date of Harvard's birth, parentage, and family residence in the parish of St. Saviour, and has traced the breaking up of the family in the great plague of 1625.

The Rev. Edwin Paxton Hood, pastor of the Independent Chapel, Falcon Square, London, and author of many religious, historical, and other works, is dead. He was sixty-five years old. Among his books are lives of Wordsworth and Swedenborg, 'The Peerage of Poverty,' and 'The Uses of Biography.'

A fire broke out on Friday afternoon in the India Museum "annex" to the great building in which is being held the International Exhibition of Inventions at London. The whole exhibition was threatened with destruction, but the vigorous efforts of the firemen confined the flames to the India Museum building, which was damaged beyond repair.

A sensation has been caused in London by the publication of Lord Wolseley's despatches denouncing the evacuation of the Sudan. He warns the Government that on the withdrawal from Dongola the whole province will be given up to anarchy and will revert from civilization to barbarism. Withdrawal, he says, will not avert the struggle. The Mahdi in a few years will attack Egypt. The best policy, in both a military and a financial point of view, would be to attack the Mahdi at Khartum.

The Indian Government proposes a newspaper copyright bill, similar to the one recently advocated in the United States.

Earthquake shocks continue in the Vale of Cashmere. The towns of Baramula and Sopur have been utterly ruined and 400 persons killed.

Three hundred and twenty of the 353 Deputies to the Austro-Hungarian Reichsrath have already been returned from the present elections. Of this 320 the Government party have elected 167, the German-Liberal party 132, and the 21 others have been elected by the combined political elements of different kinds.

The following are provisions of the treaty of peace with France: French soldiers shall not enter Chinese territory nor shall Chinese soldiers enter French territory. The relations between France and Anam must not be of such a character as to embarrass China. A boundary commission shall be appointed to settle questions relating to the frontier by December next. The French shall construct a railway in Tonquin. If the Chinese wish to construct a railway they must construct a French railway. The treaty shall endure for ten years. Existing negotiations shall remain unchanged. The French shall evacuate Chinese territory directly.

The death of Admiral Courbet, the commandant of the French fleet in Chinese waters, was announced on Monday. The Admiral died on board his ship, the *Bayard*, from prostration, brought on by overwork and mental anxiety. His recent operations around Formosa and on the Min River brought him into prominence. The most notable operation was the bombardment of Foo Choo on August 23, 1884.

General François Ernest Henri de Chabaud-Latour, member of the French Senate, is dead, in the eighty-first year of his age. He was one of the chief commanders during the siege of Paris, and was Minister of the Interior in 1874. Three years later he was elected a Senator. He was a prominent member of the Central Council of Reformed Churches.

Charles Alphonse Léon Renier, the eminent French archæologist, died in Paris on Friday in the seventy-seventh year of his age.

By the fall of a great stone staircase in a court-house at Thiers, France, on Wednesday, 24 people were killed and 163 injured. The building was crowded with people who had been attending an exciting murder trial. The panic which ensued was terrible. Many of the wounded will die.

Prince Frederick Charles, of Germany, nephew of the Emperor William, and known as the "Red Prince," died on Monday of apoplexy at the age of fifty-seven. Early in life he showed excellent military promise. In 1866, being placed at the head of the first army put in the field against Austria, he entered Bohemia through Saxony. The movements of his forces were remarkably swift and energetic, disconcerting the Austrian General Benedek. Prince Frederick Charles drove the Austrians to Sadowa, and won the great victory of Königgrätz with the aid of the Crown Prince, who arrived with the Second Army at the crisis of the battle. During the Franco-German war of 1870-71 he had still greater opportunities to display his generalship, and employed them in a manner which made him one of the most conspicuous and brilliant figures in the contest. He was placed in command of the Second German Army Corps of 260,000 men. His greatest feat was the siege and capture of Metz, which resulted in the capitulation of Marshal Bazaine with 150,000 men. For this he was created a Field Marshal. He also defeated the Army of the Loire, recaptured Orleans, took Le Mans, and compelled General Chanzy to withdraw his forces to the northward.

The final returns of the recent elections for Representatives to the Austrian Reichsrath have all been received. The result is that 191 Ministerialists and 132 German Liberals have been returned. The German Liberals, according to these figures, lose 15 seats. The Ruthenians, Italians, and Centrals secure 22 seats, and the Democrats 3 seats.

The public announcement is made that the Pope has given his sanction to the decisions of the Irish bishops upon the questions submitted to them at their recent meeting in Rome.

Cholera is raging in the provinces of Valencia, Castellon de la Plana, and Murcia, and in the city of Madrid, Spain. Thirty thousand people have fled from Murcia.

A despatch from Fort Pitt, dated June 10, said: "General Middleton, who has been pursuing Big Bear, has found the country impassable for horses, and is on his return to this place. Supplies for the North have been countermanded. The probabilities are that the command will leave for home at once." Intelligence reached Winnipeg on Friday that Big Bear was coming back to meet Middleton's force, the Indian chief having collected all his forces for a desperate break for victory.

The State of Panama has been declared under martial law.

THE MINISTERIAL CRISIS IN ENGLAND.

THE position of the Tories in England begins to assume a comic air, in view of their unwillingness to take office unless Mr. Gladstone gives them a pledge of general support. If Mr. Gladstone made any such promise, however, it would be a promise to do for the Tories what he was unable to do for himself. The reason he was defeated the other day was, not that he had too many Tories in front of him, but that he had too few Liberals behind him. In fact, he fell because his followers would not follow him for his sake and that of his party. The notion that they would follow him now, on such matters as the Irish Coercion Bill, for the sake of the Tories and in order to enable Lord Salisbury to stay in office creditably till the election, is little short of ludicrous.

So also are the complaints of the victors that the vanquished allowed themselves to be vanquished so easily. Some of the bitterest opponents of Mr. Gladstone are now denouncing him savagely because the Liberal "whips" were not more urgent in bringing up their forces. The whip is a member who, like Lord Richard Grosvenor at present, makes it his business to keep in constant communication with the rank and file of the party in the House, and to ascertain, for the information of his chief, what they are thinking and saying, who among them are "disgruntled" and why, and to give them timely notice of a division which is thought by the leaders to be important. He is, in fact, a sort of aide-de-camp to the Prime Minister, and on him largely depends the maintenance of cordial and loyal relations between the Cabinet and their supporters. Not only is he called "a whip," however, but the notices he sends out requesting members to be in their places on a certain day, or during a certain debate, are also called "whips," and it depends on their language whether they are "urgent" or ordinary. In the present case Lord Richard Grosvenor declares that he was very particular in seeing that every Liberal member got his whip either by mail or messenger for the budget debate, which is probably correct. But the Conservatives now say that he ought to have made the whip more urgent in its tone, and to his answer that it *was* urgent, they answer that it was not more urgent than other whips issued for very ordinary occasions. All this is of course rather funny, coming from men who, when they won in the division, jumped on their seats and waved their hats and cheered themselves hoarse. They now declare, in short, that their designs toward Mr. Gladstone were very much what the Scotch minister had in mind with regard to a certain well-known sinner when he prayed, "Lord shak' him o'er the mouth o' hell, but dinna drop him in!" They wanted, in short, to frighten and worry him, and discredit him, but not to turn him out.

One of the oddest incidents in the episode is, that ostensibly neutral newspapers like the *Times* see nothing nearly so discreditable in the Tory conduct of pretending to wish to take possession of the Government without being ready to do so, as in Gladstone's pretending to defend his position when he was really ready to yield it. The fact is, that there rested on the Tories a far stronger obligation to keep Gladstone's Cabinet going until the election than can possibly rest on Gladstone to start a Tory Ministry now. Every interest, home and foreign, required, as is now seen, that the hands of the Liberal Minister should be upheld until the country could be appealed to. A Salisbury Ministry, upheld by Gladstone in doing things on which Gladstone's own Cabinet was divided, would be a political monster, which would be killed before the general election by mere laughter.

At the Cobden Club dinner on Saturday, both Chamberlain and Dilke came out boldly for local self-government for Ireland, and were loudly applauded. This means clearly that coercion is dead, and the Irish have substantially won their fight. The Radicals are pledged to home rule in some sort, or, in other words, to the assimilation of Irish government to English and Scotch government, and the Radicals are the men of the future. They will, when the first opportunity offers, bring this protracted experiment of sham constitutional government in Ireland to an end. At the same time will come to an end the experiment of governing the island by "English gentlemen." It is high time it was governed by such materials as the Irish themselves supply. However poor these may be, the results cannot be worse than those obtained during the last century and a half by the English system.

The part the Parnellites have played in bringing about the defeat of the Ministry has naturally greatly elated them. They have not simply shown their strength in the existing condition of English parties, but they have secured what was their main object, the defeat of the attempt to renew the Coercion Bill, and have driven from office its principal advocate, Lord Spencer. Two such triumphs may well rejoice a mere handful of men, as a sign of what they may accomplish when their force is trebled or quadrupled, as it undoubtedly will be, in the next Parliament. Parnell, in fact, like all other men whose business is not to speculate or to preach, but to work, must be judged by what he accomplishes. His methods, when he began his operations seven years ago, were, we confess, as odious to us as anybody, but we cannot get over the fact that he has accomplished more in these seven years than all preceding Irish agitators had done in seventy-five. He has taken the Irish question out of the category of bores to be dismissed annually after a dreary debate, to which no one listened, and has made it one of the practical problems of British politics, which Englishmen ponder, and which any man who takes office in England now is compelled to take up on pain of political ruin. It is to Parnell, also, that Ireland owes the Land Act, which would before his day have been laughed at in any assemblage of Englishmen as a chimera, and owes the near approach of a system of local government which will, for the first time in their history, give Irishmen some experience of practical politics.

His system has been very simple. It is based on the theory that if you seek to serve a country which labors under the misfortune of being governed by the public opinion of another very different, utterly unsympathetic, unimaginative, and busy country, you must adopt any means that will fix its attention on your grievances. If you have tried in vain the methods of ordinary agitation, public meetings, and newspaper articles, and then Parliamentary debates, you must resort to such others as are within your reach. Accordingly, he went to work deliberately to obstruct all English government, in order to get Irish questions attended to, and he was not at all nice in his modes of obstruction. To those who found fault with him because he would not trust such a good old man as Mr. Gladstone, he said frankly that Gladstone, no matter how good his intentions might be, could only do for Ireland what English opinion would let him do, and if the ill treatment of Gladstone was necessary to force English opinion up to the Irish mark, ill treated Gladstone must be. Individual feelings cannot be considered by a man who has a nation's cause in his hands, and if Parnell did not believe he had a nation's cause in his hands, he could not for so many years have supported the contest from which he is now issuing victorious. He is a gentleman in the conventional sense of the term, by birth and position. As the ordinary, placable, well-mannered Irish member of Parliament, he could have enjoyed everything that is enjoyable in English society. He has chosen, instead of this, the lot of an outcast in London, and contented himself with living and working with men some of whom he must on many accounts heartily despise.

The expectation of the Liberal politicians at present is, apparently, that Gladstone, if he does not break down physically, will be carried back to power by a popular uprising greater even than that of 1880. For his defeat has been largely due to the lukewarmness toward him which seems invariably to overtake the Whiggish Liberals after a few years of residence in London. Society in London, both that in which Whiggish Liberals from the country live, and that in which they would like to live, is intensely anti-Gladstone. In fact, it hates him with a cordial hatred, and it infects everybody who enters it, if not with dislike of him, with doubts about his strength with the country. The consequence is, that he has every few years to appeal to the provinces for a fresh and ringing affirmation that he is not only a great minister, but the greatest England has had since the final triumph of Parliamentary government—greater than Walpole, greater than either of the Pitts, greater than Peel, greater than Disraeli—not simply a Parliamentary orator of the first order, but a legislator such as no modern country can boast. He might, indeed, by simply pointing his critics to the statute-book, justify the retort of Guizot to some of his Parliamentary persecutors, "You may rise as much as you please, or as much as you can—you will never reach the level of my contempt."

BOSTON AND MASSACHUSETTS.

THE passage by the Massachusetts Legislature of what is called the Metropolitan Police Bill for Boston is an event which should command wide attention. The measure takes the power of appointing Police Commissioners from the municipal authorities, and vests it in the Governor of the State. In other words, it makes the Commonwealth for the first time the practical ruler of the metropo-

lis in many of the most important prerogatives of local government, instead of leaving the people to govern themselves.

Two motives combined to carry the bill through the Legislature. One was purely partisan. The Democrats have secured political control of Boston, and seem likely to retain it. The Republicans have the Governorship and the Legislature, and are pretty certain to keep them. The temptation for narrow partisans, who wanted to see the Police Board a Republican body, to make it so by an arbitrary use of their power in the State Government, was thus strong. The party aspect of the question becomes perfectly clear when one reflects that, if the Democrats had elected their excellent candidate for Governor last fall, a Republican Legislature would never have thought of such a thing as giving Mr. Endicott the appointment of Boston's Police Commissioners.

But the desire for partisan advantage alone would not have sufficed to carry through so revolutionary a change. The political motive was reinforced by an honest demand for the passage of the bill from many good citizens of Boston without reference to party lines. These people declared that the police force of the city was utterly demoralized; that the laws, especially those regarding liquor-selling and gambling, were not enforced; that there was no hope of securing reform at the hands of the voters; and that moral ruin was sure to overtake the city unless the State came to the rescue by assuming control of the police administration. There is no doubt that these complaints were well founded. The tone of municipal administration in Boston has been deteriorating for a good while, and the bad effects are naturally most evident in the Police Department. There is no doubt, either, that the Republican Governor is likely to give the city a better Board of Commissioners than the present one. The immediate consequences of the change, so far as they appear on the surface, are quite likely to be good, and its advocates will probably be able to show three months hence that the laws are better enforced than they have been for some time past.

Nevertheless, in the large view this change is a step backward. It is not a new thing for Legislatures to tinker with city charters, or for partisans to take advantage of a legislative majority to seize control of city offices. Nor is it a novelty to have the claim set up that a Legislature can do better for the people of a city than the people can do for themselves. New York has had a surfeit of such experiences at Albany, and large cities in other States have had doses of the same legislative remedy. What makes the Massachusetts business at once noteworthy and discouraging, is the fact that what are known as the better classes not only accept but even demand the interference of the State. The main local opposition to the measure has come from the Democratic Machine in the city, while the claim of its advocates that the wealth, intelligence, and morality of Boston are for the most part on their side, appears to be well founded. In short, the men who ought, by virtue of their superior advantages, to accomplish the most for the good government of the city, throw off the burden upon the broad back of the State, and fold their arms with a self-satisfied air, as though they had thus vindicated their good citizenship.

The pretence that there is anything unique about the condition of Boston which demands the introduction of so un-American and unpatriotic a system, is absurd. It is complained that the foreign element is so large that demagogues can easily rally a majority at the polls in support of bad candidates and vicious policies. But the proportion of foreign-born to the whole number of inhabitants is no larger in Boston than in Brooklyn, and is much smaller than in either New York or Chicago. Moreover, the assumption that bad government is in exact ratio to the proportion of foreign-born voters was disproved long ago by the experience of Philadelphia, which, with a larger percentage of native inhabitants than any other large city, allowed its government to fall into the hands of the worst municipal ring, except Tweed's, ever known. The statistics of illiteracy equally disprove the theory that Boston is suffering from any unprecedented infusion of ignorance in her population. And certainly no Bostonian will admit that his favorite city is less prepared to cope with ignorance, vice, and crime than New York or Chicago by reason of her having poorer schools, fewer churches, and less efficient reformatory agencies.

The main trouble with Boston is the decay of public spirit. How serious, and even alarming, this has become only appears when one remembers that Massachusetts was the birthplace of self-government on this continent, and Boston the stronghold of the new movement. The fathers of the New England commonwealth made the control of its local affairs by each community the corner-stone of their structure. They little dreamed that the day would ever come when the people of its metropolis would confess their inability longer to govern themselves, and throw themselves upon the mercy of the State. If that spirit were widespread in the country, the outlook for the future would be most disquieting. Of our whole population in 1880 more than 22 per cent. dwelt in cities, and the proportion now approaches closely to a full quarter. If our great cities cannot govern themselves, the experiment of popular government for the nation is a predestined failure. The stream cannot rise higher than its source.

But our cities can govern themselves, if they will only try. New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Chicago, have proved this. Boston has never sunk so low as any of them, and each of them had greater obstacles to overcome than now confront Boston. Yet the movements set afoot by the Committee of Seventy in New York in 1871, the Committee of One Hundred in Philadelphia a few years later, and the Citizens' Committee and the Young Republican Club in Brooklyn still more recently, showed that the hearts of these great cities were still sound; while the result of the Chicago election a few weeks ago proved that even in that city, where the conditions of the problem are most difficult, a wonderfully shrewd demagogue might have been overthrown if honest citizens had only struck hands earlier and worked a little harder. The men who want good government everywhere outnumber those who want bad, but they can never secure it except by hard work, nor maintain it except by ceaseless vigilance.

THE "AMERICAN" ISSUE IN POLITICS.

THERE was a vast amount of talk in the last campaign about the intense "Americanism" of Mr. Blaine and the various issues which he represented. Many efforts were made to get an exact definition of the term, but they were never successful. It was this very vagueness which gave the word its greatest value. Whenever a Blaine disciple found himself worsted in an argument about the record of his candidate, he could always take refuge in some such formula as this: "Ah, he may have been indiscreet at times, but what I like about him is that he is such a thorough American." So eminent an advocate as Senator Hawley, if our memory serves us aright, rolled out some very eloquent periods about this American attribute of his candidate, but, like all the others who extolled it, he gave no bill of particulars. As the campaign neared its close, this issue became really the only one which was in sight. The whole party was begging for a further lease of power as the champion of American interests, and the country was warned that to put the Democrats in power would be to surrender the Government to the control of men who were un-American, and who sympathized with everything foreign, especially with things British.

Since the accession of President Cleveland there has been a good deal of the same kind of talk. The appointment of Mr. Phelps to the English mission was objected to because of his "un-Americanism," though he was born in Vermont, of the best Revolutionary stock, and had lived there nearly all his life. Other efforts have been made to keep the American issue alive, but they have not been successful. We notice that the old formula about such a tariff as will encourage American industries and American labor appears in the Ohio Republican platform. This is the use of the word in its original sense, and it was a natural growth for Mr. Blaine to pass from the simple champion of American protection to the champion and exponent of Americanism itself. When he and his followers had reached that point the rest of the journey was easy. They had only to parody the old Roundhead declaration, "Resolved, First, that the earth belongs to the saints. Resolved, Second, that we are the saints," and make a declaration like this: "Resolved, First, that America belongs to the Americans. Resolved, Second, that we are the Americans." This is about what they did, but they did not explain what Americanism was.

Recent developments have thrown a great light upon this mystery. Secretary Whitney has begun to show us what Robeson, Chandler, Roach, and Butler understood by Americanism in naval affairs. It meant plenty of "repairs," enormous forces of idle workingmen in the navy-yards, and nice fat contracts for wood-preserving processes which were not worth a cent. Secretary Manning, on a much larger scale, is showing us what it meant in the Custom-houses of the land. It meant in 1884 a probable loss to the United States Treasury of $65,000,000, a sum large enough to nourish handsomely a very formidable force of devoted "Americans." And it meant,

besides this direct loss, a vast injury to the interests of American business men. Upon this point the testimony of Mr. Reed, of the firm of Bates, Reed & Cooley, one of the largest dry-goods houses in this city, is very striking. He said to a *Herald* reporter a day or two ago:

"This system of corruption which the Government has undertaken to uproot is driving all the honest importers out of business. So vast is the fraud that our house can buy goods in New York from the fraudulent importers cheaper than we can in Europe with all the advantages of money and organization. It is simply killing us in certain lines. We have the cash to pay for goods in Europe, and we have people there who will sell to us as cheap as they sell to any one. Unless we descend to conspiracy against the Government we cannot get our goods into New York at a price that will allow us to compete with those who cheat the revenue service."

"How is the stealing done?"

"In this way. A manufacturer on the other side sends an agent here, who opens an importing house. The manufacturer and the agent agree upon as low a price to invoice the goods as they think the appraisers can be induced to pass upon. Of course, this price is far below the real selling price. With the aid of a sharp broker and a little perjury the goods are sworn through the Custom-house. You can see what a field for bribery there is in a business which involves millions upon millions of dollars. Well, when the goods are delivered in New York at a low value, of course the duty is very small. That is what gives the dishonest importer his advantage. The manufacturer and the agent 'whack up,' to use a slang term. It is for the Government to learn who else receives any profit from these transactions. Foreigners come here without any record or any particular advantage in trade, except what they have through the Custom-house, and in four years they amass a fortune that it would take an ordinary American merchant twenty years to make. Then they go back to Europe and settle down as rich men. They cheat the Government out of its duties and spend the money in their own country. It is a burning shame that in America our American merchants are to be driven out of trade because they are honorable."

That is a full and accurate definition of "Americanism" as the term was used last summer. It was so understood by every worker in the party who was proclaiming his devotion to it on the stump. Under the pretence of protecting American industries and American labor, what were they doing? In the first place, they were getting a fine living for themselves. As saviours of the country, defenders of the rights of the colored man, and obstructers of the payment of the rebel debt, they considered themselves entitled to this. In the second place, they were advocating the perpetuation of a system which was robbing the American Government of millions of dollars a year. This was necessary in order to keep strong and healthy the party organization, and withstand the efforts of the Confederacy to get into the saddle again. At the same time they were driving honest American importers out of business, were greatly injuring honest American manufacturers, and were enabling dishonest foreign manufacturers and merchants to get rich at the expense of honest Americans. It should be remembered that this is the same Americanism which rejoiced in the coöperation and companionship of the dynamite Irish faction. Having resolved that America belonged to them, these, the elect of Americanism, believed that any means to retain possession were justifiable.

If this is not the correct definition of the Americanism of last summer, what do the comments of the Republican organs upon the President's course mean? They said that he entered office amid the jubilant cheers of the whole British press; they say daily that he is doing those things which Mr. Blaine would not have done, and is failing to do those things which Mr. Blaine would have done. In other words, he is antagonizing Americanism. And yet he is making a thorough civil-service reform Administration; is refusing to make appointments which are partisan and unfit; is abolishing the abuses in the Navy Department, and is breaking up the enormous conspiracy against the Government and American business interests in the customs service. If he is un-American in this course, then the description which we have given of Americanism is the only correct and logical one.

MEXICAN POLITICS.

THE second session of the present Mexican Congress, which came to its close on the 31st of May, seems to have marked a new stage in the slavish subordination of that body to the Executive. Perhaps the most striking proof of this is found in the method of dealing with the Government finances. From the report of the committee which unites the functions of our Committees on Ways and Means, and on Appropriations, the following state of affairs appears. The estimated revenues of the next fiscal year from customs and taxes, under the most favorable circumstances, will not exceed $30,000,000. From that sum must be deducted, however, 30 per cent. of all the receipts from customs, since that proportion has been already pledged as follows: 15 per cent. to the National Bank of Mexico to secure the interest on loans; 7 per cent. to the account of railroad subventions; 3 for the improvement of harbors, and 5 for the payment of maturing debts; leaving thus but little over $20,000,000 of available income. Yet the Committee recommended and Congress voted appropriations to the different departments of the Government, amounting to no less than $34,000,000. The report admits that there is a prospect of a heavy deficit, but cheerfully hopes that it will not very greatly exceed that of the past three years, a period during which the country has been prospering notwithstanding annual deficits. Furthermore, with the ample powers conceded to the President to negotiate loans, there need be no fear, the Committee thinks, that things will not come out satisfactorily in the end. It is no wonder that the commercial classes in Mexico, already greatly depressed, are inclined to indulge in gloomy apprehensions at the probability of new schemes of oppressive taxation, and the negotiation of ruinous loans. But so the President willed it to be, and so it is.

A curious illustration of the intricacies of Mexican politics has been furnished in the supposed rupture between President Diaz and ex-President Gonzales. This grew out of the necessity of submitting the accounts of the last year of the latter's Administration to an auditing committee of Congress. According to the law, this committee, which has had all the material in hand since last fall, should have presented a report on the second day of this spring's session—that is, two months ago. But, on one flimsy pretext and another, its report was delayed until the near approach of the constitutional limit of the session. This prolonged evasion of duty was rightly surmised to indicate irregularities in the accounts, which could not stand the light of day. But it was thought that Diaz would never allow his friend Gonzales to be disgraced, and it was alleged that all this unlawful delay was in accordance with his orders, and that no report would be made at all. Yet, to the surprise of all, two days before the close of the session, the Committee brought in its report to the effect that grave abuses had been found, and recommending the presentation for impeachment of the last Secretary of the Treasury and the Treasurer-General.

The debate which followed gave occasion for the most damaging charges against the last Administration, the members of which, from the President down, were openly charged, in the midst of the frantic applause of the galleries, with systematic robbery of the public funds. The report was adopted by a vote of 142 to 40, the heretofore thick-and-thin supporters of Gonzales making haste to trim their sails to the wind from the new quarter. The ex-President himself was reported to have left the capital in a fury, vowing vengeance upon his perfidious friend Diaz, and it was the common belief that the relations between the two would henceforth be bitterly hostile. But the older and shrewder observers are of the opinion that it was all a pretty farce; that Diaz found it necessary to do something to quiet the popular indignation, and so allowed the Committee to make their report; but that nothing will ever come of the impeachment, and that the whole affair will now be allowed to lapse. In support of their view they point to a large number of technical defences which might be successfully urged in behalf of the accused officials, and also declare that Diaz was with Gonzales up to the last moment before the latter's departure, in the most friendly and confidential conversation.

THE DUKE OF MONTMORENCY.

PARIS, June 5, 1885.

IN a time very fertile in powerful and original characters, Anne of Montmorency stands in the foremost rank. The life of the great Constable has never been well written, in the spirit of the modern historical schools, which is not content with second-hand opinions but will have original documents. Much may be said about this modern documentary school, for the use of written documents requires criticism, choice, discussion; people can lie in letters as well as in words, and it is not always easy to discern in the florid style of the sixteenth century what is the part of truth, and what of deceit and exaggeration. At the same time it must be confessed that history hardly deserves the name when it does not rest on documents of the period which it intends to resuscitate. M. Francis Decrue, Doctor of the Faculty of Letters of Paris, has devoted his time to Anne of Montmorency; he has copied nearly eight hundred letters, almost all inedited, of the famous warrior, which were written from February, 1520, to February, 1567. He has collected extracts or analyses of nearly 8,000 letters addressed to him during the reign of Francis I. He has consulted in our great National Library three inedited and manuscript biographies of him.

Marshal Montmorency belonged to the race of Bouchard, the first lord of Montmorency, who was a Knight of the Duchy of France in the tenth century. (We give this name of Duchy of France to the lands of the descendants of Robert le Fort, Comte de Paris.) During the middle ages the descendants of Bouchard grew more and more important, and became allied with the royal families of France and England, and with the Dukes of Savoy. They played a significant part in the war between France and England, as their domains were chiefly in the disputed borderland of the valley of the Oise, all along which and its affluents their castles were spread. Anne of Montmorency was born at Chantilly on March 15, 1493. Chantilly was then a stronghold, built on a rock, surrounded on all sides by springs and marshes, and thus isolated from the main land. Not far away were Mello, another castle of the family, and Écouen, in the neighborhood of Montmorency.

His education was much neglected. He learned, however, to write, which he never did otherwise than imperfectly, and his ignorance did not prevent him from becoming later one of the most eminent patrons of the art of the Renaissance. He was at an early age placed near Francis, the presumptive heir to the crown, and lived with Monsieur François, as he was then called, at Amboise, near the Countess of Angoulême, Louise of Savoy, the mother of the young Prince. He was seventeen years old when he went with Louis XII. to Italy, under the name of M. de la Rochepot (as he had received the estate of La Rochepot from his father). Brantôme says: "The first time that he crossed the mountains to learn the art of war, M. de Montmorency, his father, gave him only five hundred francs, with good arms and good horses, in order that he should suffer and not have everything easy, and that he should learn how to make a virtue of necessity." La Rochepot was among the volunteers on the field of battle of Ravenna, where Gaston de Foix, Duke of Nemours, the nephew of the King of France, found a glorious death. The year afterward La Trémoille was beaten at Novara, and the French army returned to France.

In the absence of La Rochepot his sister had married Gaspard of Coligny, Lord of Coligny and Châtillon-sur-Loing. Soon after his return Louis XII. died, and Francis of Valois became King of France (January 1, 1515). The brilliant youth of the Renaissance came to power with him: all the thrones of Europe were occupied by young men—in England by Henry VIII., in Castile by Charles of Austria. La Rochepot became a gentleman of the bed-chamber of Francis I.; he followed him to Italy, and at Marignano he distinguished himself near his King. When Francis, after his victory, returned to France, La Rochepot remained at Milan under the orders of the Constable of Bourbon, and afterward of M. de Lautrec. He only returned to France in 1516, after the death of his elder brother, and was appointed by the King captain of the castles of Vincennes and of the Bastille, those historical fortresses which commanded the capital of France. He was one of the King's favorites, and he accompanied him to the famous interview of the *Champ du Drap d'Or* (June, 1520). He was afterward sent to Henry VIII. by his master, and saw him at Calais, where he fulfilled a mission concerning the fortifications erected by the French at Ardres. In recompense of this service, he received the guardianship of the great forest which adjoins the forest of Chantilly.

A war was imminent between Charles V. and Francis, and Francis sent La Rochepot to inspect Sedan, Mouzon, Mézières, the frontier places of the north, which belonged to an ally of France, Robert de la Marck, Lord of Sedan and Bouillon. Hostilities began with the siege of Mouzon (August, 1521), which was taken by the Germans. La Rochepot threw himself with three hundred men into Mézières, which soon afterward was besieged; he defended the place for a whole month against the Imperial forces and forced them to retreat. Francis sent for him and for Bayard in his campaign made for the relief of Tournay, which was besieged by the Emperor. The campaign was lost, and Charles took Tournay, at the same time that Lautrec lost Milan in Italy, which had remained for six years under the domination of France. Francis I. sent La Rochepot with the Bastard of Savoy, grand-maître of France, and Marshal Chabannes to Switzerland to raise a levy of 16,000 infantry for the relief of Lautrec and the Duchy of Milan. La Rochepot started out with the Bernese Captain Jean de Diesbach at the beginning of December, 1521, and succeeded in his undertaking, notwithstanding the opposition of Zurich, with the help of Lucerne. On the 6th of February the Bastard of Savoy, who had crossed the Alps of Grisons, met at Bellinzona the Swiss troops sent by La Rochepot. He established his headquarters on the road from Milan to Paris in a country house of the Trivulce family. La Rochepot was with him and began the siege of Novara; he took the place, and the Swiss, who only entered the town after his own *hommes d'armes*, sacked it and killed all the inhabitants. La Rochepot a few days afterward entered Vigevano.

These exploits did not hinder the junction of the Duke Francis Sforza with Prospero Colonna. They entered Milan together in April, 1522. The storming of Novara did much, however, for the prestige of the French arms in Italy, and the reputation of La Rochepot was greatly increased by it. The campaign did not end well. Marshal de Foix capitulated at Cremona; and La Rochepot, who had been sent on a mission to Venice, could not hinder the Republic from entering into an alliance with the Emperor, who had become the master of Italy. He returned to France, with some difficulty, through Switzerland, and on his return, he was made a Marshal of France (August 6, 1522), and a member of the Order of St. Michael. He became thus a very great personage (there were at the time only five marshals and thirty-six knights of Saint Michael). We cannot give even a summary of all the campaigns of the Marshal of Montmorency. His heroism at Pavia was much admired; he was thrown from his horse and made a prisoner with the King. The captivity of Francis I. brought the King and the subject close together, as Charles V. had allowed Francis to choose his companions, and the King of France had named Montmorency, with a few others. Everybody knows the famous letter of Francis I.: "Tout est perdu sauf l'honneur." The letters of Montmorency to his wife, after Pavia, are not so eloquent; they are full of faults of orthography. In the negotiations which followed, Montmorency was very useful to his master; and when they both became free, his favor was at its greatest height.

We must look upon Anne of Montmorency as a type of a transition period. Though he had still some traits of the feudal chieftain, by reason of the immensity of his domains, the possession of many strongholds, the command of distinct troops, a number of valuable privileges, a very extensive patronage, he was at the same time of necessity a courtier; he could not dispense with the royal favor. A word from his master gave him no alternative but to obey or to revolt; and revolt was punished with capital punishment. After the deliverance of the King, Montmorency entered upon the functions of Grand Master of France, and during this period, which extends from 1526 to 1541, he was virtually the head of the administration of the country. For fifteen years he was the dominant Minister of State. In that period, and especially after 1530, when a Spanish queen came to France, he represented the peace party, which at that moment was somewhat identified with the party of the Emperor and of the Pope. He had conservative instincts, and stood on the side of the great powers of the age. He was, however, obliged to make war, from 1526 to 1529, as his own King refused to fulfil the conditions of the treaty of Madrid. He tried to save Burgundy, and made every effort to secure the triumph of the League of Cognac. Burgundy was saved, and Francis then wanted to reconquer the Milanese provinces. Montmorency long hoped to secure them for his master by treaty, and to obtain this result by alliance with the King of England, Henry VIII., or with Pope Clement VII. This time, again, he was forced to resort to arms, but he continued to negotiate while he was making war. The campaigns of 1536 and 1537 were directed by him, and are among the most remarkable of the time. The defence of Provence and the crossing of the "Pas de Suse" are operations which will always remain famous.

At the end of his victories, Montmorency, who was now Constable of France, sought an alliance with the Emperor: he was avowedly a partisan of this alliance, and for a time he succeeded in procuring it. But he triumphed perhaps too much; and the success of his policy depended on an element which he could not control, namely, the good will and the good faith of Charles V. The interview of Francis I. and of Charles V. at Nice was followed by another at Aigues-Mortes. Henry VIII. became very angry. Some time afterwards the Emperor asked permission to cross France in order to punish the revolt of Ghent. Montmorency hoped to obtain from him, without a war, the cession of the Milanais; if he had succeeded, his triumph would have been complete. But Charles was even more wily than the Constable; he had no intention of abandoning Milan. He amused Francis with words; and when it was proved that Montmorency had been deceived, he fell into disgrace. Pretexts were easily found. Montmorency had been chosen as a favorite by the Dauphin; Madame d'Étampes, who governed the King, was the mortal enemy of Diane de Poitiers, who governed the Dauphin. Speaking of the Constable, Madame d'Étampes said, when she heard that Charles V. had given Milan to his son: "The Constable is a great scamp: he promised the King that the Emperor would give him Milan at once, and he knew the contrary." Montmorency left the court and all his employments, and retired to his domains. But his rôle was not ended; and as he had been a favorite under Francis I., he became a favorite under Henri II., after a long period of disgrace.

Correspondence.

HISTORIES FOR THE YOUNG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observed in the *Nation* several weeks ago a favorable notice of a new, semi-juvenile book of history—an American reprint, I think, of an English work—entitled 'Little Arthur's History of France.' The general commendation bestowed in that notice was slightly qualified by a remark having reference to the illustrations, which were said to be inferior.

Now, as regards the mechanical execution of those illustrations I have no comment to make,

Respecting the subjects of the pictures, however, I should be very glad indeed, should a new edition of the work be called for, that they be materially changed. Because, while this book—for children mainly—contains fifteen illustrations, one of these is a murder scene, eleven are representations of battles or of other warlike subjects, and one has reference to an incident of war. There remains then but one picture, in addition to the map, which does not suggest to inquiring youth that man is, above all things else, a *fighting animal*.

Having had occasion, within a short time, to advert to the fact that some of the text-books of American history lately prepared on this side the Atlantic showed a marked improvement over most of those which had gone before, in that they gave less prominence to warlike subjects, and more to the economic concerns of the people generally, I should hence regard with regret any deflection or reversal in this present happy trend in the direction of the more humane. So high an authority as Principal Currie, of the Church of Scotland Training School, in his late 'Work on Teaching' (Edinburgh, 1884), after deploring the fact that "in giving prominence to wars, teachers have only followed the examples of historians themselves, who have confined their narrative too exclusively to those," he concludes:

"The *first reform* in the teaching, as in the writing of school history, should be to assign to these wars of a nation their true position and character, instead of measuring national prosperity or greatness exclusively by its warlike achievements. We should regard war in general as a divergence from the true course of a nation's history, both on moral and on social grounds. . . . The arts of peace, which have been almost overlooked, should be raised to the position of prominence hitherto assigned to those of war."

Having briefly cited this much of good augury from American and British sources, I simply refer, in concluding, to the circumstance that, in Imperial Germany, Herman Molkenboer, of Bonn, proposes (and has extensively circulated) a project for a Permanent International Council of Education, one of the principal prospective duties of which shall be that the educators of the different countries represented therein shall press upon their legislators the need there is for settling international disputes by other and better means than war. He is bold to say that "the imperfect demonstration of the injustice and the immorality of war by the legally-appointed teacher is the chief reason that wars continue to be carried on." I see the name of Thomas W. Bicknell among those who have signified their adherence to this project. Meanwhile, might not our own Bureau of Education issue, with advantage, a Circular upon the Teaching of War in text-books of History? Translated into German, the "legally appointed teacher" might serviceably support the scheme of Herman Molkenboer. JOSIAH W. LEEDS.

PHILADELPHIA, Sixth Mo., 8th, 1885.

A MUSICAL PROTEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Acting on the suggestion of Mr. Spencer that Americans are too little given to grumbling, I should like to redeem the national reputation in the matter of the music offered by first-rate performers and orchestras in smaller places. I am familiar with the character of the music played by the Mendelssohn Quintet Club in and around Boston, and, on the announcement of their engagement to play at the opera-house in this city, rejoiced in the opportunity of hearing the same fine quality of musical pieces. My dismay amounted to indignation when, on entering the house and reading the programme, I saw there set for performance such choice morsels as the following: Aria from Verdi's "La Traviata"; fantaisie for clarionet, by Ryan; fantaisie for 'cello, from "La Fille du Régiment." This head and front of the offending was redeemed (?) only by an uninteresting quintet of Mendelssohn; "The Miller's Daughter," of Raff; the Minuet of Boccherini, and Weber's "Invitation à la Valse." To complete the degradation, an encore of the "Last Rose of Summer" was given in the most sentimental manner.

There were many amateurs present who were accustomed to a very different kind of selection. A concert given but a few weeks before by some of these consisted wholly of music from Mendelssohn and Haydn, and was heartily appreciated. To make public such insults to the musical taste of the people, is the only way to be relieved of the danger of repetition. Before some of us again subscribe to a concert by this club, it will be necessary to have the programme announced in advance. The whole point of view of the performers was well shown in the circular announcement, in which a frivolous singer of trivial music was described as being endowed by nature with a fine figure and beautiful face, and, *in addition*, a pleasing voice.—Yours,

JOHN TUNIS.

QUINCY, ILL.

Notes.

AT last an opportunity seems offered the Harvard "Annex" to purchase suitable quarters at a low price. A private dwelling, of brick, having that "touch of dignity which belongs to an old-fashioned house," and well planted about with shade trees, is procurable for $20,000. The officers of this institution, now in its sixth year, with more than fifty women students, make an appeal to the public to enable them to effect the purchase. Subscriptions may be sent to Miss Alice M. Longfellow, Treasurer, Craigie House, Cambridge, Mass. The building in question is not designed to be used as a dormitory, any more than is the present home of the Annex, which is manifestly inadequate to the immediate increase in attendance indicated by the applications for 1885-86.

Mr. James R. Osgood, it is announced, will accept a position in the house of Harper & Bros. as soon as his affairs are finally settled in Boston.

John D. Ross, 419 W. 48th St., New York city, intends publishing by subscription 'Celebrated Songs of Scotland, from King James V. to Henry Scott Riddell,' edited with memoirs, notes, glossary, and index.

A sketch of the anti-slavery movement in Maine is in preparation by the Rev. Austin Willey, now of Northfield, Minn., formerly of Hallowell, Maine.

It must be thought singular that a life of the late Rev. John Pierpont, whose career was many-sided and of far-reaching influence, has yet to be written. Such a memorial, we are glad to learn, is in course of preparation, and the compiler will be thankful for any original letters or other MSS. which might assist him. They should be addressed to Pierpont, 3 Chauncey St., Boston.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have accepted the agency for this country for the publications of the Victoria Institute of Great Britain, one of whose objects is to reconcile any apparent discrepancies between Christianity and science. Scientists and clergymen are about equally represented on the list of forthcoming pamphlets.

Summer reading is to be found in Hardy's 'But Yet a Woman,' introducing the Riverside Paper Series, and in the fourth volume of 'Tales from Many Sources' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Here we have Walter Besant and James Rice, James Payn, Wilkie Collins, and Daudet translated ("The Siege of Berlin").

In eleven years great changes have been made at Mt. Desert, as a comparison of the first edition of Mrs. C. B. Martin's Guide-Book (Portland: Loring, Short & Harmon) with the sixth, now before us, shows. The book itself has increased in every dimension. The two fragmentary maps have been replaced by one of the whole island. The text has been largely rewritten to keep pace with new routes, new settlements, new roads and drives. The dainty photographic views are all new; yet one would gladly have retained the old subjects also, fading as are the silver prints of the 1874 edition. Why should not the publishers prefer some permanent process—carbon prints or albertype, or the mechanical engraving which often makes a lucky hit with landscape?

Mr. Francis Parkman has met a real need by compiling from his historical works an 'Historic Handbook of the Northern Tour' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). This embraces Lakes George and Champlain; Niagara; Montreal, and Quebec. A few portraits and maps are interspersed.

From the office of the *American Angler* comes 'The Angler's Guide and Tourist's Gazetteer,' compiled by the editor, Mr. Wm. C. Harris. The tourist and the angler here referred to are one; at the same time, the unpiscatorial traveller can avail himself of Mr. Harris's directions for reaching a vast number of pleasant places. The condensation and clearness of this little guide-book are remarkable. First we have a summary of the fish laws of the several States (Canada included), and then an alphabetical list of towns, rivers, lakes, islands under their respective States, with an index (again by States) to fishing waters. Still another index furnishes a key to transportation. What kinds of fish, to be caught at what season, with what sort of bait; at what cost for boats, hotels, etc., at some 4,000 fishing grounds—all this is concisely stated in a pocket volume.

A selection from the lyrical poems of Lord Tennyson, made by Francis Turner Palgrave, has been added by the latter to his Golden Treasury Series (Macmillan). It includes a portion of "In Memoriam," and the most of the shorter pieces which are familiar and dear to the English-speaking world. A Tennyson Society to explain this author's obscurities would hardly be needed, but Mr. Palgrave's notes—which are not many—will be welcome, and doubtless have been prepared in consultation with Lord Tennyson. The print of this tasteful volume, which may be carried in the pocket, is necessarily small.

The fashion of preparing personal bibliographies has hitherto been followed in this country chiefly by the *Literary World*. Whenever a man dies or celebrates his ——th birthday, or even (as in the case of Mr. Gosse) visits America, a complete list of his works chronologically arranged appears in the columns of that Boston journal. But these are apt to be mere lists, with the briefest possible titles, and with no mention of publishers names or number of pages. They are useful but not luxurious. Quite different is the style of 'The Longfellow Collectors' Handbook' which Mr. William Evarts Benjamin, No. 744 Broadway, has just compiled and published in a limited edition. Here every title occupies a page by itself; the separation of the lines of the title-pages is marked, full collations are given, and the original binding is noted. But it is not a complete bibliography. Only first editions are entered; yet it seems to us that the collector, without losing caste, might put on his shelves specially fine copies of the illustrated editions; and collectors have been known who got together every edition of a favorite author. The volume is a dainty one, the glazed sides pleasantly recalling the early volume of Longfellow's poems published by John Owen, of Cambridge, to the out-

ward charm of which Poe liked to ascribe the popularity of the poems within. One hardly knows whether to be surprised at the smallness or the greatness of the number of works in the list, cut down as they are to their first appearances. They number thirty-seven without the text-books, but among them are one volume of translations and three compilations, not including the 'Poems of Places.' Yet Longfellow was not a prolific writer, and publishers find no difficulty in condensing the thirty-three original volumes into half a dozen. In an appendix are recorded the text-books in French, Italian, and Spanish which Longfellow published before he assumed his Harvard professorship.

We had an American edition of Barbou's 'Victor Hugo and his Time' in 1881 (Chicago: S. C. Griggs and Co.). A translation by another hand, with a motley assortment of woodcuts whose range reveals the longevity of the poet, is now issued by Harper & Bros. in their Franklin Square Library. The general typographical appearance is highly appropriate to its Romantic theme. Several of Hugo's own sketches are reproduced among the rest.

We lately called attention to the new "final edition" of the complete works of Gustave Flaubert now issuing by Quantin, Paris. 'Salammbô' was the first to reach us, though numbered second in the series. We now have 'Madame Bovary,' which not only shares the beautiful typography of its predecessors, but offers an interesting etched portrait of the author as a frontispiece. The last eighty pages of the total 556 of this volume are given up to the report of the judicial proceedings by which 'Madame Bovary' was sought to be condemned as an offence against public morals and religion. Readers who can derive moral instruction from the story will also find their profit in the pleadings and judgment of the tribunal. With the general reader it may be otherwise; and it marks the difficulty of dealing with offences of this class, that the worst passages not only are quoted by the prosecution, but are referred in foot-notes, with scrupulous exactness, to the new paging of the present edition.

Eugène Delacroix and Bastien-Lepage supply the chief pictorial interest of *L'Art* Nos. 502, 503 (Macmillan). M. Charles Diehl continues his archæologic study of Ravenna, with the help of Mlle. Herwegen's designs. Mr. C. C. Perkins, of Boston, treats of the competition for the second bronze gate of the Florence Baptistery, with illustrations. Among the numerous engravings representing private collections, Fragonard's "Visit to the Nurse" might stand for the text of which Rousseau's 'Émile' was the sermon.

Parts 7-10 of the new Lesser Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon (New York: L. W. Schmidt), approach the end of the letter B. The condensation is such that Bismarck gets but little more than a column; Beethoven only half a column; the great Thomas Hart Benton is compressed, 'Thirty Years' View' and all, into six lines; Blaine, and his 'Twenty Years of Congress,' into nine. Other American reputations suffer even worse by such rigorous treatment. The illustrations continue to be excellent.

From Selmar Hess, New York, we have four more parts, 9-12, of 'Our Living World'—the text by the Rev. J. G. Wood, the illustrations mostly after Brehm—of which we have already spoken. Dr. Holder's interpolations are not indicated in any way, but they can generally be detected—sometimes by a literary maladroitness. Thus, his reference to the late Lewis H. Morgan's standard work on the Beaver would lead one to infer that the author was still alive, and his monograph a recent one. Of the common seal it is said that these creatures are seldom seen south of Cape Cod, though they formerly frequented Robbin's Reef in this harbor, to which they gave its name (by way of the Dutch). During the past winter they were tolerably abundant in our New York waters, and one was seen floating on a cake of ice as far up as Tenth Street in the North River.

The delegates of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, England, send us two mathematical text-books. One is a little book of 112 pp., smaller than the 'Science Primers' of the Appletons, entitled 'Differential Calculus for Beginners, with a Selection of Easy Examples,' by Alexander Knox, B. A. Cantab. Its method of presenting the calculus is essentially the same as that of the little treatise on the same science published some thirty years ago by Rev. William Ritchie, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Royal Institution and in University College, London. After reading through Mr. Knox's little book, it seems to us more likely to prove interesting to one who has some knowledge of the calculus, than useful as a text-book for a class of beginners. In this respect it is inferior to the work of Professor Ritchie. To those who have a taste for what may be called metaphysical mathematics, its perusal will prove interesting and suggestive.

The other book is vol. i. of the third edition of Professor Minchin's 'Statics.' The first volume is published and sold separately, and is intended to contain all that is necessary for attaining undergraduate honors and scholarships, while the more recondite subjects are reserved for a second volume. This method of publication has of course rendered necessary considerable alterations in the arrangement of the work, and Professor Minchin has embraced the opportunity to make many additions which increase the value of it. There are many problems in statics, as in fact in all branches of mathematics, the accurate solution of which defies the powers of analysis, and the approximate solution of which by the same means is attended with a vast amount of labor. A solution of these problems, sufficient for practical purposes, can often be obtained by graphic methods at once simple and interesting. The use of such methods has been greatly extended throughout the present volume. It is impossible to pronounce judgment on the work as a whole until the reception of the second volume; but judging from the execution of the present volume, and from the excellence of the second edition, to which we some time ago called attention in a note on Professor Minchin's 'Uniplanar Kinematics,' it will, in its complete form, be by far the best treatise on statics that has appeared in the English language.

A good instance of the opposition between vested interest and improvement has lately occurred in Kensington. There is no doubt that steam-rollers are vastly superior to horse-rollers in the making of macadamized roads, in the matter of cheapness to the makers, in the saving of wear and tear of vehicles, of injury to horses, and of discomfort to drivers. But their weight dislocates the gas pipes, and the gas company has sued the vestry. A London vestry defending progress against conservatism is something new. They lost their case, and steam-rollers cannot be used now in England on roads in which gas pipes are laid. Steam-rollers are used in American cities, but we have not yet heard of injunctions against them.

A friendly hand has pointed out that in our last week's review of 'The Russian Revolt,' we taxed the author with the misspelling of a name ("Vereshchagin") in regard to which we had ourselves been led into error. We very much regret having done him this injustice, which we make haste to acknowledge.

A very obvious error escaped our attention in our article last week on the world's wine crop, which was stated to be 2,485,000 gallons. As a matter of fact, France alone is capable of producing 800,000,000. The world's vintage is not far, we believe, from 4,000,000,000 gallons.

—The sixth annual report of the Archæological Institute of America is largely retrospective, the chief event of the past year having been a reorganization of the Institute itself. Affiliated societies have been established in Boston, New York, and Baltimore—an arrangement favorable to independent and to concerted effort. The publications awaiting their opportunity to be printed are two works by Mr. A. F. Bandelier—viz., Part 2 of his 'Historical Introduction to Studies among the Sedentary Indians of New Mexico,' and his report of his perilous explorations in the Apache district of Northern Mexico—and the Assos report for 1882-83. Nothing has yet been heard from the expedition sent out last autumn to Babylonia, under the charge of the Rev. Dr. W. H. Ward. The most urgent need insisted upon by the Institute is for a fund to erect a permanent home for the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, for which the Greek Government has given the necessary ground. This enterprise calls for an outlay of $15,000 to $20,000, and about $4,000 has already been subscribed. We understand that the British School has now in hand £4,000 for building purposes, and that construction will proceed at once. As the lots of the two schools adjoin each other, great economy and a friendly unity would be secured by building a library in common, to which the American contribution of books would be more than respectable. The Executive Committee of the Institute, who originated the American School, make a strong appeal for the money necessary to put it on a stable foundation.

—The Association of Collegiate Alumnæ has issued a brief report of its last quarterly meeting, at which there was an interesting discussion of "Work for Women in Local History." The discussion was opened by Miss Katharine Coman, Professor of History in Wellesley College, who advocated the idea that college work in history should be regarded as a preparation for original research, more particularly in the historical environment where young women might find their lot to be cast, whether as teachers or residents. Returning from school or college to their own homes, girls often find life somewhat aimless. The annals of quiet neighborhoods could be made to yield fruit for local history if bright, well-trained girls would utilize the records of town, church, and parish. Such work hitherto has been left for antiquaries, who have not always succeeded in removing the dust from the subjects which they attempted to handle. There are many subjects of American local history which women can perhaps treat better than can men. An examination of almost any local history written by a typical antiquary will suggest to women improved methods of presenting certain topics. Women would particularly excel in the description of manners and customs, in the delineation of local character, in the study of family life and society in general. Miss Katharine Coman, of Wellesley, Massachusetts, will receive the names of collegiate alumnæ who may wish to coöperate in this work.

—A suggestive piece of feminine work in local history is 'The Nation in the Parish; or, Records of Upton-on-Severn,' by Mrs. Emily M. Lawson, wife of the rector of that ancient parish in Worcestershire. This tasteful, well-illustrated little book, of something over two hundred pages (London: Houghton & Gunn, 1884), is an attempt to show that the chronicles of an ancient parish are in a certain sense the chronicles of England. The English nation is here to be studied in miniature. Just as the local annals of a New England town—for example, Plymouth or Salem—illustrate the life of a larger commonwealth, so Upton-on-

Severn contains more than local history. The place presents pictures of many historical changes which have swept over the face of England. A British village, a Roman camp, a Christian mission, a Saxon *tun*, a Norman manor, a mediæval and modern parish, are phases of English history as well as of Upton-on-Severn. The author notices the blending of the Norman conquerors and of their English subjects in the tax-lists of Upton, which show the rise of the middle class. She follows with special interest the history of the feudal lords of Upton—the De Clares, the De Spencers, the Beauchamps—who connect the little town with kings and king-makers. But none the less, on account of a certain predilection for aristocracy, does the writer investigate the history of the common people. With feminine literary art, she suggests that Piers Plowman caught his vision of social and rural England, "on a May morning," in the immediate neighborhood of Upton, which is hard by the Malvern Hills. Particularly suggestive is Mrs. Lawson's account of the Black Death in 1348-9, and the subsequent conflict between labor and capital (the first recorded strike in England). The cholera of 1832 is described with a graphic power that reminds one of the classic story of the plague at Athens. The writer obtained her information almost entirely from conversation with her husband's parishioners. The treatment of the parish poor and of lunatics; local education; old drinking customs and the growth of temperance; parish riots; ancient games and curious modes of punishment; the parish ghost and the historical value of ghost stories, are among the many interesting topics discussed by the wife of the English rector, who himself supplements the volume by a most valuable glossary of more than eight hundred words and phrases of unusual sound or meaning that are current in his parish. In this list the student of American local dialects will find many old words which crop out in provincial speech. Similar lists might perhaps be prepared in the mountain districts of the South and in the archaic towns of New England—for example, in the towns along Cape Cod.

—A curious controversy has been going on in the German papers apropos of the popularity and influence of "the Marlitt," and other *Gartenlaube* novelists. A dozen or more years ago, the *Gartenlaube* published a novel by a then unknown author, called 'The Old Mam'sell's Secret, by E. Marlitt,' under which pseudonym was, for a long time, concealed the personality of an elderly maiden lady named Eugenie John, living in a little town of central Germany. This tale is said to have had more readers than any other novel in the same space of time, except 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' It has been dramatized several times (without the author's consent) and translated into all European languages, one of the first translations being that by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Every successive story by Miss John has been published in the *Gartenlaube*, and has been promptly translated by Mrs. Wister, other versions of most of them having appeared in England, one made by a writer so considerable as the Rev. Baring-Gould. The vein struck in the novel mentioned proved so very successful that Miss John was unable to supply the demand, so that the conductors of the *Gartenlaube* had to seek material elsewhere. They were so successful that if the aching void, the existence of which was discovered by the success of 'The Old Mam'sell's Secret,' has continued, it can only be because, with the public as with the individual, appetite comes with eating; for a whole series of writers, all of them women writing under a masculine pseudonym, such as "Ernst Werner," "E. Hartner," "W. Heimburg," etc. (some of whom, notably "E. Werner," are much cleverer than the author of the original success), have followed the latter's lead both in the *Gartenlaube* and in Mrs. Wister's series of translations. The strong family resemblance of these works cannot be better illustrated than by the fact that frequenters of circulating libraries, including the largest, entirely ignore the individuality of the writers, asking only for "Mrs. Wister's last translation," or even "the newest book by Mrs. Wister."

—With these facts in his mind, it strikes a foreigner as singular enough that German critics should speak of these fictions with combined hatred and contempt. A writer in a recent number of the *Magazin für die Litteratur* cries out that they are fit only for chambermaids and seamstresses, and otherwise describes them in terms such as would be used in this country only in reference to works quite beneath serious criticism, such as those of Mrs. Holmes and Mrs. Southworth. The editor of the *Magazin* remarks that they have practically driven Freytag, Heyse, Keller, and others equally worthy from the market, and perhaps if our public were so constituted that Howells and James remained unread because of the meretricious attractions of the American ladies we have named, we should regard the latter with similar feelings. But we think there is a more reasonable explanation of the situation in Germany. We should attribute the neglect with which Heyse and Keller and the like are treated, to the fact that, however graceful and artistic and truthful their writings may be, they are only tales or sketches, while the public demands a sustained effort—a work that involves a regular development, a consistent plot, with a middle as well as a beginning and end. The *Gartenlaube* ladies—whatever their faults—succeed in what the critically superior German novelists do not even attempt. Freytag, indeed, published two abundantly successful novels a dozen years before the Marlitt began her career; but he has done nothing of the kind since, and the dearth of sustained fiction is so great that the more dignified periodicals, like the *Rundschau*, have never, we believe, published anything more ambitious than novelettes.

—It is saddening to read in the May number of *Westermann's Monatshefte*, in a very pleasant literary sketch of Alfred Meissner, by Fritz Lemmermayer, these words: "His poetical power has remained faithful to him to this day," at the very moment when the cable brings the news of that amiable Austrian's death. How his career has suddenly been cut short, we have still to learn. The last of his works is the 'Geschichte meines Lebens' (2 vols., 1884), an autobiography more interesting in its characterizations of contemporary men and events than in its unfolding of the author's own life. This was uneventful and literary throughout, yet few poets of our time have lived in warmer sympathy with the liberal ideas which have stirred the last half-century. The son of a Bohemian physician and a Scotch mother, Meissner (born in 1822) devoted himself to his father's profession, studying at Prague, but practised medicine only a short while, and throughout his life maintained himself by his prolific pen. By his 'Gedichte' (1845), he at once achieved an honorable standing among the German poets of Austria, ranking next to "Anastasius Grün" (Count Auersperg) and Lenau. He combined the liberal agressiveness of the former with the pessimistic melancholy of the latter. Prevented by Metternich's censors from publishing in Austria his 'Ziska'—an epic poem containing brilliant parts, but defective as a whole, and too lyrical for a work of its class — he went to Saxony, where he lived in intimate intercourse with Moritz Hartmann, Berthold Auerbach, Gutzkow, Richard Wagner, and others. The revolutionary and socialistic tenor of 'Ziska' (1846) so much displeased the German authorities that Meissner thought it best to go abroad. The revolution of 1848 brought him back from France, the conflicts between the Czechs and Germans drove him in disgust from his native country, and the failure of the German revolution from Frankfort to Paris. Here he associated much with Heine, who was so charmed with his drama "Das Weib des Urias" (1851) that he declared him, as a dramatist, "héritier présomptif de la gloire de Frédéric Schiller." This was as false prophecy as Meissner's prediction, in the 'Revolutionäre Studien aus Paris' (1849), of the fiasco which the foolish ambition of Louis Napoleon, then President of the French Republic, was bound to make. Napoleon became Emperor and Meissner a novelist. Leaving France, he visited England, returned to Bohemia, and from 1869 lived in Bregenz, on the Lake of Constance. He remained faithful to his liberal convictions, and in his attractive novels 'Zwischen Fürst und Volk,' 'Zur Ehre Gottes,' 'Schwarzgelb,' 'Die Kinder Roms,' and others, painted reaction and clericalism in the darkest colors. His romances, tales, later poems—epic, dramatic, and lyric—and miscellaneous writings are very numerous. Meissner's course as a man and as a writer was remarkably even and consistent.

—The award is announced of the Russian Geographical Society's great Constantine Medal to M. Woeikoff, for his work entitled 'The Climates of the World, and of Russia in Particular.' During his residence in this country, a number of years ago, M. Woeikoff was recognized as a leading meteorologist, and his travels here and in Asia have been so extended as to give him adequate knowledge at first hand of their chief topographic and meteorological features. He divides the world into eight distinct regions—Atlantic, North and Middle, and Tropical America, South and Middle Africa, the Mediterranean Basin, Northwestern and Middle Europe, Southeastern Asia, and Russia and Northern Asia, and discusses the climatology of each. *Nature* gives an abstract of Doctor Lenz's analysis of Woeikoff's work in the Annual Report of the Society for 1884, and shows the originality of its fundamental idea, which, instead of representing climates as they result from the averages of climatological elements—the method usually followed in meteorological works, except Doctor Hann's 'Handbuch der Klimatologie'—undertakes to explain the local variations of the general laws of meteorology as a consequence of the varying topographical features of the several countries to which they are applied. M. Woeikoff's conclusions are verified for each particular country by comparison with the conclusions with regard to the climates of its adjacent countries, thus establishing the elements of a comparative meteorology. Twenty-two chapters of M. Woeikoff's work of nearly 700 pages contain a detailed analysis of the chief meteorological elements of the globe: the heat received from the sun; the dynamic and thermic consequences of the rise and fall of masses of air; the influence of snow and ice-coverings; the temperatures of lakes, seas, and oceans; the influence of wind; the variations of temperature with elevation; the diurnal and unperiodic changes of temperature; and finally the influence of climate on vegetation.

—Nikolai Ivanovitch Kostomaroff, who recently died at the age of about sixty-eight, ranks among the foremost historians of Russia. He rivalled Karamzin in artistic skill and animation of style, and was inferior only to Solovieff in vastness and soundness of research. He was a man of poetic gifts, a South-Russian by birth and spirit, intensely religious, but fond of bold generalizations, original in his conceptions, and pas-

sionate in disseminating them. He was persecuted and for a time kept in confinement by the Government of Czar Nicholas for his ideas on popular Slavic federalism in the past and future, which conflicted both with the orthodox views of autocratic Czarism and the special national claims of the Great-Russians and their capital, Moscow; was well treated in the beginning of the reign of Alexander II., and appointed professor at the University of St. Petersburg, where he became a favorite of the students; but retired from public service in consequence of the riotous student movements of 1861-62. His pictures of the Little-Russian past, in histories, poems, and novels, exposed him to severe and not wholly unmerited criticisms from two opposite sides, the Muscovitish and the Polish, to which he replied with vigor. His writings embrace about forty volumes. Among them are historical sketches of the life and time of Bogdan Khmelnitzki, the chief of the Cossack rising against Poland in the middle of the seventeenth century; of Stenka Razin and Mazeppa—characters kindred to the preceding; of old Russian commerce, the old North-Russian commonwealths, and the poetical folk-lore of Little Russia. His most important work is the 'Russian History in Biographies,' which is, however, brought down only to the middle of the last century.

RECENT POETRY.

When one thinks what a triumph of human intellect, after all, is poetry, it seems as if even the poorest adventure in that line must be treated on a higher plane than any other work of the mind.

"Homer is gone, and where is Jove, and where
The rival cities seven? His song outlasts
Town, tower, and god; all that then was, save Heaven."

But it must be owned with regret that most of the new volumes of verse which have appeared during the last few months, seem to have hardly more of what the scientists now call "viability," than is possessed by the newest cheap tenement house in New York or the latest False Prophet on the Nile.

In this insecurity of the new it is something to be reassured as to the permanence of the old; and it is not wholly a cause for regret that three or four of the most attractive volumes on our recent list are devoted wholly to translations. First among these is Mr. Wharton's long-promised book on 'Sappho' (London: Stott; Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), a poet whose lasting fame is in one respect more remarkable than that of Homer, because it is based upon a few little fragments of song. Never, certainly, was there such a tribute paid to a woman as in this little memorial—gathering up from the whole range of ancient literature every fragment, every phrase, giving it in the original and as translated, together with an exhaustive review of all written about the original. The criticism is mostly drawn from German, the translation from English sources, including, however, one American version. We do not always like Mr. Symonds's renderings as well as Mr. Wharton does; and there is sometimes too much of Swinburne for our taste, since that poet is apt to Swinburnize everything, Sappho included. Mr. Wharton's fifteen pages of Sappho bibliography are so admirable that we are moved to contribute toward its completeness. It does not seem clear why he has included Mrs. Estelle A. Lewis's tragedy of "Sappho" and omitted the much better one by Grillparzer, so well translated by Miss Ellen Frothingham. Again, his exclusion of "well-known histories of Greece and Greek literature" seems to us carried quite too far when he leaves out authors who have paid especial attention to his heroine—as Felton in 'Ancient and Modern Greece' and Edwin Arnold in 'The Poets of Greece.' It would, indeed, seem as if Mr. Wharton must have altogether overlooked this last writer, whose translation of Sappho's chief ode seems to us far better than those of Symonds and Wodehouse which Mr. Wharton gives, and which scarcely attempt to reproduce the Sapphic metre.

We pass most agreeably from ancient to modern Greece through a volume of 'Greek Lays, Idylls, Legends, etc., a selection from Recent and Contemporary Poets,' by Miss Elizabeth M. Edmonds (London: Trübner). This work is drawn from a quarry that has hardly been so well worked since the French Fauriel and the German Müller first opened it—their versions being rendered in English by Margaret Fuller—nearly fifty years ago. Ever since that period there has hung a charm about the Romaic popular song; and though the names of Typaldos and Viziénos may not endure as long as those of Pindar and Anacreon, they at least prolong the heroic tradition. The translations of Miss Edmonds are fresh, vigorous, and not sentimental; and there is a good introduction by Mr. Jenkins, who has evidently some personal knowledge of the Greek struggle for independence.

Another thoroughly delightful book of translations is 'Representative German Poems, ballad and lyrical' (Henry Holt & Co.), edited by Karl Knortz, who has already earned much gratitude from American authors and readers as an interpreter in both directions between his native and his adopted country. In this handsome and substantial volume he has carried much further the plan adopted in Baskerville's little volume, which appeared in 1854, giving the German poem on one page and its English version on another. No book could be imagined more likely to beguile a reluctant student into acquainting himself with the language of the Fatherland, since nothing in German is at once so fascinating and so easily acquired as its ballad literature; and in the hands of translators like Longfellow and Brooks the translation, however poetical, is often so nearly literal that the "gradus ad Parnassum" is facilitated to the last degree. The two impressions left behind, after turning the pages of this attractive volume, are, first, the wealth of German poetry, and then its decadence. It really seems like having in our hands the *florilegium* of a dead language. Out of Mr. Knortz's seventy-eight poets there are actually but ten names of living men, and of these the only ones not obscure are those of Bodenstedt, Pfizer, and Scheffel, the youngest of these being in his sixtieth year. We commend these statistics to those who are fond of writing obituaries for American literature.

Another agreeable volume, upon a somewhat similar plan, is 'Selected Poems of Michelangelo Buonarroti,' edited by Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney (Boston: Lee & Shepard). It is nearly fifty years since Mr. J. E. Taylor, in his 'Michel Angelo as a Philosophical Poet,' first seriously attempted to introduce these poems in English; and Mrs. Cheney, improving upon him, gives the original Italian of each poem, and draws from a variety of translators. The later English volumes of Harford and Symonds of course afford her a good deal, and she is aided by several American friends—Mrs. Howe, Miss Eva Channing, and Messrs. Dwight and Sanborn—her own versions being among the best. We miss, however, that peculiarly beautiful translation in Taylor's volume—the eighth in Guasti's collection—beginning—

"I scarce beheld on earth those beauteous eyes."

In looking over any group of recent books of American poetry, one is almost tempted to exclude in advance those which go, as it were, on crutches. We mean, for instance, all books published on what may be called the "chromo" plan—offering, let us say, a prize of $1,000 to any one who will guess the author of a tame satire like 'The Buntling Ball' (Funk & Wagnalls), whereas it would plainly be worth that sum to read it through. Another form of crutches is to reprint those good-natured letters which elderly poets invariably write to all young aspirants. Thus, a letter from Mr. Whittier appears in facsimile both inside and outside of 'Sheaves,' by Harriet Maxwell Converse (G. P. Putnam's Sons); while, even with this encouragement, we can find nothing in the volume except what the class poet of this year's graduating class in every Woman's College might be expected to produce. So the publishers of Mr. W. H. Venable's 'Melodies of the Heart' (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.) offer a series of these dulcet phrases from Longfellow and Holmes, in the circular accompanying the volume; and yet what good do we gain by these endorsements when we open upon such verses as this, on an occasion which ought, if anything could do it, to call out real feeling and simplicity of utterance:

"When June exhaled her rose-sweet breath,
And earth in sunshine smiled,
Untimely came intrusive Death,
And robbed us of our child.

"The pallid spectre, frozen Sleep,
To Victor's cradle stole,
And kissed the babe to silence deep,
Then lured away his soul." (P. 69.

There is no doubt a great deal of excellent sense in Mr. Venable's book, but no sworn jury of septuagenarian bards can ever convert it into poetry.

Again, another form of crutches—or perhaps we should now say masks—is to make the titles of new volumes so imposing, and so out of all proportion to the contents, that one is reminded of that passage in Mrs. Leighton's delightful 'Life at Puget Sound,' where she arrayed herself in her best for a landing at "Empire City," and found that it consisted of one log-hut. Thus we open Mr. W. C. Richards's 'Science in Song' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), and find no song and very little science, but only a tiresome series of efforts to annihilate Darwin and Huxley in rhyme. Again, in 'Lays of a Bohemian,' by Scott B. Sherwood (New York: Brentano), we find nothing that savors of that wandering race; because we are assured by Mr. Leland that cases of lunacy rarely occur among them, and what other hypothesis can account for the production of such verses as the following, which occur in the closing address "To my Critic"?

"Sooth grant, with my sense none
Can phrase or weld accordantly as I have done,
Since no machine doth work like mine of Jove's invoice—
Or will, so long as Procreation's Pow'rs rejoice.

"My mold distinct from yours as David's from St. Mark's—
As Milton's from Dean Swift's, or Scott's or Jared Sparks'—
As Byron's, Bolingbroke's, or Goldsmith's from Montaigne's—
As Pope's, or Sheridan's, or Lamb's from G. F. Train's—

"As Bulwer's or as Thackeray's from Joaquin Miller's,
Or any prosing screed's or rhyming caterpillar's—
Of all the medley memory may nimbly trill,
From Clio's phalanx, life and legend leave us still."

Once more, we cannot think that the beautiful old tale of "Hero and Leander" is aided by such a setting as is given at the hands of Mr. Carl R. Zache (New York: The Author) in verses like these:

"O Hero is not well in this stiff breeze;
She thinks not of her face, her form, her side,
Her ruby lips, 'neath which her teeth parade,
Her eyes' clear lustre of their lashes' shade.
She has ten fevers, all combined in one,
And ten times ten, t' fire her imagination.
Each threatening breaker causes her to run,
Each lull to stop and hope his preservation;
To list for every sound and noise and cry,
And then to swear, 'He is too good to die.'" (P. 40.)

Passing beyond the realm of chromos, crutches, and great names, we find with regret that with one striking exception—to be mentioned presently—the American poetry of the last few months seems to offer but little promise. Several small

volumes possess a certain interest as coming from regions hitherto rather unproductive. A book of verses from Canada, for instance, comes almost as unexpectedly as if from Labrador; and Mr. Nicholas Flood Davis, in his introduction to 'Eos—a Prairie Dream, and Other Poems' (Ottawa, Can.: Citizens' Publishing Co.), explains that this is but a part of a book soon to appear in England. With laudable patriotism, he prefers that the strictly Canadian part should appear on its proper soil; and the verses certainly have merit so far as they go. The same may be said of 'New Poems,' by James Avis Buckley (Charlotteville, Va.: Jeffersonian Printing House) and, to some extent, of the 'Ode to Virginia' by Gilbert R. Frith (Richmond, Va.: West, Johnston & Co.)—the latter being deprived of all aspect of sectionalism by being dedicated in warm and generous terms to the memory of the late Barnas Sears, D.D., General Agent of the Peabody Education Fund, at whose instance it was written. Another volume having a certain topographical interest to eke out any rhythmic deficiencies is 'Rural Lyrics, Elegies, and Other Short Poems,' by the Hon. J. F. Simmons, of Henderson, Ky. (Philadelphia: Lippincott). It is dedicated, with right Southern courtesy, to "Miss Olivia P. Hill, of Memphis, Tenn., a fair bright daughter of the Muses." Still another volume, apparently Southern, is entitled 'Fragments from an Old Inn,' by Lilian Rozell Messenger (New York: Putnams). It is made up of verses and prose fragments, sometimes graceful, oftener crude, and including a poem called "Alabama," which tells us that the author has resided in that State. It is curious to notice that in all these contributions from what some of the writers like to call "the Southland" a certain quality is common—a glowing, effusive, sometimes rather trite effect, suggestive of that old-time type of Southerner who was, as Willis said, incapable of a short word or a mean action.

Local coloring from a different direction may be found in Mrs. Helen H. Rich's 'Dream of the Adirondacks, and Other Poems' (New York: Putnams); and some of this lady's dialect poems and verses on labor questions have a vigor and personal force quite above the commonplace average of such compositions. From the Middle States we have the serenity of Pennsylvania Quaker life represented by David Newport in 'The Pleasures of Home, and Other Poems' (Philadelphia: Lippincott). Mrs. Piatt contributes two very small volumes—one called 'An Irish Garland' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and the other published conjointly with her husband under the title 'The Children Out-of-Doors, by Two in One House' (Cincinnati: R. Clarke & Co.)—these "two" being explained by the publishers in a circular to be Mr. and Mrs. Piatt. Such an exceedingly thin semblance of anonymousness might naturally suggest something counterfeited in the poems, but there is no such exhibition; both books show genuinely that combination which we have come to associate with these gifted writers—a great love of childhood, and a great power of extracting unhappiness from its contemplation. But the work of Mr. and Mrs. Piatt is never crude, which is a good deal, and is more than can always be said for Mr. James B. Kenyon's 'Songs in All Seasons' (Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.); for Mr. Herbert Wolcott Bowen's 'Verses' (same publishers); for Mary Barker Dodge's 'The Gray Masque, and Other Poems' (Boston: Lothrop); or for E. Yancey Cohen's 'Sir Cupid, and Other Poems' (Cambridge, Mass.: King). Several of these authors venture on translations, of which Mr. Bowen's are decidedly the best, we should say—indeed, there is a flavor of Heine through his original work—and Mr. Cohen's the worst. It is little less than sheer cruelty to make Chateaubriand in exile address his sister with—

"Sweet sis, dost thou remember?" (P. 82.)

Some of the parodies of hymns in Mr. J. G. Dalton's 'Sixty Poets on the Wheel' (Boston: Hodges) are quite as objectionable, although some of his bicycling lyrics are capital imitations. 'Agamemnon's Daughter,' a poem in four cantos, by Denton J. Snider (Boston: Osgood), does not strike us as being so valuable a fruit of his Greek studies and travels as 'Delphic Days,' which was fresher and less conventional.

But the one recent American volume of poems that yields genuine satisfaction is 'A New Year's Masque, and Other Poems,' by Edith M. Thomas (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Here again we have the element of local interest, for Miss Thomas is understood to have spent her life in Ohio, and her single pen has given to that State, as Miss Murfree has given to Tennessee, the right to claim the production of a classic writer. Miss Thomas's work, both prose and verse, has rapidly made itself known through the magazines to thoughtful readers; and among those of this class who have met with it there is, we believe, no doubt as to its rare quality. It does not yet combine all merits—the rich and mellow human element is still rather wanting in it; but it is unsurpassed in contemporary literature for the fineness of its interpretation of nature, and the delicate subtlety of its imagination. Shelley, Keats, Andrew Marvell pass before us in turn as we gaze on these airy structures, that seem to touch the common earth just at one point, as when a child's glittering soap-bubble drops and floats along the floor. How wholly aerial, for instance, is her "Light Round," and how exquisitely handled is the disappearance of the fairy troop, a thing far more difficult to handle than the process of evoking them. This we forbear to quote, as it has often been reprinted, but give the following, which might have been written by Marvell:

"THE GRASSHOPPER.

"Shuttle of the sunburnt grass,
Fifer in the dun cuirass,
Fifing shrilly in the morn,
Shrilly still at eve unworn;
Now to rear, now in the van,
Gayest of the elfin clan:
Though I watch their rustling flight,
I can never guess aright
Where their lodging-places are;
'Mid some daisy's golden star,
Or beneath a roofing leaf,
Or in fringes of a sheaf,
Tenanted as soon as found!
Loud thy reveille doth sound,
When the earth is laid asleep,
And her dreams are passing deep,
On mid-August afternoons;
And through all the harvest moons,
Nights brimmed up with honeyed peace,
Thy gainsaying doth not cease.
When the frost comes thou art dead;
We along the stubble tread,
On blue, frozen morns, and note
No least murmur is afloat:
Wondrous still our fields are then,
Fifer of the elfin men!" (P. 97.)

Here, again, is something that would not seem out of place had we found it in one of Browning's later volumes:

"THEANO.

"The sacred rites of Eleusis, Demeter's mysteries old,
Hath Alcibiades mocked, profaning with mimicry bold;
Wherefore, ye priests and priestesses, hear what the city commands:
'Spare not, but curse Alcibiades, lifting your reverend hands.'

"Not loath were they of the temples to hear and obey the decree,—
Not loath were they, all save one; fair daughter of Menon was she.
'Obey, if ye will, man's word. By me shall the gods be obeyed.
Lo! I am here, not for cursing: a priestess for prayer was I made!'

"Praise to thee, daughter of Menon, star of Agraulos's fane!
Praise to thee, steadfast Theano! Thy words bright-blazoned remain;
Forgotten are theirs who from altars of wrath their malisons hurled.
So ever: the curse falls void, the prayer wins the heart of the world." (P. 47.)

This might be placed beside Browning's noble "Echetlos," as might another poem, "Lityerses and the Reapers," also in the volume before us (p. 113). There is certainly no American poet under forty who can be said, so truly as Miss Thomas, to represent an indefinite possibility; given life and health, there is no telling what high imaginative work she may not yet produce.

The volumes of poetry that have reached us from England during the last few months offer nothing very noticeable, if we except Lord Tennyson's "Becket" (Macmillan), which has now been before the public for some time without greatly arresting attention, and is to be viewed rather as a vigorous and sometimes rude rendering of English history than as a poem. Even its lyrics lack the exquisite finish which we are accustomed to expect from the laureate. It is a curious proof of the transfer of public interest from the drama to prose fiction that this work, like its predecessor "Queen Mary," has fallen so dead. Had Lord Tennyson written a novel, every reader of the English tongue would have sought it with the greatest eagerness. It is perhaps in recognition of this fact that Lord Lytton tries to make his "Glenaveril, or the Metamorphoses: a Poem in Six Books" (New York: Appleton), seem like a novel, but the attempt is hopeless; if it were a novel, it would be as dull and unreadable as now. The fault of dulness cannot perhaps be charged on Mr. Alfred Austin in his 'At the Gate of the Convent, and Other Poems' (Macmillan)—at least when he tries to avert it by such detestable verses as these, in his "Te Deum":

"Thanks for all things that are—
For the fair, the foul, the fell.
Thanks for the Morning Star,
And the nethermost murk of Hell;

"For the music of moonlight nights,
And the savor of summer days;
For the swoop of carrion kites,
And the stench of gibbeted jays." (P. 94.)

But Mr. Austin rarely gives us any actual poetic quality, except as it was elicited by foreign travel, in some of his earlier volumes.

It is needless to say that we have from England a supply of "ballades" and "virelays" and similar confectionery. This comes partly from the well-known establishment of Mr. Austin Dobson, whose 'At the Sign of the Lyre' (New York: Holt.) it is impossible not to treat good-naturedly, or to care very much about. He disarms criticism, too, by dedicating so many of his verses to American friends. Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Rhymes à la Mode' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.) have rather more body to them; and the following hit at one of the old tormentors is certainly worth preserving:

"BALLADE OF THE PRIMITIVE JEST.

"'What did the dark-haired Iberian laugh at before the tall blonde Aryan drove him into the corners of Europe?'
—*Brander Matthews.*

"I am an ancient Jest!
Palæolithic man
In his arboreal nest
The sparks of fun would fan;
My outline did he plan,
And laughed like one possessed,
'Twas thus my course began,
I am a Merry Jest.

"I am an early Jest!
Man delved, and built, and span;
Then wandered South and West
The peoples Aryan,
I journeyed in their van;
The Semites, too, confessed—
From Beersheba to Dan—
I am a Merry Jest!

"I am an ancient Jest,
Through all the human clan,
Red, black, white, free, oppressed
Hilarious I ran!
I'm found in Lucian,
In Poggio, and the rest,
I'm dear to Moll and Nan!
I am a Merry Jest!

"ENVOY.

"Prince, you may storm and ban—
Joe Millers *are* a pest,
Suppress me if you can!
I am a Merry Jest!" (P. 113.)

'A Child's Garland of Verses,' by Robert Louis Stevenson (Scribners), is fresh and delightful, and sure not to disappoint the large constituency of children who have enjoyed his 'Treasure Island'; while it has a literary quality that will also hold his elder readers. 'Echoes of Memory,' by Ath-

erton Furlong (London: Field & Tuer), is a quaint volume, with etchings by Tristram J. Ellis; there is some good verse in it and some commonplace, with a good deal of what may be called the romance of domestic antiquity—poems about "The Dear Old Knocker" and "The Old Town Pump." Of much higher aim and execution is 'A Heart's Life, Sarpedon, and Other Poems,' by Ella Sharpe Youngs (London: Kegan Paul). In the poem of "Sarpedon," especially, there is a grasp of passion and power that gives hope for the future career of this new aspirant. Mr. Mark André Raffalovich can hardly be called a new aspirant, so marked was the impression made by his previous volume 'Cyril and Lionel.' His present work, 'Sesame and Lilies' (London: Kegan Paul), seems scarcely an advance upon the earlier one in feeling, though its execution is more even and sustained; for the fleshliness becomes rather cloying, and is not pervaded by an inner fire like Rossetti's. A whole bookful of red mouths and lips hungry for kisses becomes as monotonous as a garden full of peonies; and amid such torrid heats one sighs at last for a hospitable ice-house. Jean Ingelow's new volume of 'Poems' (Boston: Roberts Bros.) does not exactly offer this refuge, but it is refreshingly cool and pure after passion's heats. It certainly does not quite equal in imaginative power some of her earlier work; but it has the merit of a charming prefatory poem by Miss Woolsey ("Susan Coolidge"), which is unsurpassed by anything else that is contained between the covers:

"TO JEAN INGELOW.

"When youth was high, and life was new,
And days sped musical and fleet,
She stood amid the morning dew,
And sang her earliest measures sweet—
Sang as the lark sings, speeding fair
To touch and taste the purer air,
To gain a nearer view of Heaven;
'Twas then she sang 'The Songs of Seven.'

"Now, farther on in womanhood,
With trained voice and ripened art,
She gently stands where once she stood,
And sings from out her deeper heart.
Sing on, dear Singer! sing again;
And we will listen to the strain,
Till soaring earth greets bending Heaven,
And seven-fold songs grow seventy-seven."

THE REVISED OLD TESTAMENT.—II.

WE continue our comparison of the old and the revised versions:

JOB X.

1. My soul is weary of my life; I will leave my complaint upon myself [*I will give free course to my complaint*]; I will speak in the bitterness of my soul.
2. I will say unto God, do not condemn me; shew me wherefore thou contendest with me.
3. *Is it* good unto thee that thou shouldest oppress, that thou shouldest despise the work of thine hands, and shine upon the counsel of the wicked?
4. Hast thou eyes of flesh? or seest thou as man seeth?
5. *Are* thy days as the days of man? *are* [*or*] thy years as man's days?

The new rendering in verse 1 is less literal, but more correct, as well as more intelligible, than that of the Authorized. The original says, "I will let loose my lament within me" (Zöckler correctly compares the use of *'ālai* in Job xxx. 16, Ps. xlii. 6 [5], 12, and Jer. viii. 18), or, possibly, "over myself" (Canon Cook). The free rendering is that of Gesenius and the latest editors of his Lexicon (1883; *s. v. 'āzab*): "freien Lauf lass ich meiner Klage." While so much liberty is exceptionally taken in verse 1, the first eighteen words of verse 3 are left unaltered, to represent eight short words of the original, which would be quite faithfully translated thus: *Is it good to thee to oppress? to spurn the work of thy hands?*

PSALMS X.

1. Why standest thou afar off, O LORD? *why* hidest thou *thyself* in times of trouble?
2. The wicked in *his* pride doth persecute the poor [*In the pride of the wicked the poor is hotly pursued*]: let them be taken in the devices that they have imagined.
3. For the wicked boasteth of his heart's desire, and blesseth the covetous *whom* the LORD abhorreth [*And the covetous renounceth*, yea, *contemneth the* LORD].
4. The wicked, through [*in*] the pride of his countenance, will not seek *after God* [saith, *He will not require it*]. God *is* not in all his thoughts [*All his thoughts are, there is no God*].
5. His ways are always grievous [*firm at all times*]; thy judgments *are* far above, out of his sight: *as for* all his enemies [*adversaries*], he puffeth at them.

In order to explain—to those of our readers who are not familiar with the Hebrew tongue—how verses 3 and 4 could be so differently translated by two sets of thoroughly learned men, equally bent on verbal accuracy, we must state that the Hebrew verb *bērēkh*, which generally signifies *to bless*, has exceptionally the meaning of *to curse* (as the Authorized Version translates it in Job i., 5, ii., 5, 9, and I. Kings xxi., 10, 13; compare *salutem imprecari* and *imprecatio*, or of *to renounce* ("den Abschied geben," Mühlau and Volk's Gesenius); that *dārash* signifies both *to inquire* and *to require;* that the Hebrew text, here unusually obscure, contains various ambiguities, such as we should find in English poetry, in "The wicked boasteth, and the covetous curseth," which, if not explained by the context, would leave it doubtful whether the covetous curses or is cursed by the wicked, or in "The covetous the Lord contemneth," which might be ambiguous in the same way; and that the marginal notes in both versions allude to diverse explanations. Neither of the two renderings of the five verses, however, is even tolerably satisfactory. Finer and more correct on the whole, though not entirely in accord, are, among others, those of De Wette, Sachs (in Zunz's Bible), and Reuss (in his French Bible), and especially the following rendering by Prof. John De Witt—a member of the American Old Testament Revision Company—in his admirable Psalter, entitled 'Praise-Songs of Israel' (New York, 1884):

"Why, O Jehovah! standest thou afar?
Why hidest thou in times of distress?
Through the pride of the wicked
Is the lowly in anguish;
He is caught by the wiles they devised.
The wicked praise God over their soul's greed;
Defrauders bless and despise Jehovah.

"The wicked man saith with a proud face,
'He will not avenge.'
'THERE IS NO GOD' is in all his plans.

"Bold are his ways at all times;
Thy judgments are high away from him;
As for his foes, he puffeth at them all."

PROVERBS X.

1. The proverbs of Solomon. A wise son makes a glad father: but the foolish son *is* the heaviness of his mother.
2. Treasures of wickedness profit nothing: but righteousness delivereth from death.
3. The LORD will not suffer the soul of the righteous to famish: but he casteth [*thrusteth*] away the substance [*desire*] of the wicked.
4. He becometh poor that dealeth *with* a slack hand: but the hand of the diligent maketh rich.
5. He that gathereth in summer *is* a wise son: *but* he that sleepeth in harvest *is* a son that causeth shame.

"The proverbs of Solomon" ought to have been changed into *Proverbs of Solomon*. The Hebrew *Mishlē Sh'lōmōh*, it is true, may, like the Vulgate's "Parabolæ Salomonis," mean the one or the other; but the book of Proverbs has three principal divisions, the first and the second beginning with *Mishlē Sh'lōmōh*, and the third (xxv. 1) with "These are also proverbs of Solomon." It is thus clear that neither division could be headed "*The* proverbs of Solomon," and modern German translators, like De Wette, Arnheim (in Zunz's Bible), and Zöckler (in Lange's), have therefore "Sprüche" [not *Die Sprüche*], in i. 1 as well as here. In verse 3, "thrusteth away" is better than "casteth away." The substitution of "desire" for "substance," in choosing which King James's translators followed the Chaldee version and Aben Ezra, is in accord with the sounder rendering of the Vulgate, adopted by Gesenius, Ewald, Fürst, Bertheau, and recent translators and lexicographers generally.

ISAIAH X.

1. Woe unto them that decree unrighteous decrees, and that write grievousness *which* they have prescribed [*and to the writers that write perverseness*];
2. To turn aside the needy from judgment, and to take away the right from [*of*] the poor of my people, that widows may be their prey [*spoil*], and *that* they may rob the fatherless [*may make the fatherless their prey*]!
3. And what will ye do in the day of visitation, and in the desolation *which* shall come from far? to whom will ye flee for help? and where will ye leave your glory?
4. Without me they shall [*They shall only*] bow down under the prisoners, and they shall [*and shall*] fall under the slain. For all this his anger is not turned away, but his hand *is* stretched out still.
5. O [*Ho*] Assyrian, the rod of mine anger, and the staff in their hand [*the staff in whose hand*] is mine indignation.

Both renderings of the second part of verse 1 are inadequate; that of the Authorized Version may be said to be beneath criticism. The prophet denounces in well-chosen, powerful terms official scribes busily writing out or registering decrees pregnant with iniquity and mischief. (Compare Gesenius, Delitzsch, Nägelsbach, etc.) The Hebrew noun *'āmāl*, rendered by *grievousness* and *perverseness* respectively, is derived from a verb having the various meanings of Lat. *laborare*, and designates *labor, toil, trouble, sorrow, evil, mischief*. It occurs upward of fifty times in the Scriptures; more than twenty times in Ecclesiastes, where both the Authorized Version and the Revised render it uniformly by "labor," excepting that the former has twice "travail," instead. Ten times it is coupled, directly or in parallelism, with *āven;* and it is characteristic of the two versions to see how the two words thus coupled are translated by them respectively. The Authorized Version has (for *āven* and *'āmāl*) "iniquity" and "mischief" (twice), "vanity" and "mischief" (twice), "iniquity" and "perverseness," "iniquity" and "wickedness," "iniquity" and "grievance," "unrighteous[ness]" and "grievousness," "affliction" and "trouble," "sorrow" and "labor"; the Revised has "iniquity" and "mischief" (four times), "iniquity" and "perverseness" (twice), "iniquity" and "trouble," "unrighteous[ness]" and "perverseness," "affliction" and "trouble," "sorrow" and "labor." A close examination and comparison shows that the renderings of the Revised are both more uniform and more correct, without being entirely so; that the Authorized Version's "vanity" in this connection is wholly indefensible; that "unrighteous" in both versions stands quite unnecessarily for "iniquitous"; and that "perverseness," also in both, is very questionable.

In verse 2 "of" is better than "from," and "spoil" than "prey," but "may make . . . their prey" for "may rob," after Cheyne, is no improvement; *may plunder* would be the right expression. Verse 4 is decidedly improved, but, there being no room for an explanation, remains obscure. It is "the answer to the question in *v.* 3. This is the only place where the Jewish nobles can hide their head or deposit their glory" (Cheyne), and that in vain (Knobel). The changes in verse 5 call for no remark.

HOSEA X.

1. Israel is an empty [*a luxuriant*] vine, he bringeth forth fruit unto himself [*which putteth forth his fruit*]: according to the multitude of his fruit he hath increased the altars [*multiplied his altars*]; according to the goodness of his land they have made goodly images [*pillars*].
2. Their heart is divided; now shall they be found faulty [*guilty*]: he shall break down [*smite*] their altars; he shall spoil their images [*pillars*].

3. For now they shall say [*surely now shall they say*], we have no king, because we feared not [*for we fear not*] the LORD; what then should a king do to us? [*and the king, what can he do for us?*]

4. They have spoken words [*They speak vain words*], swearing falsely in making a covenant [*covenants*]: thus [therefore] judgment springeth up as hemlock in the furrows of the field.

5. The inhabitant of Samaria shall fear [*shall be in terror*] because of [*for*] the calves of Bethaven: for the people thereof shall mourn over it, and the priests thereof *that* rejoiced on [*over*] it, for the glory thereof, because it is departed from it.

Here every verse is improved, in accord with the best commentators, though, perhaps, not sufficiently. It is, however, not in renderings of words and phrases frequently occurring in the Scriptures, like almost all those we have hitherto had occasion to examine, that the Revised Version displays marked verbal innovations. This is in the nature of the subject. Expressions often repeated are explained by the context. Most of the Hebrew Bible would be perfectly clear, even without the aid of Jewish tradition, if no other Semitic dialect existed to throw light upon meanings. There are, however, numerous words which occur so rarely, or are so obscurely or so loosely connected, that the light of comparative lexicography is needed to explain them. It is in regard to these that the Revisers have had special advantages over the translators of the beginning of the seventeenth century. Our knowledge of Arabic and Ethiopic is incomparably greater than it was then. The Syriac, Greek, and other old versions have since been studied with greater care. Egyptology and Assyriology have opened new sources of information. Research and minute examination have been constantly going on. The Revisers have examined, collated, and weighed the results of modern and most recent inquiry, and adopted what appeared to them best founded. We cannot assume that the latest view is always correct, but we may assume that the Revisers have not substituted their renderings without more or less cogent reasons—as, for instance, in translating the names of animals contained in Lev. xi. 13-31, where the two versions differ thus:

Authorized Version.	*Revised Version.*
Eagle, ossifrage, ospray.	Eagle, gier eagle, ospray.
Vulture, kite; raven.	Kite, falcon; raven.
Owl, night hawk, cuckoo, hawk.	Ostrich, night hawk, sea mew, hawk.
Little owl, cormorant, great owl.	Little owl, cormorant, great owl.
Swan, pelican, gier eagle.	Horned owl, pelican; vulture.
Stork, heron, lapwing, bat.	Stork, heron, hoopoe, bat.
Weasel, mouse, tortoise.	Weasel, mouse, great lizard.
Ferret, chameleon, lizard, snail, mole.	Gecko, land-crocodile, lizard, sand-lizard, chameleon.

RECENT FRENCH LITERATURE.

THE second volume of Paul Albert's 'Littérature française au dix-neuvième siècle' (Hachette) has at last appeared. Like the first, it is edited by his son, and shows at every page the lack of the final touches of the author, whom it would not be just to judge by his posthumous works, so inferior are they to what he was willing to publish in his lifetime. The present publication was to have been in three volumes; yet, incomplete and fragmentary as it is, it contains the best general view we have of the literature of France in the nineteenth century. This is not saying much, as there is nothing of the kind that is satisfactory, nothing so good as the same writer's lectures on the literature of the eighteenth century, his best work. For Paul Albert, literature was not confined to what is, or rather was, usually studied by literary historians of the school of Nisard or Geruzez. He had, if anything, too much contempt for mere form and fine writing. In a spirit of reaction against his predecessors, he was often unjust to celebrities who, in his opinion, had been overpraised in the current manuals. The Song of Roland, the works of Ronsard and his disciples, even Racine and all the merely literary writers of the eighteenth century, found little favor in his eyes. Severe and even harsh in his judgments on Bossuet, he is in full sympathy with many of the less known authors, especially if they were men of action neglected in previous histories of French literature. Thus, he devotes three of his best lectures to Montluc, Agrippa d'Aubigné, and Bernard Palissy. This explains why the historians Thierry, Guizot, Thiers, Michelet occupy so much space in this second volume—why the philosophers and political writers are not omitted; and we may be sure that, had the author lived, the lion's share in the literature of the nineteenth century would not have been given to the dramatists, novelists, and poets.

A short time before his death Paul Albert had been appointed Professor at the Collège de France. M. Émile Deschanel succeeded him, but cannot be said to have continued his teaching. Light, rambling, always eloquent and never deep, M. Deschanel's qualities, good and bad, show forth in his last work, 'Pascal, La Rochefoucauld, Bossuet' (Calmann Lévy), a collection of his later lectures. It is the fourth volume of the series which, with a love of paradox that is characteristic of the writer, he has entitled 'Le Romantisme des Classiques.' The pages on La Rochefoucauld are among the pleasantest that the author has written, for he is at home in the world in which the great moralist moved. It is with evident pleasure that, with reminiscences of Sainte-Beuve, he traces the four periods of his life as influenced in turn by Mme. de Chevreuse, Mme. de Longueville, Mme. de Sablé, and Mme. de La Fayette. One short lecture is devoted to Pascal; no less than two whole volumes are given to Racine in the same series. The pages on Bossuet are very unsatisfactory. M. Deschanel is more at ease, more in his own element, when he talks of the Précieuses of the Hôtel de Rambouillet, or of the circumstances that brought about the writing of Racine's "Bérénice," than when he tries to judge the author of the 'Histoire universelle.' As to his favorite paradox in regard to traces of what he is pleased to call Romanticism in the classic writers of the seventeenth century, he frequently and fortunately loses sight of it in the present volume.

It would not be difficult to dilute the last book of M. Gaston Paris, 'La Poésie du moyen âge' (Hachette) into three or four readable volumes such as those just noticed. Here we have original research coupled with the highest scholarship, and some of the results of a life of study presented with that charm of style which French scholars so often possess. Part of the work was written nearly twenty years ago, yet it is all as fresh as if written to-day. It consists of four lectures and three papers read before the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. Two of the articles—one on the beginnings of French literature and one on the Song of Roland—were never before published; the others were not easily accessible. The first lecture, which gives its title to the collection, "The Poetry of the Middle Ages," is the best and broadest, as well as the most beautifully written, exposition of a very difficult subject. In this, as well as in the next, on the beginnings of French literature, M. Gaston Paris defends (or rather states and develops as fully as can be done in so limited a space) the theory which assigns a Frankish origin to the old heroic French poetry. He shows the rise of the *poésie courtoise*, born in Provence and developed in northern France, whence it spread to all the courts of Europe. He traces the influence of the Celtic spirit as first shown in the poem of "Tristan and Iseult," later in the Romances of the Round Table. "What the Celtic poem sings is love freed from all bonds, from all constraint, from all duty other than itself—love, fatal, passionate, illegitimate, vanquisher of all, of obstacles, dangers, death, and even honor." Nor has this inspiration ceased to be felt; and love, such as it is understood in the early romances, "has remained since then the favorite and almost sole subject" of all imaginative French literature. The other chapters in the volume are equally interesting and suggestive. They are: The Song of the Pilgrimage of Charlemagne; The Angel and the Hermit, a wide-spread legend known to English readers through Parnell's "Hermit," and the Ancient French Versions of Ovid. The last is a beautiful filial and affectionate yet discriminating tribute to the father of the author, Paulin Paris, who did more than any man in his generation to further the study of French literature in the middle ages.

The literary success of the year in France has been M. Paul Bourget's last psychological novel, 'Cruelle Énigme' (Lemerre; New York: Christern); for Zola's 'Germinal' owes its great sale, in part at least, to causes with which literature has nothing to do. The fine, and even subtile, analysis of M. Bourget does not seem of a kind to appeal to the general public. His 'Essais de Psychologie contemporaine,' of which a new volume is announced to appear shortly, seemed to stamp him as a writer who would be fully enjoyed by a few only; but, in spite of all previsions, his last novel has been widely read. He is one of the youngest of the rising celebrities in France; the French papers tell us he is not thirty, but this is a slight exaggeration. His book is dedicated to Mr. Henry James, with whom he expresses himself as in sympathy. Having discussed together "cet art du roman, le plus moderne de tous," they agreed that all the laws imposed upon the novelist by the various systems of æsthetics are summed up in one—"to give a personal impression of life." This impression, in 'Cruelle Énigme,' is saddening. The story is simple and could be told in a page, but it would give no idea of the book, which leaves us with a feeling of disenchantment. The keynote of the whole is in the final sentence: "Alas! it is a profound truth that man is such as his love is; but this love—why, whence comes it to us? A question without an answer, and, like the treachery of woman, like the weakness of man, like life itself, a cruel, cruel enigma." Not to mislead the reader, it must be added that M. Bourget is a writer who, while remaining always pure in expression, neither seeks nor avoids certain situations common in French novels, but, with the impassive serenity of an observer, looks upon morality as something that may be neglected.

Very different in style and purpose from M. Bourget is another rising novelist, M. Georges Ohnet. He has thought proper to give a collective title to his novels, 'Les Batailles de la Vie.' The immense success of his first and best, 'Serge Panine,' may have contributed to make him careless in the style of his later books, which seem written with the ease of a Dumas or a Boisgobey. His last work is 'La Grande Marnière' (Paul Ollendorf; New York: Christern), of which the scene is laid in Normandy. The story recounts the culmination of a feud between the Marquis de Clairefont, the *grand seigneur* of the neighborhood, and Jean Carvajan, the banker, who has never forgiven the injury received thirty years before when both were young. The situation is similar to that in 'L'Idée de Jean Têterol' of Cherbuliez, but M. Ohnet has not that master's power of creating living men and women, and the characters, like those in his 'Le Maître de Forges,' are conventional and unreal. But his story has life and interest, and there is in it nothing to offend the English reader.

Hetzel, in his excellent "Bibliothèque d'Édu-

cation et de Récréation," has published 'Le Grand Vaincu,' by Henry Cauvin, an historical story founded upon the last campaign of Montcalm in Canada (New York: Christern). Boys and girls and some other readers who have not lost the youthful appetite for adventure, will follow with interest the two young Frenchmen who crossed the ocean to finish a duel begun at Versailles, and who, after much fighting but no duel, return the best of friends. Montcalm and Wolfe are both among the prominent characters, as well as the traditional Indian chief and his friend, the hunter and trapper, a young French Canadian, the hero of the story.

'Solange de Croix-Saint-Luc,' by M. Albert Delpit, recently completed in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, has been published by Paul Ollendorff. The author of 'Le Fils de Coralie' has made a very readable and interesting story out of the old materials, though with an evident attempt to mould them over into something new and fresh.

The great indiscretion, some say the great scandal, in Paris during the first part of the year was the publication by M. L. Andrieux in his newspaper, *La Ligue*, of his 'Souvenirs d'un Préfet de Police.' We may expect further revelations in regard to the secret service of the French police, as the publishers, Jules Rouff et Cie. (New York: Christern) present these as a first volume. If M. Andrieux is not taken too seriously, his book will be found to be very amusing. He writes in a helter-skelter way, and is never dull. He is rather indiscreet in regard to some of the men now or lately at the head of affairs in France, and this has caused some very lively discussions in the French press. An interesting part of the volume is that which relates to the carrying out of the decrees of March, 1880, directed against the non authorized religious congregations, and especially against the Jesuits. This execution M. Andrieux carried out in his official capacity with rigor and promptness, but since then the ex-prefect of police, the ex-ambassador to Spain, seems to have tried to conciliate the very clerical party which he had so offended. The memoirs touch upon many things: Freemasonry, Rochefort, Louise Michel, anarchism, the *Kulturkampf*, and Gambetta, whom the author cordially hates.

An interesting addition to the "Petite Bibliothèque Artistique" (Jouaust) is the republication in six volumes of the first French translation of 'Don Quixote,' by Oudin and 'Rosset, in 1614 and 1618. The work is preceded by an historical introduction by M. Émile Gebhart.

THE PARSIS.

History of the Parsis, including their manners, customs, religion, and present position. By Dosabbai Framji Karaka, C.S.I. With colored and other illustrations. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. 1884.

In beauty of outward appearance, in magnificence of type and paper, these volumes, which recite the fortunes of what is now one of the most humble of religions, might well satisfy the most powerful on the earth. The author, Presidency Magistrate, and Chairman of Her Majesty's Bench of Justice, Bombay, has filled many of the highest offices attainable in India by the native population, and visited England more than a quarter of a century ago, at the time of the great Mutiny. During the height of it he wrote a pamphlet which had extensive circulation among the Parsis and Hindus, and in which he urged the superior benefits conferred by English rule. Later, he wrote a history of the Parsis for the instruction of the English world, and in the Gujarati vernacular an account of his travels in Great Britain. His present work is mainly interesting and valuable as the work of a Parsi speaking from within a circle which heretofore has been apprehended almost exclusively from without. It adds little or nothing to our knowledge of the earlier history of the Parsis, their religion, and their sacred books. All that the author has to say upon these heads is less instructive than Professor Whitney's fifty-page article, "The Avesta," in his volume of 'Oriental and Linguistic Studies.' The Parsis of Bombay are indebted to European scholarship for their best knowledge of the historical development of their own religion, and Mr. Karaka frequently resorts to Haug and other European scholars for a better exposition than he is able to give in his own words. It is when he speaks of the present condition of the Parsis, of their various customs, of their enterprise and thrift, of their educational institutions, and their philanthropic zeal, that he speaks as one having authority, and generally in an engaging manner.

His book is one of most effusive loyalty. Englishmen who are in danger of forgetting that they have an Empress-Queen will refresh their memories at the fountain of Mr. Karaka's exuberant adulation of her imperial person. The book is dedicated to the Prince of Wales as an account of "a community that claims to be the most loyal among the many millions of Eastern subjects who recognize the beneficent sway of the British Crown," "in commemoration of his auspicious visit to India." This note recurs at intervals not widely separate, and, in the closing paragraph of the book, rings out with special energy. The Parsis' brighter and better days are dated from the advent of British Power in 1668:

"Upon that Power they depend and implicitly rely. . . . To it they owe everything, and from it they hope to gain still more. Can it then be wondered at that loyalty—consistent, deep, and abiding loyalty—coupled with a touching reverence and affection for the royal family, has become a part of the Parsi nature, almost a part of the Parsi religion? so that with one consent the whole community daily prays, 'God bless the Queen!'"

There is a suggestion of the "thrift that follows fawning" in this sort of thing, and possibly the book is typical in this respect. That the Parsis have not been persecuted in India is a fact illustrative of the beatitude, "The meek shall inherit the earth." Mr. Karaka frankly acknowledges that they originally established themselves by dissembling their true faith, and by conforming, to the verge of its allowance and sometimes beyond, to the customs of the Hindu population.

The book begins with the amusing statement, which is one of many that betray a lack of training in the art of clear expression: "The Parsis are probably the smallest community in the whole world, for they number scarcely one hundred thousand." About 8,000 of these are in Persia. In India, on the night of February 17, 1881, there were 85,397. Our author is delighted with their numerical insignificance as compared with the total population of India, 253,891,821. Even in Bombay—the Presidency—there is only one Parsi in two hundred persons; and in the city of Bombay there are only 48,000 to 502,000 Hindus and 158,000 Mussulmans. The census of 1881 showed that the Parsi population was increasing. There are more males than females: the proportion is 108 to 100. The statistics of the different occupations and professions are interesting and instructive. They have 855 priests and other religious officials to their 48,000 in Bombay; 141 male teachers out of 951, and 44 female out of 165; 33 civil engineers in a total of 84; 26 ship-builders out of 46; 1,384 ordinary clerks, and 115 business managers; 6 mendicants out of 10,000 in the city! The ancient Persians were famous agriculturists and soldiers. The modern Parsis are remarkable for their disinclination to both agriculture and war. This their historian regrets. There are signs of improvement in respect to agriculture, but the census of 1881 did not show a single Parsi soldier. That their veneration for fire prevents their using firearms is, we are told, absurd, though it prevents their smoking opium or tobacco. They are not soldiers because soldiering doesn't pay. "The poorest Parsi woman would want at least two silk *saris* a year, costing at least ten rupees each, besides trousers, shirt, shoes, etc., with proper covering for the children. How can a Parsi, then, become a soldier on seven rupees a month?" In this connection we have one of the most naïve of Mr. Karaka's remarks: "If, however, a few Parsis could be induced to take service as soldiers, however poor the remuneration might be, a bright future would after a time open out for them. They would have the opportunity of proving what good soldiers they could make."

The Parsis of India are divided into two sects, which do not differ on any point of faith or ritual, but only as to the correct computation of the era of the third Yezdegerd, the last king of the Sassanian dynasty. Mr. Karaka's impression is that the Kadenis and Shehenshais are both wrong. Both sects observe the same festivals—in which the Parsi year is rich—but on different days. Both use the same prayers, but date them audibly in a different manner. Every day in the Parsi month has a peculiar name, and is supposed to have a peculiar fitness for one thing or another. But this fitness is observed no longer, and the circumstance is viewed by Mr. Karaka without regret. In general, he is pleased with the increasing aptitude of the Parsis for European modes of life. Their way of eating has certainly been improved by the substitution of plates for plaintain leaves and forks for fingers.

The "Historical Sketch," which constitutes the first chapter of the book, is extremely slight. For the history of ancient Persia we are referred to Sir John Malcolm and to Gibbon. When the Persian monarchy fell in 641 A. D., before the Mohammedan invaders, almost the entire population embraced the religion whose alternative was death. Mr. Karaka, generally so gracious and conciliatory, makes an exception whenever the Mohammedans are named. For them he has a hearty hatred and contempt. A few who would not yield, but did not choose to die, fled to Khorassan; thence, escaping persecution, to the little island of Ormus at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, and thence to India, about 716 A. D. Here also they had various wanderings, concentrating in Surat more strongly than elsewhere, and from there emigrating midway of the seventeenth century to Bombay, where they have lived and flourished ever since. Chapter second, treating of the Parsis that remained in Persia, is one of the most interesting in the book. The Persian Parsis are confined to Yezd and the surrounding villages. In 1854 there were less than 8,000. They are much inferior in thrift, intelligence, and knowledge of their own religion to the Indian Parsis. The interest which these have taken in their welfare is exceedingly pathetic. Owing to their exertions the oppressive taxes of their Persian coreligionists have been equalized with those of the Mohammedans. "The Persian Zoroastrian Amelioration Fund" carried on this noble work for a quarter of a century—from 1857 to 1882—when the desired result was finally achieved.

Chapters third and fourth have for their subject "The Zoroastrians in India—their Manners and Customs." The women have much larger social liberty than their Hindu neighbors. They are extremely fond of dress and jewelry. There are Parsi women whose jewelry is worth £20,000. The ceremonies attendant on the birth

of a Parsi child are so multiform, and the custom of seclusion that follows childbirth is so dangerous to both mother and child, that it is passing strange that they so frequently survive. Parsi marriages are seldom consummated at such a tender age as those of Hindu children, but betrothals are arranged for children still in arms and sometimes for the yet unborn. The "dokhmas," or "towers of silence," in which the bodies of the dead are exposed, are carefully described, and there are illustrative diagrams which are a valuable addition to the text. Their appearance is that of the large circular gasometers attached to gas-works. Mr. Karaka is able to quote Professor Monier Williams as an authority in favor of the Parsi method of disposing of the dead body as compared with ours. He would prefer cremation but for his religious scruples. He makes the astonishing statement that the bodies in the "dokhmas" are denuded of their flesh by the vultures "in an hour at the outside." The skeletons, when bleached by sun and wind and rain, are thrown into a receptacle in the middle of the "dokhma," without distinction between rich and poor.

A chapter treating of "Internal Government and Laws" is mainly interesting as showing that the Parsis have had their "benefit of clergy" in conflict with the principles of secular justice, and finally going under. The concluding chapter of the first volume is wholly taken up with an account of Parsi education. A great improvement dates from the Governorship of the Hon. Mount-Stuart Elphinstone in 1820. The establishment of the Bombay Native Education Society was his work, and after his retirement a college was founded which is honored by and is an honor to his name. The wealthier Parsis were at first reluctant to send their children to the college and to the schools of lower grade that were also established, but they were soon convinced that it was for their advantage to avail themselves of the privileges offered them. An accompaniment of the educational progress has been the translation into the vernacular language of valuable European and Asiatic books. The principal name associated with this fund is one that is better known in Europe and America than that of any other Parsi, Sir Jamshedji Jijibhai, whose munificence in this particular was but an humble fraction of a charity that was of boundless range and uniform wisdom.

The first and second chapters of Mr. Karaka's second volume, which treat respectively of the "Distinguished Parsis of Gujarat" and the "Distinguished Parsis of Bombay," savor too much of a quality preëminently characteristic of those county histories which are so wasteful of the poor man's earnings in the United States; but they record some wonderful successes and some noble actions. The Readymoney family bears in its name, deliberately too, the sign of its abounding affluence. The story of Sir Jamshedji Jijibhai's life and his beneficence is told with special fulness, as it deserves to be, for he is one of the world's great philanthropists. The chapters on "Zoroaster" and "The Parsi Creed" add nothing to the knowledge of these matters that we have derived from other sources. The chapter on "Monotheism and Fire Reverence" is an indignant denial of the charge that Parsis are fire-worshippers. A closing chapter on the "Progress and Present Position" of the Parsis is an enthusiastic résumé of the preceding chapters. It has the vice of these—their lack of self-restraint, their too flowing admiration, their disposition to magnify the Parsi community unduly in the eyes of Western people. A more critical observer might give a somewhat different impression; but it would still be plain enough that we have here the survival of a great people and a great religion, and that it has vitality which will insure it many future centuries of honor and success.

A Migration Legend of the Creek Indians, with a linguistic, historic, and ethnographic Introduction. By Albert S. Gatschet, of the United States Bureau of Ethnology. Vol. I, No. 1V of Brinton's Library of American Literature. Philadelphia: 1884. 8vo, pp. 251.

THE legend which gives its name to Mr. Gatschet's book occupies but a small part—less than twenty pages—of the present volume, all the rest being taken up with an investigation into the manners and customs, languages, forms of government, local habitations, etc., of our southern Indians. To prepare a work of this character in a thoroughly satisfactory manner not only requires great familiarity with the early writers, but presupposes a knowledge, more or less complete, of the languages of the tribes with which it deals. In both of these branches Mr. Gatschet is proficient, and accordingly he has collected and brought within easy reach a mass of ethnological information which is invaluable to all students who have not access to the same sources from which he has drawn his inspiration.

While thus acknowledging our obligations, we may be pardoned the fear lest our author's devotion to one branch of study may have been so absorbing as to blind him, somewhat, to facts and inferences that may be gathered from other sources. For instance, basing his conclusions upon linguistic grounds, he tells us (p. 23) that the river "Savannah was named after the prairies extending on both sides," and that this term, or its French equivalent, *savane*, "has nothing at all in common with the Algonkin word shawano, *south*, from which are derived the tribal names . . . Shawano or Shawnee." These statements may be true, but with all due deference we question it, for the reason that, strictly speaking, there were no "prairies" along this stream, though swamps and "openings," called by some of the early writers "Savannas," were more or less common near its mouth and, perhaps, in other portions of the wooded valley through which it flowed; and because, further, it would have been more in accordance with the usual custom for the river to take its name from the tribe of Indians that dwelt upon its banks. Whether this tribe was the same as the Chaouanons of the French, or, as we call them, the Shawnees, is an open question. Lawson is generally understood as saying that they were not, though it seems to us that his language may bear a different construction. Gallatin, too, inclines to the same opinion, and thinks that the Savannahs, or, as Archdale calls them, the Serannas, were identical with the Yemassees. On the other hand, Charlevoix tells us that the river "St. Croix or Ediscow," which in Homanno's map is put down as the Savannah, was sometimes called "the river of the Chaouanons," and there can be no doubt that in some of the early French charts, as, for example, in that of Guillaume de l'Isle, it is so styled, and this people is set down as living upon its head waters. We may also add that Adair says positively that it was so called "because of the Shawano who formerly lived there," "at the late Savanna town"; and this statement, except so far as it relates to their place of residence, is confirmed by Milfort. Indeed, this latter writer, as if to leave no doubt as to the identity of the tribe, tells us that "a part of the Savanhaugay" left the headwaters of the "Savanha," and "retired toward the north, to the banks of the Ohio, near Quintockey," as the Shawnees are known to have done; while "another portion betook themselves to the country of the Creeks, who gave them homes on the Tallapousse," where they were living in Hawkins' time, and were known as Shawanee, or, as our author prefers to call them "*Sawanogi*," which, he tells us, means "dwellers on the Savannah River," and is identical with Shawanos or Shawnee.

This is but a part of the evidence that might be brought forward to show that this people lived somewhere on the Savannah River in the beginning of the eighteenth century, and there are reasons for believing that they made their first appearance here at a much earlier date. Be this as it may, we do not pretend that the fact alone would be sufficient to identify them with the Serannas of Archdale; and if it were, it would not justify us in assuming that this river could not have received its name in some other way than in the one we have indicated. What we do assert, however, is that the presence of this tribe on this stream is sufficient to account for the origin of the name; and we maintain, further, that the historical evidence of their existence here, at this early day, is of such a character as to make it imperative, on any one who rejects it, to give the reasons for so doing.

In regard to the orthography which our author has seen fit to adopt, there is not much to be said. Admitting that there are sounds in the Indian languages for which no adequate sign can be found in the English alphabet, a change, or rather an addition, can of course be justified; but when we are asked to endorse such wholesale changes as the substitution of the French *i* for the English *ee*, at the end of words as firmly rooted in the language as are Cherokee and others of a like character, we unhesitatingly draw the line. The difference in pronunciation is not so great as to warrant the introduction of another disturbing element into what has been, not inaptly, termed "the tangle of diverse values and meanings which has grown up around the Roman characters"; and if it were, there is nothing to be gained in this particular case by the change, since both Cheroki and Cherokee are said to be incorrect. Tsallagi, according to our author, or Tsallakie, as Gallatin writes it, is the true form; and, obviously, one or the other of these ought to be adopted in case any change should be deemed necessary. Of this, however, we do not entertain any apprehensions. Words, or rather proper names, which have become part and parcel of our mother tongue, and which long and constant use have made familiar to the eye, do not readily take on new forms; and we are persuaded that any effort at this late day to Gallicize them will result, as did Mrs. Partington's attempt to mop out the tide, in signal failure.

The map which was to have accompanied the present volume, and without which much of it is lost to the general reader, will, we are told, be given in the next; and the legend, too, will then appear in a Hitchittee dress, with notes and a vocabulary. We are also informed that the version here given is to be republished, its present form being more or less imperfect, owing to the fact that Mr. Gatschet was unavoidably absent when the work was going through the press, and could not give to the proofs that careful personal supervision which the subject required. Until this is done, all comments upon the legend itself or its translation into other languages would, of course, be premature.

Three Months in the Soudan. By Ernestine Sartorius. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1885. Pp. x, 259. Illustrated. 8vo.

MRS. SARTORIUS landed at Suakim on the 8th of December, 1883. She accompanied her husband, Maj. Gen. Sartorius Pasha, commander of the First Division of the Egyptian army sent out under Baker Pasha to relieve the garrisons in the Sudan. The place at this time was closely invested by Osman Digma, and consequently her

experiences are confined wholly to life within the lines. These, however, were not uninteresting, and are pleasantly told, with no little picturesqueness. While her husband drilled his soldiers she undertook the scarcely less difficult task of providing for a large mess of Europeans—officers, correspondents, and civilians of one kind and another. The most exciting events of the days or nights were the attacks of the besieging Arabs, none of which proved serious, though the cowardice of the Egyptians might have made them disastrous at any time. The night before they landed, for instance, there was an alarm, and "the soldiers left the gates, bolted into the muderieh or Government house, and hid themselves under the tables and divans." In addition to these constant alarms, excitement was furnished by the coming and going of steamers, but especially by the arrival of messengers with reiterated despairing appeals for aid from the brave Tewfik Pasha, commander of the garrison at Sinkat. Several of his letters written in French are given, as well as the translation of one sent by Osman Digma to the commander of the garrison at Tokar. Our author's stay in Suakim came to an end with the destruction of Baker Pasha's army at Trinkitat on the 4th of February, 1884. With half-trained, unwilling, and insubordinate soldiers, who could not be taught to take aim, but invariably fired in the air and so rapidly as to get rid "of their hundred rounds in less than fifteen minutes," this result was inevitable. Their excessive cowardice, according to Mrs. Sartorius, was, owing in great part to their conviction that Osman Digma had power to render his men invulnerable. The book has evidently been hastily written, and several errors which we have noted tend to shake one's confidence in the writer's entire trustworthiness in the recital of facts. The illustrations are from photographs taken by a German who was killed at Trinkitat.

First Middle English Primer. Extracts from the Ancren Riwle and Ormulum, with Grammar and Glossary. By Henry Sweet, M.A. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 1884.

THIS little volume of less than 100 pages is intended as an introduction to the study of English of the early *thirteenth* century in the Southern and in the East Midland dialects, the former being represented by the 'Ancren Riwle' and the latter by the 'Ormulum.' This period has been called Early Middle English by Doctor Murray, in his new English Dictionary, and simply Early English by Professor Skeat, in his Introduction to Morris and Skeat's 'Specimens of Early English,' Part I; but until there is some common agreement among scholars as to the designation of the periods of English, First Middle English will answer as well as any other title. A brief grammar of eighteen pages is prefixed to the twenty-three pages of extracts from the 'Ancren Riwle'; and a still briefer one of four pages to the thirty-two pages of extracts from the 'Ormulum.' Most persons will, however, agree with Mr. Sweet (p. v) that it is "a great mistake to begin the study of Middle English without a previous elementary knowledge of Old English"—that is, Anglo-Saxon. After such knowledge is acquired, this little book may be very useful to the student of English, yet he will perhaps then think it rather too meagre to suit his requirements, and will prefer Morris and Skeat's 'Specimens of Early English,' or Maetzner's 'Altenglische Sprachproben,' which, although without grammar, still remains the best collection of extracts that we possess. Mr. Sweet has arranged his grammar of the southern dialect on the same lines as that in his 'Anglo-Saxon Reader,' and has paid special attention to the phonology. It may, however, cause some inconvenience to students that the same symbols are used in this Primer to denote different sounds from those in the 'Reader.' The careful marking of the quantity of all vowels, although "only tentative," will be approved by all scholars. While we can hardly agree with Mr. Sweet's sweeping statement (p. vi) that without the 'Ancren Riwle' "the history of English prose from the close of the Old English period down to the beginning of the seventeenth [?] century would be little more than a dreary blank," we can heartily thank him for his praiseworthy effort to make a knowledge of it a more common possession, and thus aiding the historical study of English.

Ecclesiological Notes on Some of the Islands of Scotland. By T. S. Muir. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1885.

MR. MUIR'S handsomely printed volume is not all ecclesiological notes. It is an epistolary diary of excursions extending over a score of years, the first eighty pages of which are boiled down into "General Notes," while in the remaining three-quarters of the book the reader is left to do the boiling down for himself. Mr. Muir is apparently the best-natured of travellers, or of antiquaries, and his itinerary is of a kind that looks garrulous in print. The ecclesiology is mainly descriptions of a great many rudely carved stone crosses—showing the characteristic Scotch form and the Celtic tendency to interlaced ornament—and such damaged remains of rude stone chapels and oratories as are to be found among the Orkney and Shetland and other still more remote and unfriended islands which fringe the shore of Scotland. The antiquarian eye will catch a glimpse here and there of a slender, tapering tower, rudely imitating those of the Irish churches which have been so long a puzzle, or of a rough, hut-like oratory, domed or wagon-vaulted in layers, after the fashion that is the archetype of Roslyn Chapel, but is the natural type of primitive stone construction everywhere. Mr. Muir writes like a close observer, apparently accurate, and with no bees in his bonnet. His book is generously illustrated with pen drawings neat enough, which would have been better diagrams if there had been no effort to combine picturesqueness with instruction.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 25, 1885.

The Week.

THE report on the *Dolphin* raises the curious question, What is "Bill" Chandler's "fate" which he staked the other day in New Hampshire on her soundness and efficiency? What will his fate be now that it is shown that the vessel is not what he said he thought she was? What is the ordinary fate of a man like Chandler, when his politics have been confounded and his knavish tricks frustrated, as the English National Anthem says? When he stakes his fate what does he risk if he loses, and what does he gain if he wins?

There is in this *Dolphin* report and in Mr. Roach's explanation of his work a first-rate Democratic campaign document, which would be of great service in this State this year. The full report should be laid before the people as a description of the kind of vessel which a Republican Administration regarded as belonging to the "best type." Mr. Roach admits that the *Dolphin*, as it sits now in dry dock, was the kind of a vessel he had in mind when he put in his bid. He apparently does not see that he was guilty of any wrong in trying to pass off that kind of work upon the Government as first-class. He says his bid was low, and the inspectors thought his work was good enough, and the men whom Mr. Whitney has sent to spy out the flaws have no legal right to interfere between him and the Government. He even thinks of calling the attention of the President to the fact that there is no law authorizing their appointment. Their competency to judge of his work and the truth of their report he very wisely refrains from questioning. "I have done all that could be expected of me," he says, and perhaps he has. He was expected to build a vessel to be used, like the dear old *Tallapoosa*, as a ship for Secretaries of the Navy like "Bill" Chandler to cruise about in, arrange "deals" and "dickers" in, and furnish a basis for periodic "repairs," and with those ends in view he builded well. The "Social Hall" obstructs the gun, but it is a fine place for a political conference or a jolly good time. The whole vessel is full of defects, but so much the better for "repairs."

The importers who are protesting against Secretary Manning's efforts to have the customs laws enforced are getting themselves into a curious position. The Treasury Department has no alternative but to carry out the laws which Congress enacts to govern the collection of duties; it has no right to decide whether those laws are oppressive or obsolete or impracticable. Many of the importers appear to have the idea that if they do not like the working of a law, they have only to petition the Secretary, and he will modify it to suit their desires. The practice in the Appraiser's and General Appraiser's offices during the past fifteen years or more has had a great deal to do with disseminating this erroneous notion. Nobody in either of these offices, except a few conscientious examiners, took the view that so long as the law stood on the statute books it must be obeyed. Mr. Manning and Mr. Fairchild insist that this view must prevail now in all branches of the service, and the importers who are protesting are cutting a very queer figure. Their protests should be addressed to Congress, which alone has power to heed them. Whether the regulations about appraisements are too strict or not, we do not pretend to decide, but that their modification and systematic violation by officials in the Appraiser's and General Appraiser's departments has been in the interest of fraud upon the Government, cannot be questioned. It is very important that this fraud be stopped, and if honest merchants suffer by too high appraisements because of the strict enforcement of the law, they should console themselves with the knowledge that dishonest importers are forced to pay full duties for the first time in many years, and should wait patiently for redress of their grievances till the next Congress meets.

There are ten Irish girls under detention at Castle Garden because they came here under a contract to work for somebody who advanced their passage money. This proceeding takes place under the act of Congress of last session which makes bringing laborers here under contract a penal offence. It is undoubtedly a strange law for a civilized people which owes a large part of its greatness to immigration, to adopt, but it is not a whit more objectionable in principle than the protective tariff. In fact, it is a proper supplement to the tariff, which does everything for the protection of manufacturers, and nothing for the protection of laborers. For the latter there is only one effective mode of protection, and that is the exclusion of all foreign laborers. Congress has only provided for their partial exclusion, but so far so good. As to the poor Irish girls, it is more ridiculous on its face to exclude them than to exclude the products of their labor, from the market here, but it is no more unjust or unchristian. If they had instead of coming over here sent over stockings they had knitted, or flannel they had woven, the person who bought the goods would have been fined 50 or 60 per cent. on the value. Why then should the man who has brought the girls themselves not be fined $1,000 and the girls be declared forfeited to the Government, and be disposed of by being sent back to their own unhappy island?

A member of the President's Cabinet is credited with the entirely probable statement that had not the Administration been inflexible in its adherence to the Civil-Service Law, the country would have been in danger of a revolution within six weeks after March 4. "The country and the Democratic party," he added, "owe a deep debt of gratitude to President Cleveland for the firmness with which he has adhered to his engagement in regard to the public service. I can say that he has been the master of us all in this matter; and I will add that while I believed in civil-service reform before, I never saw the absolute necessity of it for the safety of the country, for its peaceful and orderly continuance, as I have learned to see it since I have been a Cabinet officer. The country has become too great and populous for a continuance of the spoils system. It would breed revolution." Nobody can doubt the truth of this. It is gradually becoming manifest to the Democratic party that the President's course is not only wise and honest, but the best one from a political point of view. Even the Vice-President himself has begun to comprehend this, for he has stopped talking politics for the first time since the election.

The Boston *Herald* has done a very cruel thing to the Democrats of Massachusetts, some of whom are grumbling about the extreme reform policy of the national Administration. It republishes extracts from their platform, adopted three years ago, containing such declarations as this:

> "Fifth—A thorough reform of the civil service. The use of the Federal patronage to reward personal friends or party favorites and punish personal or political enemies, in payment for the rendering of partisan or personal services, or in punishment for failure or refusal to render such services, is one of the most debauching influences of the period.
>
> "Sixth—Fitness, not favor, should be the passport to the public service. There should be no removals of public employees before the expiration of their terms of service except for cause. We favor the principles of the Pendleton bill in regard to appointments in the civil service, and the Willis bill in regard to the assessment of Federal office-holders."

The Democratic platforms, State and national, were for many years honored by declarations of that kind, and the President is obeying them to the letter. It is going to be extremely awkward for his party to upbraid him for keeping both its pledges and his personal ones as well, and we have no idea that any member of the party will have the courage to do so publicly. Every man of them who takes the stump this year will on the contrary point with pride to the President's course, and hold it up as the chief reason for giving his party support—and with sound judgment, for that course will bring more votes to the party than it has enjoyed for a quarter of a century.

No witness as to the effect of a Democratic Administration upon the condition of the negroes in the South could be summoned whose testimony ought to have more weight with Northern Republicans than that of John R. Lynch, the temporary Chairman of the last Republican National Convention. Mr. Lynch is a colored man and a strong Republican, who on general principles is disposed to "view with alarm" the course of the Democrats, and who should be prompt to discern the first sign of special danger to his race. Mr. Lynch commends very highly the President's action in revoking the appointment of Meade, the Copiah County (Miss.) ruffian, and says that

many of the white Bourbons in the South are disappointed at the President's policy of moderation. As for the blacks, he says: "There was some apprehension on the part of the colored people in consequence of Democratic ascendancy, but that has been entirely allayed." In other words, for the first time since they were emancipated, the negroes now feel assured that their future is as safe with one party in power as with the other. No sign could be more fruitful of promise for both races.

Bloody-shirt organs cannot afford to be squeamish, and in justice it must be said that they seldom are. The Cleveland *Leader*, however, confesses that it is ashamed of its Mississippi Republican ally, James R. Chalmers, whom it calls "the unhung fiend who massacred Union prisoners." But when it says that "he cannot and would not be received into our party," and that he "failed" in his effort to get back into Congress by way of the Republican party after the Democrats had dropped him, it shows the grossest ignorance of recent political history. In 1880 Chalmers ran as the Democratic candidate for Congress in his district against Lynch, the colored Republican, and was elected. In 1882 the Democrats refused to renominate him, and he promptly made terms with the Republican Administration at Washington for its support as the opposition candidate, and with its help he was elected. If the *Leader* will turn to page 130 of the latest 'Handbook of Politics,' compiled by that eminent Republican statistician, Edward McPherson, it will find the name of Chalmers recorded among the Republican members of the Forty-eighth Congress; and if it will refer to page 232 of the *American Almanac* for 1885, it will see that Chalmers was again the Republican candidate for Congress last fall, receiving almost all the opposition votes, though fortunately not enough to elect him this time. Indeed, if any man in Mississippi to-day is entitled to be considered a Republican in good and regular standing, it is "the hero of the Fort Pillow massacre."

Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's article in the *North American Review* for July, upon "Two Years of Civil-Service Reform," presents facts and figures which clearly demonstrate the successful operation of the merit system. The classified service, to which competitive examinations apply, includes 5,650 places in the Washington departments, 5,600 in the postal service, comprising almost half of all the postal clerks and carriers in the Union, and 2,600 in the customs service, or five-sevenths of all the customs officials. The experiment was thus broad enough to make the test complete, but not so broad as to make a thorough supervision impossible. Since July 16, 1883, when the new system went into operation, more than 11,000 persons have been examined at 225 separate examinations in all parts of the Union, and from those graded highest nearly 2,600 have been appointed, in all cases originally for a probationary period of six months. The success of this method in securing good officials is shown by the fact that the proportion of probationary appointees who failed to win permanent places was so low as 2 out of 109 in the Washington departments, while of more than 500 persons appointed there under the rules, only three were removed in a whole year. The theory that competitive examinations would result in filling the service with gay young college graduates is conclusively disproved, by the facts that the average age of all the applicants was thirty years, and that of 5,556 as to whom the record is complete, 3,920 received their only education in the common schools, while but 449, or less than one in twelve, had ever been to college. The perfect fairness of the system is shown by the discovery that the successful contestants have been about equally divided between the great parties, which is exactly what would happen in the filling of similar places by men engaged in private business. In short, all the objections of the spoilsmen have been overthrown by the one unfailing test of experience, and Mr. Eaton is justified in his conclusion that "the new system is permanently established." He bears hearty testimony, which is worthy of especial weight as coming from an old Republican, to the fact that "the Democratic leaders have the wisdom and patriotism to carry forward the reform policy," and entertains no doubt that, if there is a conflict in the party over the Administration's policy, it will end in "a victory for the people standing for principle over the politicians grasping for spoils."

The report that Blaine and Logan were to take the stump for Foraker in Ohio is pronounced by the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* "at least premature." The same authority doubts if Mr. Blaine's participation in the campaign will be anything more than an informal speech in commendation of the Republican ticket. At the same time it declares that the "spirit of the Blaine campaign in Ohio" was in the Convention which nominated Foraker, and we think it is right. The method of nomination was a precise imitation of the memorable Blaine nomination at Chicago. It was secured in advance by the same Machine methods, and then put through with similar "outbursts of enthusiasm," yelling, brass-band music, and flag-waving. The platform, as we have already pointed out, is the Chicago one warmed over. The reception of the Convention's work by the State is also much like that which the country gave to Blaine's nomination. There is something very like a "sickening thud" audible, accompanied with renewed Democratic confidence. In view of all this similarity, it is to be regretted that Blaine and Logan are not to take the stump. We should like very much to see the campaign of 1884 in Ohio fought over again without the assistance of Marshal Wright in Cincinnati, and the secret aid of the McLean ring.

The "land movement," as it may be called, has taken a very curious form in Ohio, in the shape of a bill called "an Act to provide against the evils resulting from periodical depression in manufacturing industries and to promote agriculture." A summary of the measure is given in another column in a letter from a correspondent who evidently believes in it. The sum and substance of it is, that the State is to buy or appropriate, if necessary, as if for public use, a farm of twenty acres of land within the State for every married citizen of full age who swears that he is not worth $1,000, and desires to reside on and cultivate a farm. The money for the purpose is to be provided by State 3 per cent. bonds, and the farmer is to pay the State 6 per cent. annually on the amount of the purchase money—the tax to be a lien on all produce of the land and improvements thereon over and above the value of $1,000, and the lessee to have exemption from debt to the same amount.

The motive of this extraordinary measure is to be found, it is said, in "the disturbances in the iron and coal industries, which are continually dooming a larger and larger number of industrious men to hopeless dependence on small jobs," while "acres and acres of land hard by our large cities are raising nothing but thistles and briers, but ought to be yielding sustenance to hungry men." We venture to say that there is not one acre of land "hard by" any of our large cities that would yield sustenance to a hungry *and industrious* man and his family, and pay 6 per cent. on its value, which is not now under cultivation. The country contains great numbers of hungry men who would like farms of twenty acres, and probably think they could get a living out of them, and would ask the State for them if they knew they could be had for the asking; but the number of hungry men who have the industry, tenacity, and knowledge to work a farm to advantage, and have not got farms already is very small indeed, especially in the neighborhood of large cities. Such men get land very rapidly without State aid, and may be found about midnight every day in summer making their way to the market with loads of vegetables. Moreover, when anybody sees a piece of land near a city growing nothing but thistles and briers, he may be sure it would be a bad purchase for the State, because it is evidently a bad purchase for an individual. The reason why thistles and briers grow on it is that nothing else can be made to pay. A nice time iron workers and coal miners would have on bits of rented land which industrious German and American market gardeners cannot get a living out of! The best thing the Ohio philanthropists who are backing this measure can do is to agitate for a repeal of the enormous duties which, in the coal and iron industries, draw more men into these industries than there is any steady and real demand for, so that none shall be drawn in hereafter for whom there is not a natural and healthy call; and then subscribe to send the surplus to the West, to the rich land on which it pays to grow wheat and corn. Briery, thistly land in Ohio is a bad place for the best farmer in existence. For a coal-and-iron man who never farmed in his life, it would simply be a sort of State poor-house.

The report just issued from the Geological Survey office upon the mineral products of the United States for 1884 shows very plainly the effect of the business depression which prevailed during the year. The value of all the metallic and nonmetallic substances produced in the country last year aggregated but $413,104,620,

as against $452,204,628 in 1883, which in turn was smaller by $3,000,000 than the total of 1882. The decline was due more to a reduction in price than to a decrease in quantity, and the production in several important industries showed a decided growth. Thus the amount of copper placed upon the market in 1884 was 145,221,934 pounds, and in 1883 only 117,151,795, but the smaller output of the earlier year was valued at $18,064,807, against $17,789,687 for the product of 1884. In like manner the total production of coal showed a net gain in tonnage of 4,038,326 tons over 1883, but a decline in value of $15,726,277, anthracite having fallen 25 cents per ton in spot price and bituminous fifteen cents per ton. The petroleum industry appears to have felt this influence most of all, the production having risen from 23,400,229 barrels in 1883 to 24,089,758 barrels in 1884, while the average price fell off from $1 10 to 85 cents per barrel, so that the value of the larger supply was more than five million dollars less.

Henry Ward Beecher took up the tobacco question Sunday evening at Plymouth Church, and acknowledged that he had modified some of his earlier opinions with regard to it. He no longer maintains that "tobacco will lead to rum, and rum to sheol." While generally disapproving of its use, still, all that he insists on in the way of special restriction is, that the habit of smoking shall not be begun in early youth, and that it shall be made as little offensive to others as possible, and above all that the tobacco smoked shall be good. We have seen no full report of his remarks, and therefore do not know whether he said anything about the practice of spitting; but if he did not, his discourse had one serious defect. There is one broad rule applicable to all uses of tobacco, and that is that no man who cannot use tobacco without spitting should ever touch it. If a smoker finds he needs to spit, he should stop smoking. The same thing is true, *a fortiori*, of a chewer. What makes chewing such a disagreeable practice to non-chewers is, that it is usually accompanied by excessive salivation, which blinds the chewer to other people's comfort, and in fact often to decency in general. Why a man should consider expectoration on floors and stoves and grates a less repulsive practice than blowing his nose in his finger and thumb, it is hard to see. All his excretions are disgusting to other people, and it is his duty not to parade them, but to hide them away by all such means as the resources of civilization place within his reach. The practice of spitting, in the cities at least, has greatly declined at the North, but no one can visit any of our public buildings in Washington and see the way in which the marble pavements are degraded and befouled by huge stains of tobacco juice, without blushing for our civilization. Some men from the South and West are as insensible to the demands of decency on this point almost as red Indians, and will shoot saliva into a costly polished grate in a drawing-room just as readily as into the sawdust of a bar-room floor. In fact, in some parts of the country a well-considered lecture on the Origin and Use of the Pocket-handkerchief seems to be much called for. There has been within twenty years a great reform in and about New York, in this matter. The beastly little pools of tobacco juice, on the floors of railroad cars in trains leaving this city, which twenty years ago were very common, are now seldom seen.

There are renewed stories of trouble awaiting Mr. Keiley at the Austrian Court, but the last one, that he will not be received because the Italian Minister at Vienna will not like him, is on its face a little ridiculous. Mr. Keiley will never trouble the Italian Minister in any way. The Italian Minister probably does not speak English, and Mr. Keiley probably, indeed almost certainly, speaks nothing else. Moreover, there is probably hardly any subject in which the Italian Minister feels interested about which Mr. Keiley cares anything at all. Consequently, although he and Mr. Keiley may see each other at a distance on public occasions, the chances of Keiley's ever inconveniencing him in any way are too remote to be worth consideration. In fact, we predict that Mr. Keiley's appearances in Austrian society will be few and greatly wanting in splendor. He will never either sparkle in the drawing-rooms of the Archduchesses, or gather crowds of statesmen around him in the lobbies of the Parliament House. Besides all this, there would be absolutely no precedent for rejecting the Minister of one Power because the Minister of another Power objected to him. If the Austrian Foreign Office were to give any such reason for refusing to receive Mr. Keiley, it would be an impertinence which our State Department would certainly be justified in resenting, by sending nobody to take Keiley's place. In such a contingency, in fact, Mr. Keiley would find the whole nation ranged behind him as one man, and we would bring him home triumphantly in the *Dolphin*, which we would borrow from John Roach for the purpose.

Lord Salisbury has made up his Cabinet, and it is a very curious affair. If there ever was a conspicuous and lamentable failure as a foreign minister in England, it was Lord Salisbury under Lord Beaconsfield. The series of blunders perpetrated under his Administration—the greatest of all being the Afghan war, which he deliberately got up, as appeared from a now celebrated despatch—had most to do with driving the Beaconsfield Ministry from power. Yet he now appears not only as foreign minister, but as the head of the Cabinet. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who is to succeed Mr. Gladstone as Chancellor of the Exchequer, is a shrewd and sensible Gloucestershire squire, who has never given any proof of marked financial capacity. Sir Richard Cross, for the Home Department, is good enough, and so is Mr. Gibson, the best speaker the Tories have in the House of Commons, as Lord Chancellor for Ireland. Nor is there anything to be said against Mr. Smith as Secretary for War. But making Lord Randolph Churchill Secretary for India has something astounding in it. Lord Randolph's sole claim to any place of responsibility in the Cabinet is the vigor and brutality of his attacks on Mr. Gladstone. Of constructive statesmanship, or indeed of any kind of statesmanship, he has never given the slightest sign. Yet he is put in what appears to be at this moment the most trying and critical and responsible of all the positions under the new Government. It has already alarmed the Russians, and it appears to be doubtful whether Lord Dufferin will consent to remain in office under him.

The subjugation of the Tory party by a young man like Lord Randolph Churchill is even more wonderful than its subjugation by Disraeli. Disraeli had worked his way up from a much lower position than Churchill's, but he did it by slow degrees in the course of long years. Churchill's rise has taken place in two years, and by the display of qualities much further removed from statesmanship than Disraeli's. His blundering and inaccuracy about matters of fact have been just as remarkable as Disraeli's ever were, and his lucky hits infinitely fewer. Nothing can better illustrate the lack of talent in the party than his elevation. Nothing, too, could go further to confirm the popular idea as to the length of time the new Ministry will remain in office. Even if a dissolution were not necessary in order to make way for the new constituencies, the Tories would undoubtedly have to dissolve Parliament this winter. It is quite certain that they cannot go very far under their present leadership without making even the forbearance of the Liberals impossible. By the time the dissolution comes in the natural course of things, they will doubtless have piled up enough claims on popular distrust to make even their brief *ad interim* administration of the Government seem a public calamity.

The Irish press, in debating the probable effect of a change of Ministry on Irish affairs, seems to conclude generally that the Irish will be able to make better terms with the Tories. The *Times*, of this city, says, there is "something Hibernian in the naïveté" of this view, but this is said apparently by somebody who has not looked into the matter at all. What either Whigs or Tories will do for Ireland can only be inferred from experience. Most of the coercion bills of the last fifty years have been passed by the Whigs. Catholic Emancipation, the first great healing measure for Ireland since the Union, was passed by the Tories. So was the second one—the Tithe Commutation Act. So was the introduction of the English Poor Law. The Whigs under Melbourne gave the one bit of local self-government the island has received from Parliament, namely, the Municipal Reform Act. Gladstone, after ceasing to be Tory or Whig, disestablished the Protestant Church and passed the Land Act. But it was Forster, the Liberal Secretary, who shut up a thousand men in prison on his own warrant. In fact, it is hard to say whether Whig or Tory has done most or least for Ireland. What seems now probable is that the Radicals are much more advanced about Ireland than the bulk of the Liberals, and that the Tories, who are pretty unscrupulous when in search of power, will be ready to outbid them if necessary for Irish votes under the new franchise.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 17, to TUESDAY, June 23, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President made the following appointments on Wednesday: John B. Stallo, of Ohio, to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Italy; Bayless W. Hanna, of Indiana, to be Minister Resident and Consul-General to the Argentine Republic; Charles A. Dougherty, of Pennsylvania, to be Secretary of Legation at Rome. To be Consuls-General —William L. Alden, of New York, at Rome; Pierce M. B. Young, of Georgia, at St. Petersburg. To be Consuls—George W. Savage of New Jersey, at Belfast; Richard H. Stoddard, of New York, at Athens.

Charles A. Dougherty, appointed to be Secretary of Legation at Rome, is a son of Daniel Dougherty, of Philadelphia. He is a young man, and has never been active in politics. William L. Alden, Consul-General at Rome, is about forty years of age, and a son of William Alden, formerly principal of the Albany Normal School. He is a member of the editorial staff of the New York *Times*. He has visited Italy, and speaks the Italian language fluently. Pierce M. B. Young, of Georgia, Consul-General at St. Petersburg, is a native of South Carolina, forty-five years old. He was a cadet at West Point, and was within one month of being graduated when the rebellion began. He resigned, entered the Confederate army, and rose by promotion to the rank of Major-General. Richard H. Stoddard, Consul at Athens, is the well-known poet and author. He served fifteen years in the Custom-house in this city, and was a Secretary of the Democratic National Committee during the last campaign. He will decline the nomination.

William A. Day was appointed on Friday to succeed Judge Ferriss as Second Auditor of the Treasury. He is an Illinois lawyer. He has been Mayor of Champaign and a member of the State Legislature. Although a comparatively young man, he has been prominent in the political affairs of the State for several years.

The Department of State announces that the appointment of State Senator Carl Jonas, of Wisconsin, as Consul to Prague, must be revoked, the Austrian Government objecting. When a young man, a student at Prague, Mr. Jonas's liberal views so excited the ire of the Austrian Government that time has failed to erase the memory of it.

All that Secretary Bayard will say as to the alleged refusal of the Austrian Government to receive Minister Keiley is, that the report is premature. There can be little question that representations of some sort have been made to the Department in the matter.

The *Iroquois*, of the Pacific station, has sailed from Panama to Guayaquil, Ecuador, under sealed instructions from the Secretary of State in regard to the case of Santos, the American citizen, held there under arrest. It is understood that the commander of the *Iroquois* is instructed to make a formal demand in the name of the United States for the prompt release of the prisoner, and to afford him all possible assistance.

The official text of the Board of Examination on the *Dolphin* is published, and confirms the announcement that it pronounced the *Dolphin* a failure. It is signed by George E. Belknap, Commodore United States Navy, R. D. Evans, Commander United States Navy, and Herman Winter, Constructing Engineer.

Secretary Whitney has asked the Attorney-General for his opinion whether the builder, Mr. Roach, or the Naval Advisory Board which planned her, is responsible for the *Dolphin*, and whether, as a consequence, the Government must accept her even as a bad bargain or may hold Mr. Roach responsible for her.

The War Department has received reports from Fort Reno, Indian Territory, dated June 20th, to the effect that great excitement prevails there over a threatened Indian outbreak by the Cheyennes. The Indians, known as the Southern Cheyennes, are making preparations to go on the war-path. Troops have been despatched to quell the disturbance.

It is understood that General Wesley Merritt will be relieved from command at the Military Academy at West Point in August next, and ordered to organize a cavalry school at Fort Riley, Kansas, and that he will be succeeded at West Point by General William T. Carlin.

Internal Revenue Commissioner Miller has dropped 300 persons from the rolls of his department since March.

Mr. James Russell Lowell arrived in Boston on Saturday.

General Grant, after a walk on Wednesday afternoon at Mount McGregor, had a relapse. He made known his desire for pen and paper and wrote two notes. One was addressed, "Memoranda for my family." It was a brief and simple farewell message. The General felt, he wrote, that he was failing, and in case the worst should suddenly happen, he asked that certain directions be carried out which had been explained by him in more detail in memoranda written before he left home. The second note was to Dr. Douglas, conveying the General's belief that the end was near. A telegram was at once despatched asking Dr. Sands to come on at the first possible moment. On Thursday the General's condition was much improved, and on Friday he was better than for a week previous. The improvement continues.

The Massachusetts Senate on Friday rejected the section of the bill to preserve health in Boston which limits the height of dwelling-houses to eighty feet.

A meeting of a new "independent" political party was held in Rochester on Thursday. Delegates were in attendance from all parts of the State. Among the organizations represented were the organized workingmen of the State, the Irish National League, the ex-soldier element, the Liquor Dealers' Association, the Greenback Party, and the People's Party, while a number of the other delegates represented local citizens' associations. William Fero nominated for Governor Joseph Drexel of New York. Mr. Severs presented the name of Joseph B. Carr. Dr. John Swinburne, of Albany, was also nominated. All the names suggested will come up at a convention to be held during the summer.

At Wednesday's meeting of the trustees of Cornell University a letter was read from President Andrew D. White, which was in part as follows: "The present meeting completes twenty years since, with our dear and venerated friend, Ezra Cornell, I took part in securing the charter of the University, submitted its plan of organization, and entered this honorable Board. And now, in accordance with a purpose long since formed, I hereby present my resignation as President and Professor of History. At two different periods, when about to leave the country for a time, I have placed my resignation in your hands, and you have not thought best to accept it. I now contemplate another absence from the country in obedience to what seems to me to be a duty, and must respectfully insist that I be now permanently relieved, and my resignation finally accepted." The trustees accepted the resignation, to take effect in September next. Professor Adams, of Michigan, and James Russell Lowell are mentioned among those most likely to be chosen for the position.

Bartholdi's statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World" was received on Friday by the American Pedestal Committee and Mayor Grace with great ceremony. The French vessel *Isère*, with the statue on board, was escorted up the bay to Bedloe's Island by a number of United States men-of-war and a great variety of other vessels. All the shipping in the harbor was decorated. A procession of military escorted the French Admiral and other French officers from the Battery to the City Hall. A formal reception was given them in the Aldermanic Chamber. Mayor Grace, the President of the Board of Aldermen, and Frederick R. Coudert made addresses of welcome.

Chauncey M. Depew was on Wednesday elected President of the New York Central Railroad.

In the Court of General Sessions of this city on Thursday evening, Charles A. Buddensiek was found guilty of manslaughter in causing the death of Louis Walter by negligence in erecting the buildings in West Sixty-second Street which fell on April 13. Under the conviction Buddensiek may be sentenced to State prison for from one to fifteen years and fined $7,000. Buddensiek was on Tuesday sentenced to the State prison for ten years and to pay a fine of $500.

The Cornell University crew won the Childs Cup in the race with the University of Pennsylvania crew over the Shawmont course on the Schuylkill River on Friday. The time of the winners was 8m. 51s., the Pennsylvanians crossing the line 3½s. after the victors. The course is one mile and a half, straightaway.

Harvard won the university boat-race at New London on Saturday evening over Columbia in 24:27, Columbia's time being 26:22. The course is four miles straightaway.

Twenty-five iron mills in Pittsburgh have resumed operations since signing the scale, and, notwithstanding the rumor of opposition to the Conference Committee's action, it is believed that three-fourths of the mills in that district will soon be running.

Tornadoes on Saturday night visited Kansas City and Independence, Missouri, and Leavenworth, Kansas, doing a great deal of damage.

The will of Robert Treat Paine bequeaths $50,000 to Harvard College for the maintenance and support of a professorship in the University to be called the Professorship of Practical Astronomy. All the rest of his property the testator leaves to the President and Fellows, the net income only to be expended in the support of the Observatory and of the assistants, and in the purchase or repair of instruments, or in rewards by medals or otherwise for the discovery of new comets and planets, or for the writing of essays on astronomical subjects, etc.

James W. Nesmith, who was United States Senator from Oregon from 1861-67, died on Wednesday at the age of sixty-five. He was born in Maine, and went to Oregon in 1843. The next year he was made a territorial judge, and has always exercised a commanding influence in Oregon. In the Senate he achieved a wide reputation as a Democratic War Senator. He was on the Military Committee.

Duff Green, of Stafford, Va., one of the most prominent Republicans of the State, and for two terms a member of the Virginia House of Delegates, died on Monday.

Richard T. Merrick, a distinguished Washington lawyer, died on Tuesday at the age of fifty-seven. He was the son of United States Senator Merrick, of Maryland. Before he was of age he took part in the Mexican war; practised law in Maryland on his return, and later in Chicago; and for the past twenty years has been one of the most eminent Democratic lawyers at the Washington bar. He was one of the principal counsel before the Electoral Commission, and was for months daily before the public in his prosecution of the Star-route cases.

Mr. John Rittig, editor of the Sunday edition of the New York *Staats-Zeitung*, died suddenly on board the North German Lloyd steamer *Neckar* on its way from Southampton to Bremerhaven. He was one of the most prominent German journalists in this country. He was born in Prague in 1829, took part in the revolution of 1848, and was made a prisoner, but escaped.

FOREIGN.

Queen Victoria arrived at Windsor from Balmoral on Wednesday. A conference of Conservative leaders was held at noon at the residence of the Marquis of Salisbury. The result was that all obstacles to the formation of a Cabinet were apparently surmounted. It is said that Lord Randolph Churchill made it a condition of his acceptance of office that Sir Stafford Northcote should not be made leader of the Conservatives in the House of Commons. He is to be given a peerage.

The British political situation was seriously complicated on Friday. It was reported that a communication had been received from St. Petersburg announcing that if Salisbury formed a Ministry, and he and Churchill did not retract or explain satisfactorily their recent utterances about Russia and Russian officials, then Russia's ambassador would be withdrawn from London.

In the House of Lords on Friday the Marquis of Salisbury rose amid cheers and asked Lord Granville to consent to an adjournment of the House until Tuesday next. He said the conference of Liberals and the Conservatives had not yet reached a stage to enable either side to make a statement. He wished to make one observation. It was in respect to a very important order on the paper. He was aware of the importance of pushing the Redistribution of Seats Bill to a conclusion, but a very serious question had unfortunately arisen in connection with the measure. It had become known that the Redistribution Bill had destroyed one set of constituencies. The Marquis of Salisbury further objected to this bill because, when passed in its present form, it would prevent, even in case of necessity, an appeal to the country before November. The motion of the Marquis of Salisbury to adjourn until Tuesday next the consideration of the Redistribution Bill was then adopted by a vote of 124 ayes to 56 noes. This avowal by Lord Salisbury created great excitement, and doubled the uncertainty of the whole situation.

Lord Salisbury asked on Friday a pledge of the Liberals that they would fairly consider the budget scheme, and if they disapproved it would consent to let the deficit be carried to 1886, and allow the Conservatives the whole time of the House of Commons during the remainder of the session. Mr. Gladstone declined to give a pledge regarding an unseen scheme of finance. The London *News* of Saturday morning said it was able to state that Mr. Gladstone's reply is final, and that there is no chance of the matter being arranged by further Liberal concessions. The Liberals have resolved to stop supplies until the Redistribution of Seats Bill is completed. They will probably oppose the making of the First Lordship of the Treasury a sinecure when a vote is asked for the salary of £5,000 attached to that position. Earl Spencer's departure from Dublin has been postponed on account of the political deadlock.

The Marquis of Salisbury on Monday consented to assume office on the promise of Mr. Gladstone that the Liberals will give the new Government as much time as possible during the remainder of the session. It is stated that the leaders have arranged to make an effort to carry the Welsh Intermediate Education Bill, the Australian Confederation Bill, the Irish National Education Bill, and the Minister for Scotland Bill. Mr. Gladstone reserved full liberty of action in regard to any new measures that may be introduced.

The Earl of Granville announced in the House of Lords on Tuesday evening, and Mr. Gladstone made a similar announcement in the House of Commons, that the Marquis of Salisbury had accepted office, and that he had gone to Windsor Castle to inform the Queen. The House of Lords adopted all amendments to the Redistribution of Seats Bill which passed in the House of Commons. The House then adjourned until June 25. The Commons only adjourned until June 24.

The following is the list of the new Cabinet as it is believed it will be announced: Prime Minister and Secretary for Foreign Affairs, the Marquis of Salisbury; First Lord of the Treasury, Sir Stafford Northcote; Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Michael E. Hicks-Beach; Lord High Chancellor, Sir Hardinge Giffard; Lord President of the Council, Viscount Cranbrook; Lord Privy Seal, the Earl of Harrowby; Secretary for the Home Department, Sir Richard Assheton Cross; Secretary for the Colonial Department, Colonel Frederick Stanley; Secretary for War, the Right Hon. William Henry Smith; Secretary of State for India, Lord Randolph Churchill; First Lord of the Admiralty, Lord George Hamilton; President of the Local Government Board, Arthur James Balfour; President of the Board of Trade, the Duke of Richmond and Gordon; Vice-President of the Council, the Hon. Edward Stanhope; Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, the Earl of Carnarvon; Lord Chancellor of Ireland, the Right Hon. Edward Gibson; Postmaster-General, Lord John Manners; Attorney-General for Ireland, Mr. Holmes; Solicitor-General for Ireland, Mr. Monroe; Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, Henry Chaplin; First Commissioner of Works, the Right Hon. David R. Plunket; Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury, Rowland Winn; Parliamentary Secretary to the India Office, Lord Harris; Secretary to the Admiralty, Charles T. Ritchie; Civil Lord of the Admiralty, Ellis Ashmead Bartlett.

One hundred and forty miners were killed by an explosion in the Pendlebury colliery, near Manchester, England, on Thursday.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday M. de Freycinet, Minister of Foreign Affairs, submitted the draft of the Franco-Chinese treaty which definitively confirms the rights of France over Anam. The latter country must henceforth treat with foreign Powers only through France. France undertakes to pacify Tonquin. China will be allowed to appoint consuls for the principal towns in Tonquin. France will construct roads and railways in Tonquin in order to develop commerce, and it is understood that when China constructs railways she will obtain the necessary staff of officials and workmen and plant from France. The commercial clauses are to be revised after ten years. The French will cease to search vessels on the high seas, and will entirely evacuate Formosa and the Pescadores a month after the treaty has been signed. The Chamber voted urgency for the discussion of the treaty.

The French Minister of Marine has official despatches confirming the news of the loss of the French gunboat *Reynard*, which foundered in the terrible cyclone that recently swept the Gulf of Aden. Every one on board—127 persons—perished.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* asserts that it is prominently intimated that the tension in regard to the Zanzibar question no longer exists.

Field Marshal Baron von Manteuffel, the distingushed German commander and Governor of Alsace-Lorraine, died suddenly at Carlsbad on Wednesday morning of pulmonary congestion. Baron von Manteuffel was born in 1809. He entered the army when seventeen years of age. In 1858 he became Major-General in the suite of the King, and in October, 1861, Lieutenant-General. The alliance of Prussia and Austria for the so-called liberation of the Elbe duchies was generally regarded as the work of Manteuffel. He took an active part in the Schleswig-Holstein campaign, and in recognition of his services was made Governor of Schleswig. When war broke out with Austria he invaded Hanover under Falkenstein, and as Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the Main he was uniformly successful. In April, 1868, Manteuffel was made General in command of the First Army Corps, taking the leading part in the north of France during the Franco-Prussian war. After the capitulation of Bazaine he opened the way across France to Dieppe, taking Rouen on his way. In January (1871) he was called upon to stop Bourbaki in the southeast of France, which he did, driving the remnants of the French army under Clinchant across the Swiss frontier. In June (1871) Manteuffel was made Commander-in-Chief of the army of Occupation, and Field Marshal in 1873. As Lieutenant of the Emperor in Alsace-Lorraine, his administration was considered adroit and liberal.

Mr. Pendleton was on Sunday formally presented to the Emperor William at Berlin.

The Spanish Ministry on Saturday resigned in consequence of King Alfonso's decision to visit the cholera-infected districts. Immense crowds gathered on the streets of Madrid on Saturday night, and made a demonstration in favor of the King and Queen. The crowd becoming riotous, the civil guard was called out and fired upon the mob, who thereupon stoned the soldiers. Disorder continued throughout the night with slight abatement, but the crowd was finally dispersed on Sunday. It is reported that two workmen were shot dead and several wounded. It is also reported that fourteen soldiers were wounded by stones and two by shots. Many of the rioters were arrested. On Sunday the King asked Sagasta to form a new Ministry, but the latter declined and advised the King to remain in Madrid. The King finally yielded, and the old Ministry was reinstated. Another account of the riot says that it was caused by the opposition of the populace to the enforcement of sanitary regulations in the city.

In the Italian Chamber of Deputies on Thursday Prime Minister Depretis announced the resignation of the Ministry. The immediate cause was the closeness of the vote on the foreign estimates on Wednesday evening. It was believed on Monday that Signor Depretis would reform his old Cabinet.

The report of a rebellion against the Amir of Afghanistan in Badakshan is confirmed. The people have murdered the Governor of the province, who was reported to be secretly negotiating with Russian agents for the surrender of the capital, which is one of the most important strongholds in the Hindu-Kush Mountains. The Amir has sent a body of troops to Badakshan to inquire into the facts of the revolt and to restore obedience to his authority.

As a result of the recent earthquakes in Cashmere, 3,081 persons lost their lives, 70,000 houses were laid in ruins, and 33,000 animals perished.

The report that Kassala is still holding out against the Sudan rebels is confirmed.

The Northwest rebellion is believed to be ended. General Middleton has given up the chase after Big Bear. The latter's men have separated into small bands, and it is impossible to capture them. The McLean family, whom General Middleton especially desired to rescue from Big Bear, have escaped through the assistance of the Wood Crees, and have arrived at Fort Pitt. The two daughters and their mother are terribly broken in health by exposure and rough usage. It is believed that Big Bear will soon be compelled to give himself up by reason of destitution. A permanent force of troops is being organized for duty in the Northwest to prevent further uprisings.

Mail advices from Newfoundland received on Saturday give details of a terrible storm which raged there on June 14. It was the most severe for forty years. Shipping was wrecked by wholesale and many lives were lost. At Bonavista seventy-five vessels were driven ashore.

The revolutionary General Caceres, with 3,000 men, is now in the neighborhood of Lima, Peru, having dodged the column of Colonel Mas to the south, and a final struggle is expected to take place in Lima within the next few days.

TWENTY YEARS LATER.

With the present number the *Nation* completes the twentieth year of its existence. It was started in July, 1865, when the last shots of the civil war were still ringing in men's ears, when the work of reconstruction at the South was only just beginning, and when the whole administration of the Government was still marked by the disorders and anomalies of military necessity. The future, too, was still so uncertain that many were disposed to believe, in Wendell Phillips's words, that our "old farming and reading republic" was gone forever, and that a republic of large standing armies, of centralized power, and of complicated foreign relations, on the European model, was to succeed it. The way in which the whites of the South would take their defeat, and, one might add, their ruin, and the way in which the blacks would take their emancipation, were still unknown. A fictitious prosperity, caused partly by war expenditures, and partly by the inflation of the paper currency, had made a return to specie payments seem remote, difficult, and unpopular. Moreover, the habit of political discussion, which had almost been lost under the pressure of military emergency, was, owing to the distrust excited by Andrew Johnson's course, reviving but slowly. The dominating influence in politics was, in fact, the somewhat fierce, unreasoning, patriotic, and anti-slavery sentiment bred by the war, which was perhaps best represented by such leaders as Thaddeus Stevens in the House, whose motto was "Thorough," and to whom all scruples born of legality, or precedent, or tradition, were a little sickly. In short, topics for discussion in such a weekly journal as it was proposed to make the *Nation*, were abundant enough. Whether a sufficient audience could be found willing to hear them discussed from an independent standpoint, was a question about which there was much difference of opinion. But it is no harm to say, at this distance of time, that nobody connected with the press, who was consulted about it, thought such a project likely to succeed; and most of those who were generally considered qualified judges, were certain of its failure within a year. The kind of work it proposed to do can perhaps be best described by quoting the prospectus issued at the time:

PROSPECTUS OF THE NATION.

Its main objects will be:—

First. The discussion of the topics of the day, and, above all, of legal, economical, and constitutional questions, with greater accuracy and moderation than are now to be found in the daily press.

Second. The maintenance and diffusion of true democratic principles in society and government, and the advocacy and illustration of whatever in legislation or in manners seems likely to promote a more equal distribution of the fruits of progress and civilization.

Third. The earnest and persistent consideration of the condition of the laboring class at the South, as a matter of vital interest to the nation at large, with a view to the removal of all artificial distinctions between them and the rest of the population, and the securing to them, as far as education and justice can do it, of an equal chance in the race of life.

Fourth. The enforcement and illustration of the doctrine that the whole community has the strongest interest, both moral, political, and material, in their elevation, and that there can be no real stability for the republic so long as they are left in ignorance and degradation.

Fifth. The fixing of public attention upon the political importance of popular education, and the dangers which a system like ours runs from the neglect of it in any portion of our territory.

Sixth. The collection and diffusion of trustworthy information as to the condition and prospects of the Southern States, the openings they offer to capital, the supply and kind of labor which can be obtained in them, and the progress made by the colored population in acquiring the habits and desires of civilized life.

Seventh. Sound and impartial criticism of books and works of art.

The *Nation* will not be the organ of any party, sect, or body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features; and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have the questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with some care, is about to start in a few days for a journey through the South. His letters will appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

As to the manner in which this programme has been carried out, it is difficult now to appeal to any determinate body of our readers. We have still a number of them who began with the first issue, and continue till to-day, but the proportion of these to the whole still left is necessarily small. A very considerable body of our readers to-day were children when the *Nation* was started. Among those who had reached mature age when it made its appearance, death has of course been busy. Many, too, have found, while sharing its opinions on most questions, its opinions on some too unpalatable for continued reading, and have dropped it. In fact, there is nothing more curious in newspaper history than this readiness of subscribers to close their ears on all subjects, even to a journal which they have trusted for years, because on some one subject it happens to run counter to their convictions or prejudices. It is only to an editor that people say that failure to agree with them on a single question deprives what he says on any question of all value.

It was the fate of the *Nation* to suffer more or less from this cause at a very early period. Almost in the first number it questioned the wisdom and soundness of a plan then in favor among many of its friends for having the Supreme Court do the work of reconstruction, by deciding what was or was not "a republican form of government." At a somewhat later period it questioned, amid much obloquy, the necessity and value of the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, on the success of which a large proportion of the Republican party had set its heart. It maintained that even if Johnson were impeachable, his conviction might work mischief by throwing the Government into the hands of extremists, among whom Benjamin F. Butler was the most influential, and that his acquittal would simply be the end of a piece of elaborate and expensive folly. In one month after the failure of the trial the whole country, including its chief promoters, were ashamed of the undertaking. The *Nation*, too, undertook to expose the pretensions of Butler to be considered an honest and useful politician in 1867, or many years before his party found him out, and while criticism of him still, in Massachusetts at least, seemed an expression of indifference to the results of the war. In fact, it was nearly ten years in advance of popular opinion about this particular politician, and has had the satisfaction of seeing its very earliest diagnoses of him accepted by all Republicans at last. After warmly supporting General Grant for the Presidency, it pointed out, before his first term had expired, the beginnings of those errors which finally brought about the defeat of the party in nearly all the Northern States, and which more than aught else made the attempt to give him a third term seem dangerous. It was the first Northern journal of Republican leanings to denounce the carpet-bag governments which, supported by Federal bayonets, sprang up at the South, and for so many years desolated that region and disgraced its conquerors. It contained the very earliest exposures of Moses, Niles G. Parker, and their kind at a period when few good Northerners were disposed to question the motives of anybody calling himself a Republican at the South. It took only three or four years, however, to produce general acquiescence in the justice of the *Nation's* criticisms.

By far the most serious collision into which the paper was ever brought with any considerable number of its readers, occurred in 1876, when it denounced in unsparing terms the fraudulent proceedings in Louisiana by which Mr. Hayes was inducted into the Presidency, and the official rewards subsequently bestowed on the chief conspirators in that most deplorable and debauching enterprise. The Republican horror of Democratic rule was still so strong that many good people could hardly be brought to think anything fraudulent which kept the Democrats out of power, and looked on anybody who threw, or seemed to throw, any obstacles in the way of continued Republican ascendency as little short of a public enemy. The *Nation* accordingly lost nearly three thousand subscribers for refusing to believe that Mr. Hayes could honorably accept the Presidency at the hands of the Louisiana and Florida Returning Boards. His term had not expired, however, before the great bulk of the party were ready to acknowledge that another such victory as his would be worse than a defeat.

The *Nation* opposed the greenback theory from the first moment of its appearance, and when it had such very respectable Republican champions as the late Oliver P. Morton; and advocated a return to specie payments when a large number of leading Republicans doubted whether a return would ever be practicable, and if practicable desirable. It was, if not the first journal to engage in regular and persistent advocacy of civil-service reform, after Mr. Jenckes of Rhode Island had brought it up in Congress, certainly the first to place it in the front rank of public questions The first foreign complication, its discussion of which attracted any attention, was the *Alabama* case, in which it from the opening of the negotiations attacked the theory of consequential damages, then in much favor with the public, and continued to attack it amid some obloquy, until it was rejected as an

absurdity by the Geneva Tribunal. The silver craze it opposed from the beginning, and has had the satisfaction of seeing the correctness of most of its positions as regards the use of silver in the United States acknowledged by most of its opponents.

To say that it never went wrong would be to make a claim which, even if well grounded, nobody would acknowledge. But it may be said without fear, that it has not been greatly wrong on any leading question of the last twenty years, and that its errors, when they occurred, have consisted mainly in underestimating the resistance which the rapid growth of the country in wealth and population would offer to the working of legislative follies. It used to be a not uncommon criticism on the conduct of the *Nation* that the paper denounced evils without suggesting a remedy. In numerous cases, however, the utterers of this complaint have been challenged to produce from its files an example of this sort of denunciation, but have never responded. It is safe to say that its columns since 1865 may be searched in vain for the exposure of an abuse, unaccompanied by the suggestion of a cure, except of course in cases where the cure is obvious. When a journal denounces lying, for instance, there is no need to mention truth-telling as a specific.

To say what the *Nation* has done or failed to do in the fields of literature and art, even in mere outline, is more difficult, because there is no thread of events to be followed in describing it. This part of its work we must therefore leave, without comment, to the memory and judgment of our readers who have followed the course of the paper during these twenty changeful years. From the first we made it a rule to have each book, if possible, reviewed by some one who had given special attention to its subject, and, having once chosen the reviewer, never to interfere with his judgment if competently expressed as regarded literary form. That many mistakes have been made in our literary and artistic criticisms, and that injustice has often been done, there is no denying. All we can claim for the editorial conduct of the paper is an earnest and constant effort to avoid them. The best thing we can offer in support of this claim is the list of those who have contributed to the columns of the paper from the first issue to the present day. It contains a large number of the most eminent names in American literature, science, art, philosophy, and law. We have taken some melancholy pride in selecting from it a few of those from whom, in the earlier years especially, we received not only frequent articles, but, what was then nearly as important, constant encouragement and applause, and who have now gone over to the majority.* To us, who have one by one seen them drop away, there could be no more impressive reminder than this list of the slipperiness of the soil on which any work in this world has to be done. Of some of these, as, Edmund Quincy, Frederick Kapp, Henry James, Dr. J. P. Thompson, and Mrs. Parkman, it is difficult for us to speak at all without emotion, so much were we indebted to them in every way. To John Richard Dennett, who was connected with the *Nation* from the beginning, and whose early death in 1874 extinguished what was, it is no exaggeration to call, a rare genius, the paper owed many of the articles in the first years of its existence which attracted attention to it as a literary critic. But of another, James Miller McKim, who was one of the founders of the paper, to whom, as an old abolitionist of mature age, its methods at the beginning were often startling as well as novel, but who never for one instant doubted its success, or its value, or withdrew a most devoted hand or wise head from its support until his death, it must be said that no record of its career would be complete which did not contain a loving tribute to his memory. Without him and Mr. Charles Eliot Norton, of Cambridge—both its principal projectors—it would probably have never seen the light, or have lived through its first year. It was their faith, and hopefulness, and untiring exertions that carried it through the difficulties which were sure to beset an enterprise so novel, and the aims of which were so difficult to define.

In twenty years more there will probably be but few, if any, left of those who took part in its formation or helped it on its way; but it is not too much to say that they will carry with them from this world the credit of having, through its columns, done something to hasten the coming of the better time, the reign of sweeter manners and purer laws.

*J. M. McKim,
J. R. Dennett,
Charles Astor Bristed,
Edmund Quincy,
George P. Marsh,
Lewis H. Morgan,
Frederick Kapp,
Prof. James Hadley,
Charles Welford,
Prof. John Norton Pomeroy,
Francis Lieber,
Richard H. Dana, jr.,
George W. Greene,
Henry James,
Prof. D. H. Mahan,
Prof. E. A. Sophocles,
Rev. J. P. Thompson,
H. T. Tuckerman,
Chauncey Wright,
Prof. Jeffries Wyman,
Ezra Abbott,
Prof. J. Lewis Diman,
Prof. Karl Hillebrand,
Mrs. Mary Eliot Parkman,
Prof. Lewis R. Packard,
Prof. S. Wells Williams.

WINE, BEER, OR SPIRITS?

A WELL-INFORMED correspondent, writing to us apropos of our remark in a recent article on the wine production of the world, that "the question which (wine or beer) will get the upper hand as a popular cheap drink in this country, is still doubtful," calls our attention to some light thrown on this point by the Treasury statistics.

By reference to the reports of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury, it appears that the increase in the consumption of distilled spirits, wines, and malt liquors in the United States since 1840 is, taken by decades on a scale of 100, as follows:

	Distilled Spirits.	Wines.	Malt Liquors.
1840	100	100	100
1850	120	130	157
1860	209	227	435
1870	185	251	878
1880	148	581	1,777
1884	188	423	2,531
1881-2-3-4	176	492	2,266

The year 1880 being exceptional in the unusual amounts of domestic wine produced in the United States, as also in the unusual decrease in the production of distilled spirits, the average consumption for 1881-82-83-84, together with the statistics for 1884, is given.

To understand the above figures correctly, it may be necessary to explain that, *e. g.*, the amount of distilled spirits consumed in 1850 was 20 per cent. greater than in 1840, and in 1884, 88 per cent. greater than in 1840. So, too, the amount of wine consumed in 1880 was 581 per cent. of the amount consumed in 1840, etc., etc., etc. To get at the actual increase or decrease in the per capita consumption, comparison is to be made with the statistics of population since 1840, and we find that the increase of population by decades since 1840 is as follows:

1840	100
1850	136
1860	184
1870	226
1880	294

As will be seen, the population nearly trebled between 1840 and 1880.

If, now, we consider the actual number of gallons of each consumed at the successive decades, and for purposes of comparison estimate the population from '81 to '84, inclusive, at 52,000,000, we find the actual per capita consumption of distilled liquors, wines, and beer, to have been as follows:

Gallons Consumed Per Capita.

	Distilled Spirits.	Wine.	Beer.
1840	2.52	.29	1.37
1850	2.23	.27	1.58
1860	2.86	.35	3.23
1870	2.07	.32	5.31
1880	1.24	.56	8.26
1881-2-3-4	1.46	.46	10.16

From the above it will be seen that the percentage of per capita consumption for the several decades is as follows:

	Distilled Spirits.	Wine.	Beer.
1840	100.	100.	100.
1850	89.	93.	115.
1860	114.	121.	236.
1870	82.	110.	388.
1880	49.	193.	603.
1881-2-3-4	58.	159.	742.

In other words, it clearly appears that during the past forty years there has been a decrease in the per capita consumption of distilled spirits of fully 40 per cent., an increase of 60 per cent. in the per capita consumption of wines, and the enormous increase of 642 per cent. in the per capita consumption of beer and other malt liquors.

From these figures it would hardly appear a question of doubt as to whether wine or beer was to get the upper hand in this country. Whatever may have been the result from an economical point of view of this decrease in the use of distilled spirits, of which whiskey is the type, and in the great increase in the consumption of beer and of the light wines, there can be but little doubt that it has been beneficial to the general cause of temperance and good order in the community. It is also to be observed that the decrease in per capita consumption of distilled spirits does not accurately represent the rate of decrease which has taken place in their use for drinks, since doubtless a far larger amount is now used in the arts than formerly.

There is another point of importance in connection with this matter. By reference to the statistics it is found that the percentage of the total amount consumed of distilled spirits, wines, and malt liquors produced in this country, has undergone a great change during the past forty years.

The following table of imported beverages represents the percentage of each consumed in the country for each decade:

	Distilled Spirits.	Wines.	Malt Liquors.
1840	6.2	97.4	.63
1850	9.8	96.5	.55
1860	6.7	83.2	1.11
1870	1.8	75.0	.49
1880	2.2	17.8	.24
1884	1.9	15.1	.34
1881-2-3-4	2.1	23.3	.31

It will be seen that only about 2 per cent. of

the distilled spirits consumed in the United States is imported, while not over one-third of 1 per cent. of the malt liquors consumed is imported, and yet the amounts consumed are so great that even these small percentages amounted in 1884 to 1,511,680 gallons of distilled spirits, and 2,010,908 gallons of malt liquors.

The statistics of the wine industry are of especial interest. It has been shown that the increase in the per capita consumption during forty years equals 60 per cent., but, owing to the very rapid development of this industry in this country, the average importation during the last four years has been only 23.3 per cent. of the total consumption, while in 1840 it was 97.4 per cent., and even so recently as 1870 equalled 75 per cent. The total importation of wines is to-day about the same as it was in 1840, notwithstanding the fact that our population has been trebled and that there has been an increase of 60 per cent. in the per capita consumption. In 1840 the amount of domestic wine produced was 124,734 gallons, and there was imported 4,748,362 gallons. During the last five years the average annual production has been 19,994,916 gallons, and the average importation 5,473,467 gallons. No one conversant with the present condition of the wine industry in our country can doubt that it has "come to stay," and the character of our domestic wines becomes a question of very great importance, the discussion of which must be reserved for a future occasion.

FRANCE AS A COLONIZER.

HERBERT SPENCER has thanked M. Guyot, the author of 'Lettres sur la Politique Coloniale,' just published, for "opening the eyes of the French to the illusion that colonies are of any advantage." M. Yves Guyot may not have proved quite so much, but has certainly demonstrated at a propitious moment—that is, at a moment when a sad military discomfiture, humiliating to the national conceit of his countrymen, has rendered their eyes more accessible than usual to the light of reason and evidence—that the colonial policy of France, from its beginning to this very day, has been a failure—complete, disastrous, merited, and ignominious. Leaving out his wider speculations, let us look at some of his statistical data, all drawn from official or equally good sources.

He begins with India. All that France has preserved there, after so many contests for "prestige" and "expansion," "glory" and "civilization," is equal in area to the Department of the Seine, the smallest of French departments. In Calicut she holds "a lodge occupied by a watchman"; in Surat, the same; the "lodges" of Dacca, Patna, and other districts, consist each of "a house, with a small tract of land, inhabited by Indians," as officially stated. Mahé alone is salubrious. The torrid climate of Pondicherry, the largest possession, is destructive to Europeans; he whom dysentery spares, falls a victim to anæmia. The colony contains few Frenchmen. In Further India, there is first Cochin-China, equal in extent to nine departments of France; next Camboja, which is somewhat larger, but until quite recently under French protectorate only; and then Tonquin, said to be as large as one-third of France, but which is—still to be occupied. Here, in Indo-China, M. Ferry expected the dry trunk of France to develop new and vigorous sprouts. But how could it? The Frenchman degenerates there. In Cochin-China European women seldom survive childbirth. In Saigon there were in 1880, among Europeans, 7 marriages, 46 births, and 102 deaths. It was here, M. Guyot remarks in his rather cynical vein, that "artificial hatching was to produce a swarming brood of little Frenchmen: we see the broken eggs, but find neither omelette nor chicks."

In the Indian Ocean the Isle of Réunion has been held by the French for more than two centuries. Here the colonial experiment ought to be complete. What is the result? In 1872 the population was 193,000; in 1882 it had dwindled down to 170,000. In 1877-81 there were 4,492 births, against 6,378 deaths. Sainte-Marie, off the east coast of Madagascar, was long ago designated "the Frenchmen's cemetery." Nossi-Bé, off the west coast, is somewhat healthier. These islands, with Mayotte, between Madagascar and the African continent, have together an area smaller than four-tenths of Corsica. Obock, on the east coast of Africa, is—a point. The population of the nominally vast Senegal colony, in the west of that continent, was 210,000 in 1872, but in 1880 only 190,000—of course, almost all natives, the "colonizing" element consisting of 2,000 officials and soldiers, and some hundreds of other individuals of varying nationality. The establishments on the coast of Guinea are hardly worth mentioning: the foreign population dies off almost as fast as it comes. De Brazza's annexations on the Congo have not yet been subjected to the civilizing processes of France; nor can Tunis, lately seized, yet be called a French colony.

The greatest colonial possession of France is Algeria, almost as vast — Tell, desert, and all—according to the official claim, as the country of the conquerors, who have been organizing, colonizing, and civilizing it for half a century. Has it become a new France? The French population in 1881 was 233,900. Deducting from this number the army, gendarmerie, and police (nearly 50,000); functionaries and Government employees of all descriptions, with their families (35,000); employees of the subsidized railroads, Government "concessionaires," purveyors of every kind, transport agents, and numberless other people directly or indirectly sustained by the Government—there remain, as M. Guyot computes, not fully 100,000 individuals of all ages, living by independent labor, among them—giving on an average four persons to a family—about 25,000 producers, or colonists in the true sense. In most years the Algerian army consists of more than 50,000 men. Now, "imagine an engraving representing a tiller of the field guarded by two soldiers, one on each side of the furrow. You laugh and exclaim, This is a caricature. By no means; it is an exact picture of Algeria." And considering how many French warriors have fallen or died in Algeria during or on account of the conquest, you can also say that each French colonist, when resting, sits on four corpses. And is the country really pacified, the Arab reconciled, the Kabyle in any way civilized? Who dares answer in the affirmative?

In the Antilles, the island of Martinique is a fit abode for negroes only. Guadeloupe shows a mortality among people of every color much exceeding the increase by birth. St. Barthélemy is salubrious, but lacks water. All the French islands together have an area about equal to one-fourth of Corsica. French Guiana, in South America, a country of undefined limits toward the interior, has a deadly climate. A French child born there has less chance of reaching the age of two than one born in France of living to the age of thirty. The French populations in Oceania are quite insignificant. There are not a thousand French individuals in Tahiti, not a hundred in the Marquesas Islands. Chauvinists of colonial expansion like to compare New Caledonia, the French penal settlement, to Australia; that is "comparing a sardine to a whale." The general fatal defect of French colonization is, that it is all, geographically considered, latitudinal, instead of being longitudinal. All the French colonies, with the exception of Algeria and Tunis, are in the Torrid Zone. False governmental methods and false economical principles do the rest in ruining every effort. The sacrifices are enormous; the gains, in the best instances, questionable.

THE DRESS OF THE SEASON.

WE have been looking for some weeks in vain for the Summer Resort Article or the College Commencement Article in the columns of our esteemed metropolitan contemporaries. The former would, if printed, have shown the advantages of rest, of communion with nature, and of contact with plain farming people to the tired American of the city. The latter would have pointed out to the new college graduate his callowness, his inexperience, his very small importance in the world at large, and the vast inferiority, as a preparation for life, of his college education, to that which he would have received in the same period as a boy in a store, or as the reporter of "a great daily." Neither of these topics seems of late to have been receiving anything like the attention once bestowed on them; and more's the pity, for the Tired American, in the absence of the articles on them, doubtless often lingers in town throughout the summer, in ignorance of what the country would do for his nervous system and his general moral make-up; while the College Graduate, by his rampant self-sufficiency and ignorant attempts to thrust himself into places of great trust and dignity, often excites the disgust of the community, to say nothing of the sages in the newspaper offices who are specially charged with the duty of watching him.

We should regret all this more, however, if a totally new topic had not come up, and one which was likely to excite considerable popular interest—we mean "The Dress of the Season," on which the Albany *Evening Journal* has led the way by the production of a really beautiful article, although marked by some generalizations which we take leave to consider too sweeping, such as the assertion that "in *no* matter is there room for more improvement or for the exercise of greater taste than in the summer wardrobe." The writer, too, seems not to have got himself up in his subject with the care which generally marks these sum-

mer articles, if we may judge from his statement that hitherto "stiffness and gaudiness" have during the summer been too often "found in the piazza, hammock, and phaeton," instead of "slimsiness or crushableness." A more careful observer would have known that it is now many years since the stiff summer dresses disappeared both from land and sea. For ten years, certainly, the women both of the piazza, hammock, and phaeton have been clothed in soft woollens, owing to a revolution in the wool manufacture which came near causing the ruin of many of our best woollen mills before they adapted their machinery to the new fashions. The stiff-starched gown, which was the terror of washerwomen and the despair of girls of small means, has gone completely out of fashion, and the world is well rid of it. There is no smart girl—using the word in its English sense—who is not now in the summer season attired in slimsy and crushable goods.

A similar revolution has taken place in the clothing of the men. Twenty or even ten years ago, before the fashion of taking exercise in summer had set in, the smart young man of the cities put on as much white linen or cotton as his purse would allow. The poorest and most forlorn revelled in a waistcoat which used to be white early in the week. Those better off wore spotless waistcoats of the same material all the week, and, if their means allowed it, added thereto white duck trousers. The real swells, however, the men who had nothing to do, and did it, clothed themselves in white linen from head to foot in warm weather. The Southerners who used in ante-bellum days to be the wonder and delight of Newport and Saratoga and Sharon, were particularly given to raiment of this sort, and in fact it was the mark of pecuniary ease combined with perfect leisure.

Nobody who is anybody is ever seen in such attire now. The stiff linen has gone out; the soft woollen has come in. The men are, in short, all slimsy and squeezable as well as the women. A suit of white flannel in summer, in the country at least, is now the highest point in the matter of dress to which the ambition of the most restless dude carries him. It means not only disregard of expense, but perfection as regards comfort. But then the wearers of white flannel by no means monopolize the good results of the woollen revolution. All summer clothes are now in a sense flannels. Of whatever color they may be, they are thin, porous, and light to a degree which makes linen seem hot, heavy, and cumbersome in comparison. It has been discovered, and the discovery will never be forgotton in any change of fashion, that woollen clothing, if thin enough, is to the wearer very much what the Irishman's whiskey was both in winter and summer. It keeps the heat in when it is cold, and keeps the heat out when it is hot. It enables anybody to lounge on the grass or on the deck without getting rumpled or soiled, and to exercise into any amount of perspiration without getting chilled. In fact, a well-educated man, clothed in thin flannel from the skin out and free from any organic disease, is, in summer, one of the highest products of modern civilization. Greece and Rome in their palmiest days produced nothing better, for their summer clothing was not as well cut nor as well adapted to exercise in the open air. The only danger in the present male summer dress is, in fact, the effect of white flannel on the vanity of the young. There is current at most watering places a popular saying, that "every man looks well in it," which has planted the seeds of weakness in many a fine character. But anybody who can protect himself against its corrupting influence on this side, may rest satisfied that in the matter of dress he is among the foremost in the files of time.

THE FALL OF GLADSTONE'S MINISTRY.

LONDON, June 11.

THE House of Commons is proverbially a place of surprises. Yet even there such a surprise as the vote of last Tuesday morning, which turned out Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, is without precedent. That a Government which had weathered so many storms during the last three years, been assailed by so many votes of censure in cases where its conduct, whether excusable or not, had at any rate involved grave misfortunes, and repelled these assaults by strenuous appeals to the loyalty of its supporters—that this Government should fall, on a minor question, after one night's debate, and that a languid debate, without summoning all its forces—this is indeed an extraordinary close to its eventful history. Now that the event has happened, everybody is trying to show that it might have been foretold. But the best proof that it was not expected is to be found in the fact that some twenty-five or thirty steady followers of the Government, men who have voted with them on every previous party issue, were absent from the division; and the fact that they were absent unpaired proves that the Government itself—that is to say, the whips, who are responsible for bringing members together—did not realize the gravity of the situation. Even during the eventful evening there was little of that tension in the atmosphere which precedes a great struggle. Members scarcely listened to the speeches. There was not that concourse of newspaper men in the inner, and miscellaneous quidnuncs in the outer, lobby, which testifies to the excitement of the public. Ministers themselves were taking matters easily, and talking as if nothing particular was in the wind. Not till about midnight did the impression get about that the division would be a close one. Mr. Gladstone rose a few minutes later and confirmed this impression by the tone of his speech, which made the question one of confidence, and implied that he knew his Government to be in peril. Yet even after he had sat down, and during the earlier minutes of the division, there was comparatively little stir among the Ministerialists, and it was not till their lobby was seen to be exhausted, while members still continued to return into the House from the Opposition lobby, that the temperature of men's minds suddenly rose many degrees, and every moment seemed an age till the numbers were announced. To the Tories and the Irish Nationalists their victory was less of a surprise. The latter had brought across the Channel nearly every one of their available votes, the former had issued a very pressing "whip" (notice to attend) to their supporters. But as neither could count on the number of Ministerialist absentees, they cannot have had any certainty of the issue.

Was the division, then, an accident? In one sense, yes. It was so far accidental that it was not foreseen, and might by the exercise of greater care have been avoided. In another sense, no. Even the chance absence of twenty or thirty Liberals would not have caused it had not the Government been steadily losing ground, so that its hold on many of its supporters was so weakened that some few did not fear to vote against it, while others felt too listless to rally to its help. It is a maxim in English politics that weak governments may fall at almost any moment, and more probably on some minor question than on a great question, where the feeling of the constituencies forces the whole of the party to follow the old banner. In this particular case there was not only the slackened zeal of many who deplored the unlucky conduct of foreign affairs, but also the feeling of indifference which comes at the end of a Parliament, when all the main work has been done, and the centre of interest has been transferred to the constituencies, whose mandate is so soon to be given to a new Parliament. Since the passing of the Franchise and Redistribution Bills, the House of Commons has become demoralized. It is like a man with so reduced vitality that any germ of disease may effect a lodgment in his system. For the last two months close observers have seen that the position of the Ministry was so precarious that a fatal stroke might come almost from any side.

Another question which has been often put during the last day or two is, How came the Ministry to let itself be beaten? There are not wanting persons to suggest that it was willing to be beaten, and took the opportunity of a question on which it believed that the country would be with it, fearing that if it lasted longer it might fall upon an issue which would excite less popular sympathy. This particular issue of taxation, a tax on intoxicants and on succession to real estate, versus a tax on tea or sugar—was one which interests the temperance party—a strong party, a party mainly on Mr. Gladstone's side, but a party which had been disappointed by the small legislative encouragement they had received from his Ministry. It also interests the working class as a whole, because, although some of them do not wish to have beer and spirits taxed, all of them gain by the cheapness of tea and sugar, and all of them are willing to see the burdens on real estate increased. The question is therefore not a bad one for the Liberals to use in an electioneering campaign, and proportionately a difficult one for the Tories. It is, at any rate, a safer topic for the Ministry to dilate on than those questions of foreign policy on which they have been so often arraigned, and on which the Opposition would have much preferred to obtain their condemnation. Certain it is that the defeated party took their defeat in no melancholy spirit. Mr. Gladstone himself showed his usual composure, continuing to write his nightly letter to the Queen, recounting the proceedings in Parliament, while the tempest of cheers and counter cheers raged round him after the announcement of the vote, while he stood mo ionlessly waiting to move the adjournment of the House. But most of his supporters and some of his Cabinet made no secret of their satisfaction. The Radicals in particular almost embraced one another in the passages as they trooped out. The Conservatives, except a few fiery spirits who were carried away by the sense of victory, seemed too much startled to know whether to rejoice. Their shouts and cheers were far less loud than those which came from the Irish benches.

There were good reasons for the pleasure of the Radicals. They count confidently on obtaining a majority, probably a large majority, at the general election, and wish to obtain it from opposition rather than in power, because they believe that they will thus be freer to speak their minds, put forward a bold programme, and obtain the assent of their party to it. This was one

ground. A still stronger one existed in the position of the Irish question. Lord Spencer, the Irish Lord Lieutenant, has been insisting in the Cabinet on the renewal of a portion of the now expiring Act for the Better Prevention of Crime in Ireland, while several of his colleagues have opposed this so stoutly as to threaten to resign if it were made a Cabinet measure. Neither party would give way, and it seemed probable that the Ministry would break up, the more Radical section giving out, and that this breach would involve a breach in the Liberal party itself. Even had the difficulty been patched up and the new Prevention of Crimes Bill been brought in by a united Cabinet, it would have received much opposition from the Radicals, and would have put the Government in a disagreeable light before the Liberals of Ireland even more than of England. Relief from these embarrassments was a great relief; and it has made many people think that the Government took the course of the mariner who, finding his ship has sprung a leak, runs her ashore rather than let her go down in the open sea.

Notwithstanding these suspicious circumstances, it would be too much to say that the Government really courted defeat. They committed the imprudence of allowing a very serious division to be taken immediately after the Whitsuntide recess, when many of their supporters had not returned to London. They did not realize their danger, and did not therefore put proper pressure on their men to come up to the division. They were in fact careless, and would hardly have been so careless had they been eager to retain office. That is all.

The reasons which make Ministers glad to quit office ought to make the leaders of the Opposition slow to take it. They come into a position full of difficulties—difficulties with Russia (for the frontier question is not fully settled), difficulties in Egypt and the Sudan, difficulties in various parts of southern and southeastern Africa, and a financial deficit. They may and will say that these difficulties are not of their own making, but that is a defence which soon ceases to carry weight. They will have to conduct the business of the remaining two months of the session in the face of a hostile majority, which will pull them up if they should try to give effect to their own views. The fact that they are in office will make the country forget those faults of their predecessors on which they have been relying for success at the general election, and put them into the position of defenders instead of the more agreeable one of assailants. There can be little doubt that their wisest policy would be to repeat Mr. Disraeli's in 1873, and wait for the results of the election. But the temptation, after five years of opposition, to have even a few months of power is a strong one. It tells upon all those who expect some kind of office or honor, and such persons are both numerous and influential. At this moment, the general expectation is that the Queen will send for Lord Salisbury or Sir S. Northcote, and that he will consent to form a Cabinet. But the issue will doubtless be known before these lines can reach you. Perhaps the strangest thing about the situation is the contrast between June, 1885, and May, 1880. The Gladstone Government came in with a burst of exultation from its followers such as has seldom been seen in England. It goes out with a sense of relief, almost of satisfaction, from those followers, that its course is run. Yet the popular loyalty to its head is not diminished. Fortune seems to have been stronger than the strongest men, and the fault is laid on her—on her and on the inevitable difficulties of our form of government.

Y.

MUSIC IN LONDON.

LONDON, June 5.

ON Monday evening Hans Richter, the Viennese conductor, gave the fifth of his series of nine concerts at St. James's Hall. A gentleman who heard them all informed me that this one was by far the least satisfactory of all that had been given this season; and to me it was certainly disappointing in more than one respect. The orchestra is by no means to be compared with our New York Philharmonic in quality of tone and the excellence of individual performers. The strings are good and unanimous, the wood-wind much less satisfactory, and the brass still less so. One of the French-horn players made some sad blunders in the Pastoral Symphony. Nevertheless, it is in coping with such defective material that the genius of Hans Richter is revealed. In regard to *ensemble*, it is astonishing to see what control he has over his band; how he makes them follow every *nuance* of his intentions by his emphatic though not exaggerated gestures. In rhythmic and dynamic shading the orchestra approaches perfection, and I have rarely heard anything so well done as the intoxicating, turbulent finale of the first act of "Die Walküre." The vocal parts of this selection were interpreted by Mme. Valleria, who sang with good tone and proper expression, and Mr. Lloyd, whose voice has the genuine mellow tenor quality, and who also made a good impression, although deficient in dramatic passion. Dr. Hueffer, of the *Times*, assures me that this tenor is admirable in Walter's Prize Song from "Die Meistersinger," and I can easily believe it. He certainly has as fine a lyric voice as I have heard in a long time.

Besides the Beethoven and Wagner selections, the programme also contained two numbers from Liszt's oratorio "Christus," which were more favorably received than was to be expected of a London audience; for it is well known that in general musical culture London audiences are not only inferior to Continental audiences, but certainly also to the New York public. It is true, the most famous musicians in all parts of the globe make their annual pilgrimage to London, to carry away a pocketful of John's guineas; but in this very fact lies the weakness of the London concert business. The artists seldom take less than a guinea for a good seat, and the consequence is that the general public is almost entirely excluded from high-class musical entertainments. A floor seat at a Richter concert, twenty-one rows from the stage, cost me 10s. 6d.; the programme was a shilling extra—no programmes being distributed gratis except for the following week's concert; so that an ordinary concert of this kind comes to $3. And this was not the worst of it: there was no ventilation, and the atmosphere was tropical. The seats are more uncomfortable than in a suburban variety theatre; they consist of rows of simple benches, with nothing to lean against except a board of the width of a hand on top. Two hours of such torture produces an effect comparable to that of riding on a Broadway stage from the terminus to the Battery; and I no longer wonder at the old saying that "the English take their pleasures sadly." Under such circumstances most people would prefer to dispense with them altogether. Some time ago Mr. J. C. Rodrigues, formerly editor of the New York *Musical Review*, exposed the absurdities of the concert system here in the London *Times*, and I now hear that, evidently in consequence of this exposure, which was widely discussed, a company has been formed to build a new concert hall, with comfortable seats, reasonable admission prices, and large enough to hold 4,000 spectators. London may then perhaps hope to enjoy as good and as cheap concerts as may be attended in New York and Brooklyn.

In opera, also, we can claim, after last winter's experiences, that New York is ahead of London. Italian opera had been languishing for several years, and this year, for the first time since Handel's days, the London "season" is without Italian opera; and no one seems to miss it. Carl Rosa, however, has just brought to a close one of the most successful seasons of English opera on record; partly, no doubt, owing to the absence of competition. Carl Rosa still courts favor with some of the insipid "ballad-operas" of the Balfe school. But his greatest successes this year were two new operas, one French and one English—Massenet's "Nanon," and Mr. Goring Thomas's "Nadeshda." This last work was given no fewer than nine times, always to crowded houses. Yet it is difficult to make any inferences from this as to the future of this opera. Last year the same composer's "Esmeralda" enjoyed a similar success; yet this year Mr. Rosa found it expedient to give it only once. "Nadeshda" is one of the most favorable specimens of English music I have heard. The libretto is fairly well constructed, and may in a certain sense be regarded as "timely," inasmuch as it is based on a Russian subject, introducing serfs, boyars, Russian costumes and scenery, all of which was admirably presented under the management of Mr. Harris. The cast included Mme. Valleria, Miss Yorke, Mr. McGuckin, and Mr. Crotty, all of whom were fairly satisfactory, although Mme. Valleria alone succeeded in "electrifying" the audience. Carl Rosa's orchestra is well balanced and well trained, and so is his chorus; incidental flaws, however, are observable. Of course, the opera is too long. What modern composer ever wrote an opera, oratorio, or symphony that was not too long? As for the music, it is a judicious mixture of the English and French styles, with occasional reminiscences of "Lohengrin," "Carmen," and Mendelssohn, of course. Mr. Thomas is, I believe, a pupil of M. Ambroise Thomas, but does not slavishly follow his master's style. His melodies are not highly original, nor his modulations ultra-modern; yet he succeeds in keeping his music throughout on a level considerably above the commonplace. His dramatic sense is unusually fine for an Englishman, and the most promising feature of his music, from a theatrical point of view, is its rhythmic variety and animation. Mr. Thomas is certainly one of the most gifted of the young school of English composers, and his "Esmeralda," it is well known, has also been produced with success in Hamburg.

If Mr. Goring Thomas's star seems to be in the ascendant, Mr. Sullivan's is beyond doubt rapidly sinking. His "Mikado," which still draws large audiences, is certainly the weakest thing he has ever done. In "Pinafore," "The Pirates," and in "Patience" respectively there were at any rate a few melodies that bore the stamp of individuality; but in the "Mikado" the trained ear waits in vain for a few strains of melody that it has not heard a thousand times before. As in some of his other works, Handel is Mr. Sullivan's prototype and inspiration; and it need not be said that of all the composers who have ever written a page of music, Handel is the least suited to serve for such a purpose. The only thing in the "Mikado" that seemed to me to possess the least charm was the instrumental introduction, which contains some dainty effects; but as English operetta audiences are not sufficiently educated to appreciate instrumental music, this number was lost to most in the din of conversation. There cannot be a shadow of doubt that had the "Mikado" appeared before "Pinafore" and "Patience," it would have been a dead failure; but Gilbert and Sulli-

van have got the wheel rolling now, and the people run after it. It must be stated, however, that although the audiences are large, there is little applause, and on the evening when I heard the work there were only two encores.

Mr. Gilbert has not distinguished himself in the "Mikado" much more than his collaborator. There are a few rather funny conceits in the libretto, but as a whole it has a very artificial aspect; it is too obviously made after an approved recipe, which all theatre-goers know by heart. As it is, the *Mikado's* exclamation, on page thirty-nine of the text-book, would serve as a capital motto for the whole operetta: "Dear, dear, dear; this is very tiresome." The plot is already known to most New Yorkers who are interested in such matters, and need not therefore be retold. But it is worth recording that one of the three or four things that made the audience laugh was this: The *Mikado's* son has assumed the guise of a wandering musician to win the love of *Yum Yum*. When he finds that he has a dangerous rival, he exclaims: "What if it should prove that, after all, I am no musician?" And she replies: "There! I was certain of it directly I heard you play."

The "Mikado" is placed on the stage with a regard for realism and picturesqueness in costume and scenery that constitutes almost its sole charm. The chorus is effective, and the orchestra rather better than those we are accustomed to in New York at similar theatres. The leading actors and actresses seem to suffer from an excess of dignity and want of power to express the simplest emotions. They all have an annoying habit of accenting the wrong syllable and putting the emphasis on the wrong word of a sentence, thereby entirely destroying its "point." The Englishman is not a theatrical animal, even if he does claim Shakspere as a countryman.

It must nevertheless be admitted that London audiences do appreciate a good thing when they hear it well done. "Boccaccio" has just been revived at one of the theatres, and the animation of the audience affords an encouraging contrast to the Sunday-school dignity and primness of the Gilbert and Sullivan audiences. Through Suppé it may be hoped that the Londoners will ultimately be educated to an appreciation of Strauss, who has not been fairly placed before English audiences heretofore, or they would have found out how infinitely superior he is to their own Sullivan in originality of melody, modulation, rhythm, and instrumentation—in everything, in fact, that constitutes a good composer. An encouraging sign is the enthusiasm with which Strauss's brother Edward is received every afternoon and evening at the Inventions Exhibition. Thousands surround his stand, and almost every Viennese piece he plays is redemanded; for there is a charm in the coquettish *rubato* of Austro-Hungarian music that carries away even English dignity. Edward Strauss receives no less than $30,000 for the services of his band during the exhibition. The Viennese, on their part, do not miss their favorite conductors Richter and Strauss, in their respective spheres, for the Vienna "season" ends when the London season begins. F.

Correspondence.

THE PHILADELPHIA POSTMASTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A paragraph in the last *Nation* respecting the probable dismissal of the Philadelphia Postmaster does injustice to a very worthy officer. His letter of 1881, rescinding the appointment of a Democratic carrier, was known to the delegation of Mugwumps which called upon the President, as also the fact that the letter had been shown to Mr. Cleveland. It was not felt that this in any way rendered him liable to the charge of "offensive partisanship," seeing that his action had virtually been taken under orders, that he had strictly obeyed the Civil-Service Act, and that at the present moment he has in his office quite a number of Democratic subordinates. This letter is the only charge that has been heard of against him during a service of, I believe, eight years, in which his management of the office has given universal satisfaction to the community. To replace, for so flimsy a cause, a competent and experienced official with a new and untried man, will be regarded by all who are acquainted with the facts as simply yielding to political pressure, and will be hailed by the opponents of civil-service reform as an evidence that we are no nearer the reform than we should have been under Mr. Blaine. I believe that I may claim to have been one of the first to give practical support to Mr. Jencks's early efforts in the cause, and, after so many years of apparently hopeless struggle, it is my zeal for it which leads me to hope earnestly that Mr. Cleveland may not be misled into making a serious blunder which will discourage his friends and embolden his enemies. L.

Philadelphia, June 18.

CIVILIZED EATING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After reading your ironical review of the book 'Dinners and Dishes,' in your issue for June 4, I am prompted to speak a word in defence of some of those whom the author so sharply criticises. Without pretending to any right to speak as an epicure, I have had the pleasure of dining in a number of countries on both sides of the Atlantic, and as I think of the dinners I have enjoyed I am astonished that "Wanderer" should have been so unfortunate in his experiences while gathering the materials for his book. One thing has struck me forcibly in my own experience, viz., that there is no essential difference in the manners—and I may now add in the dinners—of the cultivated classes in the countries where I have had an opportunity to observe them. Certainly, except in minor details, I cannot see what there is to choose between the dinners of those who have taste and means in America, England, Germany, Austria, and France.

As Vienna comes in for a sharp thrust from "Wanderer," I would add that nowhere have I sat down to more elegant and appropriate dinners than in that beautiful city. And as to the instance of a "fair barbarianess" eating peas off a knife, mentioned by "Wanderer," may he be forgiven for intimating that this is a common practice among the refined inhabitants of Vienna! Surely, he must have made this observation—and, I suspect, some others—in the Gasthaus, where so many of the *bourgeoisie* take their meals. If this be the place where "Wanderer" got his ideas of German eating, he might have recorded still more remarkable performances. But no record of what goes on in these feeding places can be fair to the class who are the true criterions of a nation's culture in this, or in any other, matter.—Yours respectfully, C. W. D.

Philadelphia, June 22, 1885.

BABOO ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the specimens of "unsurpassed English" in your issue of June 11 is the following: "A certificate testifying to the excellence of his character and his *cui bono* in the post he held."

Here is an interesting parallel passage from one of George Eliot's letters:

"Mr. Lewes wants me to tell you something amusing—a bit of Baboo English, from an Indian journal sent us by Lord Lytton. Apropos of Sir G. Campbell's statement that India was no good to England, the accomplished writer says, 'But British House of Commons stripped him to pieces, and exposed his *cui bono* in all its naked hideousness.'"

Edw. Graham Daves.

Baltimore, June 22, 1885.

THE OHIO HOMESTEAD BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the factors likely to enter largely into State politics in the near future must be reckoned a movement which originated last winter in the city of Cleveland, Ohio, and which found expression in a measure known as the Ohio Homestead Bill. The bill was offered in the Legislature by Mr. C. C. Burnett, a member of the House from that city. It proposed "to provide against the evils resulting from periodical depressions in manufacturing industries, and to promote agriculture" by empowering the State Board of Agriculture to acquire arable land within the State, and to allot the same in plots not exceeding twenty acres for the use of such heads of families as should apply therefor, provided that the applicant furnish a certificate from the Probate Court of the county in which he resides, attesting that he has been for three years a citizen of the State, is head of a family, and is not the owner of real estate in fee or of personal property to exceed $1,000 in value.

The fee simple of the land was to be forever vested in the State, and the conditions under which the applicant was to hold it were as follows:

1. Either he or his heirs must actually reside upon and cultivate the land.

2. He must pay into the treasury of the county where the land was located an annual tax or rental of say 6 per cent. on the actual cost of the land to the State.

3. Improvements were to be the property of the occupant making them, and, up to the value of $1,000, exempt from debt or execution or State taxation.

4. The occupant might sell his improvements to any other person who had complied with the requirements of the law, and the latter thereby acquired the same right to hold and use the land as the former occupant had.

Widows were also included in the provisions of the law if they were heads of families and had for three years been residents of the State.

The bill was endorsed by the District Assembly of the Knights of Labor of this city, and the petition for its passage was signed by large numbers of wage-workers as well as by many of the leading business firms of the city. It was also endorsed by the Republican clubs of several wards of the city. This last endorsement settled its fate. The Legislature was strongly Democratic, and the bill was referred to a committee, which speedily reported it back, recommending its indefinite postponement. This report was at once adopted, and all attempts to secure a reconsideration were promptly voted down.

But the causes which gave rise to the bill, *e. g.*, the disturbances in the iron and coal industries, which are continually dooming a larger and larger body of industrious men to a hopeless dependence upon odd jobs; the acres upon acres of land hard by our large cities, land which is raising nothing but thistles and briers, but which ought to be yielding sustenance to hungry men: the growing conviction

among thoughtful wage-workers that the only constant and certain outlet for idle labor is the idle land—these have not been indefinitely postponed, but are certain to force the question to the front again as soon as the public begin to discuss the men who wish to be sent to the next Legislature, and the measures that are to come before them.

L. B. TUCKERMAN.

CLEVELAND, O., May 23.

SECRET SOCIETIES AND COLLEGE GOVERNMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That the secret societies which exist in almost all our colleges are constantly attempting to control—and in great measure do control—undergraduate politics, is a matter so completely recognized that the public has lost all interest in its discussion. The charge is admitted, but it is answered that students are sure to split into parties of some sort, and that the societies do no more harm than would be done by unorganized "sets." On the other hand, it is claimed that they do much good, that the sense of common responsibility for the good name of the society stimulates scholastic and literary effort, and furnishes a very effective check upon all the more disreputable forms of immorality,

But the extension of society influences beyond the undergraduate curriculum, and the introduction of these influences into graduate politics, is a matter of which little has been said. It is, in fact, a new thing. It has become possible only through the new policy which confers the power of electing trustees upon the alumni—and it is a much heavier stake than the division of class-day honors which is here in play. Under the American system the trustees of a college are not simply the legal holders of its property: they are the supreme organ of college government. They appoint and remove the members of the Faculty and fix their salaries. They regulate, so far as they see fit, every detail of internal policy. Some legislative power is usually left to the President and Faculty, but the extent of that power is determined by the trustees.

The election of a trustee is now in progress at Amherst; and, in the election, society influences have played, if not a greater, at least a more open part than at any previous time. The Amherst system is as follows: Three inspectors of election are chosen by the alumni at Commencement. These gentlemen send circulars to each alumnus of the college, requesting him to nominate three candidates for the vacant trusteeship. The votes are counted by the inspectors, and the three names which head the list are announced in new circulars. Each alumnus has then the right to vote for one of these three candidates.

The preliminary balloting was completed some weeks ago. It is a significant fact that the three candidates nominated represent the three oldest societies having the greatest number of graduate members. I am informed that one of these societies issued a circular before the preliminary balloting, recommending *three* candidates—all, of ccurse, members of the society in question. One of these three emerged from the preliminary balloting as an official candidate; and his society has now sent out a printed letter, a copy of which I append, urging his election.

Probably the younger alumni of a college in which the secret-society system exists, will usually vote on society lines. The desire to carry "their man" into the Board of Trustees will probably exercise a stronger influence than their estimate of his relative fitness for the position; and any effort to stem such a silent current of prejudice will certainly be useless. But it is quite another thing when a secret society openly attempts to whip up its alumni for its candidate. For the overt act there should be some remedy; and the best remedy seems to be the widest publicity.

I therefore append a copy of the circular in question. It should be explained that the Columbus manifesto is not a society appeal. Its signers represent different societies, or, rather, no society. But the reprinting of the Columbus circular over the signature of a college society gives the entire document a totally different character.

MS.

AMHERST, MASS., June 15, 1885.

DEAR SIR: The following circular note from the Alumni of Amherst, in Columbus, Ohio, speaks for itself:

"COLUMBUS, OHIO, June 1st, 1885.

"DEAR SIR: The Alumni of Amherst College, in Columbus, have decided unanimously to vote for George A. Plimpton, of New York, to fill the vacancy in the Board of Trustees. They trust their action will command your approval, and have some influence to persuade you to vote in like manner,

"Signed, J. R. Smith, Henry J. Booth, Thomas P. Ballard, Linn B. Kaufman, George T. Sparks, George M. Lattimer, G. Stanton Coit, H. N. Galloway, Committee."

In a trustee our college needs earnest loyalty; the strongest desire to see Amherst yet more prominent among the leading colleges of our country; tried business ability and energy; a wide and thorough acquaintance with the educational men, methods, and institutions of the day, and withal, as a balance, a wise conservatism.

In every particular Mr. Plimpton meets the requirements. His loyalty needs no statement. His business capacity and his thorough acquaintance with educational affairs are fully assured by his position as a leading publisher of educational works. Yours, very respectfully,

SIGMA CHAPTER OF DELTA KAPPA EPSILON.

Notes.

IF sufficient support be promised, D. Van Nostrand will bring out a new (limited) edition of Hallock's translation of Jomini's 'Strategical Life of the Emperor Napoleon,' in four volumes, with atlas, at the original price. The work has been for some time out of print.

A new 'Cæsar,' equipped with cuts, diagrams, plans, and a colored map of Gaul, by Professors W. F. Allen and J. B. Greenough, and Messrs. J. H. Allen and H. P. Judson, is in the press of Ginn & Co. The ordinary text-book of this classic has hitherto been singularly regardless of these aids to understanding and enjoyment. The same firm announce 'Questions on Cæsar and Xenophon,' by Professor E. C. Ferguson; and 'Andreas: a Legend of St. Andrew,' edited by Professor W. M. Baskervill, of Vanderbilt University, and collated with the MS. by Professor Wülcker, of Leipzig.

C. N. Caspar (Milwaukee) will shortly issue, to subscribers only, a 'Directory of the Antiquarian Booksellers and Dealers in Second-Hand Books of the United States,' in three alphabets.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have converted a showy holiday book of last winter into an attractive summer guide-book in paper covers. We refer to Searing's illustrated 'Land of Rip Van Winkle: Legends and Traditions of the Catskills,' which falls off but little, save in price, from the original edition.

There is something luring about the portfolio of eleven sheets of 'Marblehead Sketches' published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; but its chief merit is as a souvenir for those who have already tasted the delights of the North Shore of Massachusetts. Two ladies are the artists—Anne Ashby Agge and Mary Mason Brooks. Their India-ink drawings are fairly suggestive of the old town, and one or two make some approach to the spirit of wave and shore. The decorative sense is here weaker than the feeling for landscape, and both adventurers have been wrecked on the shoal of lettering.

'Field, Fort, and Fleet' (Wilson & Ellis) is a typical subscription book, flashy in its external appearance, and pretty nearly worthless in its contents. The "brilliant and authentic sketches" by "M. Quad" (alias C. B. Lewis) are jerky and hysterical, and are only to a limited degree based upon personal experience of the events in our civil war attempted to be related. The author has a grudge against Lincoln, Stanton, Halleck, and the War Administration generally; but his opinions carry no weight with them.

Last October occurred the dedication of a simple monumental shaft on the field of the cavalry engagement on the right flank of the Army of the Potomac at Gettysburg. The inscriptions record the commands on both sides, without distinction, except as "Union" and "Confederate." The exercises were in excellent taste, the principal address being delivered by Capt. William Brooke Rawle, of Philadelphia, from whom we have the pamphlet which relates the whole story of the celebration, with the aid of a map and a photograph.

Two historical pamphlets on our table are noteworthy. One is a lecture by Sir Francis Hincks on 'The Boundaries formerly in dispute between Great Britain and the United States' (Montreal: John Lovell & Son). The northeastern boundary and the Ashburton treaty are the chief subjects of this discourse, which vindicates the English negotiator against adverse colonial criticism. Sir Francis Hincks holds that the famous "red-line map" of 1782, sent by Dr. Franklin to the Count de Vergennes, was intended to throw dust in the eyes of that little scrupulous statesman, whose object it was to prevent a settlement between England and the United Colonies, encouraging the one party to ask too much, and the other to reject excessive pretensions. In other words, Franklin deliberately misrepresented the state of the preliminary negotiations as to the Maine (Massachusetts) boundary.

The other pamphlet is a reprint from the *Magazine of Western History*, being the Rev. C. F. Robertson's account of Burr's attempt to separate the West from the Union.

A curious paper in the same periodical for June is that on the disappearance of the "Great American Desert" from text-books and public documents before the advance of accurate knowledge of the trans-Mississippian region. The author is the Rev. W. Barrows, author of a recent work on the founding of Oregon.

Readable and instructive will be found Mr. Lewis W. Wilhelm's 'Local Institutions of Maryland,' constituting Nos. v., vi., vii. of the Third Series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. It begins with the Land System, and reviews successively the Hundred, the County, and the Town.

Mr. Edward Eggleston, in his search at the British Museum for material for his colonial history, has found documents which throw new light on Nathaniel Bacon's rebellion in Virginia, and solve the mysteries hitherto attaching to this romantic episode.

A discussion, with charts, of the remarkable thunderstorms of May 18, 19, 1884, in the tract east of the ninety-fifth meridian and north of the Ohio, constitutes No. 20 of the United States Signal Service Notes. This pamphlet is the first fruit of a system of widespread observations by fixed methods established by the Signal Office.

Two broods of locusts, the seventeen-year and the thirteen-year, are due the present season over a large section of the country. A monograph of the Periodical Cicada has accordingly been issued by the Division of Entomology in the Department of Agriculture. Its most important feature, after the description of the locusts and the means of prevention, is a chronological history, with dates of future appearance of all known

broods. A special effort is making to have the appearances this year carefully observed.

An abridged translation of the eighth chapter of A. Woeikoff's 'Climate of the Globe,' is given in the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society, No. 116. The map of this number shows the route of P. Ascheron from Fayum to the Lesser Oasis in the Libyan desert, and is commented upon by the author.

An account of the late Admiral Courbet's operations on the Min River in August of last year, somewhat woodenly translated from the French, is given in No. 33 of the Proceedings of the United States Naval Institute, with a chart of the engagement. Unequal as were the combatants, some light was thrown on the capacity of torpedo warfare.

Mr. W. C. Lane's catalogue of Boston and Cambridge Dante collections, of which the first part has been published, is the only achievement noted during the past year in the report of the Dante Society. It is announced that the concordance to the 'Divina Commedia' undertaken by Prof. E. A. Fay, of Washington, will probably be completed by the end of next year. A special value is given to the present report by an appendix containing Mr. Longfellow's notes designed for a revised edition of his translation of the 'Divine Comedy.' These consist largely of parallelisms, but in one case we find an unpublished version of a sonnet by Vanni Fucci, which will be welcomed by all admirers of Longfellow's command of this form of verse. Some of the notes have been usefully annotated by Professor Norton.

An illustrated article on 'Handel and his Portraits' stands first in the contents of Cassell's *Magazine of Art*. No less than six likenesses are reproduced; they are worth far more than the musical judgment of the accompanying letterpress.

Le Livre for June does not fail to pay such honor as it can, at short notice, to Victor Hugo. It masses together the most significant tributes of the Paris press of May 23-26, the funeral discourses of MM. Émile Augier, Jourde, H. de Bornier, Jules Claretie, and L. Ulbach. More—and better, as some might say—it reproduces two young and beardless portraits of the poet in the Romantic period: a profile of 1832—the Hugo of "Le Roi s'amuse," and a full-face of 1840—the Hugo of "Les Rayons et les Ombres." Both are extremely interesting.

To the fund being raised for a national monument to Victor Hugo are dedicated the proceeds of a little "édition du monument" just issued by Hetzel-Quantin, Paris. This duodecimo of 250 pp. gives, in three parts—poetry, drama, and fiction—selections from each of Hugo's works in prose and verse, in chronological order. The first extract, from the 'Odes et Ballades,' is "Mon enfance"; but the rest have no personal or autobiographical significance. The idea seems a happy one.

'Der Shakespeare-Mythus,' published recently at Leipzig by F. A. Brockhaus, is Mr. Appleton Morgan's iconoclastic work done into German by the ardent Mr. Karl Müller-Mylius. We can see very little objection to the transfer of this discussion to another tongue, and for once we have no prejudice against the use of the Gothic characters. The translator enlarges upon and goes into raptures over Mrs. Henry Pott's worthless 'Promus,' in a long foot-note on p. 193.

Instead of the often promised 'History of Babylonia and Assyria,' by Professor Schrader, of Berlin, intended to form vol. ii. of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen,' we receive the first instalment of a work on the same subject by Dr. Fritz Hommel, Privatdocent at the University of Munich. This is, we cannot refrain from saying, a disappointment; for there is no more generally acknowledged authority in this historical field than Schrader, while Hommel, a nervously restless worker in it, is far from enjoying an equal reputation for soundness. The beginning, however, is very promising. Almost the whole of the 160 pages is occupied by the Introduction, which treats with particular fulness of the cuneiform literary system and the various attempts of discoverers and philologists to decipher it. Dr. Hommel's style must have been improved by Oncken's editorial supervision or admonition, for we detect nowhere such tortuous periods, bristling with insertions and quotations, as here and there fill entire pages of the same author's 'Die Semitischen Völker und Sprachen' (1883). But from this failing Schrader himself, especially in his 'Keilinschriften und Geschichtsforschung,' is not entirely free.

The "Allgemeiner Verein für Deutsche Literatur," of which Grand Duke Charles Alexander of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach and Prince George of Prussia constitute the "Protectorate," and Professors Gneist, Werder, and Scherer, of Berlin University, and City Councillor Adolph Hagen, of Berlin, the "Curatorium," continues its activity with a lively regard both for the higher needs and the general predilections of the German public. Its last series of publications—the ninth—comprises three crowned works: 'Heinrich von Kleist,' by Dr. Otto Brahm; 'Deutsche Geschichte im Zeitalter der Reformation,' by Professor Egelhaaf; and 'Geschichte des deutschen Einheitstraumes und seiner Erfüllung,' by Dr. J. Jastrow. Among its latest announcements are essays on recent literature from the surpassingly prolific pen of Rudolph von Gottschall; a literary sketch of Margaret of Navarre and her time, by Professor Lotheissen; a work by Professor Gneist on the English Parliament, in its "changing aspects, down to the present Reform Bill"; pictures of Berlin life, by Julius Rodenberg; and pictures of the concert-life of our time, by Professor Hanslick, who has already contributed three volumes to the Society's publications. Another of its favorites is Bodenstedt.

August Boltz, a German linguist, author of works on modern languages and translator from the Russian, modern Greek, and Sanskrit, has published a critical dissertation on the Cyclops, 'Die Kyklopen, ein historisches Volk' (Berlin, 1885), intended to prove that the Cyclops of Homer were not the fabulous one-eyed beings of Hesiod, sons of Uranus and Gæa; that the Odysseyan story of the one-eyed giant Polyphemus and his fellow-shepherds—who are *not* described as one-eyed monsters—was based on mariners' tales of a stalwart people of shepherds, dwelling round Mount Etna; that the Greek name Kyklōps was a corruption of Siclos or Sicŭlus, which was that of the inhabitants of eastern Sicily, sprung from Italy, for whom the island was ultimately named; and that these Siculi, or Cyclops, there and elsewhere—in Greece as well as in Asia Minor—were builders of "Cyclopean" wall circles. The author pours out a great deal of philological lore on the subject, and indulges in many digressions; but the historical thread he spins is very slender.

—The July *Harper's* is well suited for a midsummer number: there is plenty of light reading, good of its kind. Grenville Murray's "His Royal Highness' Love Affair" is bright and amusing. Mr. Burdette's "Aunt Powell's Will" is moral and amusing. Mr. Howells's new story is in his pleasantest vein, full of his quiet humor clothed in the neatest expressions. It is international: the contrast of American and foreign ways runs through it, and Mr. Howells has added the contrast of the old and the new Americanism. The hero is a Western journalist, a Mugwump, much given to banter of the American sort; the heroine is—perhaps there are two heroines; and the scene is Florence. Miss Woolson's new instalment of "East Angels," though she is above the art that suddenly ends a number with the dagger brandished above Melissa's breast, leaving it and the reader in suspense till the next number, is yet all too short. But the articles are not all light; there is a long one in which the progress of silk from the mulberry seed to the dress is clearly told by Mr. R. R. Bowker. And there is much geography—a Western article (no magazine is now complete without one) telling picturesquely how the Montana cow-boys drive their cattle; an Eastern one, by F. Marion Crawford, on the Mohammedans in India, with most successful woodcuts of the wonderful architecture; two Northern ones, the first on the city of our President, which the writer prophesies will become "a commercial Constantinople, stretching along the Bosphorus of the broad Niagara"; the other on the lake, mountain, and river Ampersand in the Adirondacks—one of those pieces in which enthusiastic and injudicious lovers of nature point out beautiful spots to the *profanum vulgus* of tourists, who straightway flock there and ruin them. There is nothing on the South, unless "East Angels" be taken for that, as it well might, since the idea it gives of the old Florida could not be more vivid. In the Easy Chair Mr. Curtis discourses of Willis and Poe, "the skirmishers, dashing and brilliant," who preceded "the first distinctive American literary group," Longfellow, Hawthorne, Emerson, Lowell, Holmes, and Whittier.

—There is a great deal of fiction in the July *Lippincott's*, and it is not very good. "On This Side" continues its somewhat commonplace humor; Miss Tincker finishes "Aurora"; "Dieu Dispose" and "Mees" are short and slight. Edmund Kirke contributes the first of two papers on "The Pioneers of the Southwest," an account of the first settlement of the Watauga Valley in 1770, at a time when a tract of country larger than England and Scotland together, to be seen from the top of the Alleghanies, had not a single human habitation, not even a wigwam, for it was "the hunting-ground and battle-field of the Indians, claimed by hostile tribes, but occupied by none." Another interesting paper is a sketch of Joseph J. Mickley, pianoforte maker and tuner, of Philadelphia, member of all the societies in numismatics, history, and archæology throughout the world, the owner at one time of the largest collection of coins in the United States, the victim of the greatest known numismatic robbery, which yet his Quaker placidity recorded in his diary in only four lines. He was a character, living all alone over his shop, in a spacious house crowded with books, autographs, and coins, in extreme disorder—a man of indefatigable industry and perseverance, who learned Swedish after he was seventy, in order to write a history of the settlement of the Swedes on the Delaware, and later still travelled in Europe, making curious observations which are given in this sketch.

— Dr. Holmes's "Portfolio" in the *Atlantic* is very medical: Dr. Butts reads a paper before the Pansophian Society, in which he recommends the fortieth chapter of Rasselas as the first book a medical student should read, to teach him "caution in the pursuit of the most deceptive of all practical branches of knowledge." The next article is a medical story too, the case of a man whose memory was reversed so that he recollected the future; a state of mind which was extremely inconvenient, since it led him to utter all sorts of embarrassing things—for example, saying in the presence of the young man who was beginning to pay attentions to his daughter, "I shall give you my consent soon." The gift, which so many people would inconsiderately long for, is not of the

slightest value for the avoidance of danger, because of a curious dilemma. If the future event could be made not to happen, it would not have been known beforehand, for only that which happens can be remembered. This psychological puzzle at the beginning of the number is matched by the Contributors' Club at the end, which is unusually subtle in criticising Henry James's criticism of George Eliot. The *Atlantic*, like *Lippincott's*, has a paper on the Watauga Valley—Mr. Warner's "On Horseback," written with less than his usual humor, but yet agreeably. He takes down the romantic ideas of the Tennessee and North Carolina mountains which we derive from Charles Egbert Craddock's *Atlantic* story, for he finds no dialects and no stills, or at least no evidence of their existence in any abundance of good liquor. But he finds a plentiful lack of good food. Critics from time immemorial have blamed travellers without number for dwelling on the discomforts of inns and the distastefulness of fare. Mr. Warner would fall under such ban, but he has a good defence: the traveller must relate the characteristics of the country, and the most obtrusive characteristics of North Carolina and East Tennessee are slack-baked bread and fried meat. There is some scenery, to be sure; but who can enjoy scenery when tormented by hunger and dyspepsia? How much does the seasick voyager enjoy the majesty of the ocean? For more sentimental aspects of mountain life let the reader turn to Miss Murfree's story, where D'rindy has a brief moment of perfect happiness, which is all swept away—a most artistic contrast. Mr. Scudder treats thoughtfully of "Childhood in Mediæval Art," Miss Miller eulogizes the blackbird and defends his song, Mrs. Leonard tells how she saw Southwestern Kansas with Eastern eyes and found it good. But what greasy food is to the traveller in Tennessee, that the high, hot, dusty, cold, rainy, destructive winds are to the dweller in Kansas. No wonder that the people have enthusiastically planted trees, since trees are thought to break the force of the tornadoes. In contrast to this prairie land are the Mexican mountains in which Sylvester Baxter describes a week's vacation, leaving an impression of picturesque beauty and rich fertility. W. L. Alden sets forth the extravagance and childishness of Garibaldi's ideas about everything but war, for the hero of Aspromonte was an example of what we have seen conspicuously in our own country, that a great general may be a wretched governor. In "Paradise Found" President Warren's discovery of Eden at the North Pole is combated with arguments which to us seem conclusive; but it is surprising and discouraging to find the *Atlantic* uncertain about the use of shall and will: "If we accept the best evidence of geology, we will be compelled to assign an even more remote position for... this Miocene warmth at the pole." When a periodical born and nurtured in Boston, and in this very number containing contributions by half a dozen New Englanders, confuses its futures, what can be expected from the mixed race of the rest of the country?

—The first number of the published Proceedings of the Modern Language Association of America has just appeared. It gives a synopsis of the work done at the Annual Convention held in this city, December 29, 30, 1884, to which is appended a valuable supplement containing the names of modern-language professors, with their official titles, in nearly three hundred colleges of the United States. In glancing through this neatly arranged pamphlet, of about one hundred octavo pages, we find that fourteen papers were read during the Conference. A dozen of these bear either upon purely literary subjects or upon educational matters connected with English, French, and German culture in our colleges, or discuss questions touching modern-language study in general. The other two essays, on points of French and German syntax respectively, are of a scientific character. Besides these Proceedings, the Association announces a "Modern Language Series," consisting of papers in which its aims are especially represented. Nos. I, II, of this series, "A Plea for a Liberal Education," "The Preparatory Schools and the Modern Language Equivalent for the Greek," have already appeared. In connection with the above publications, it may be of interest to note the active movement that is now going on with reference to the studies they represent. Information has reached us that, during the last few months of the academic year just closed, one university alone, the Johns Hopkins, of Baltimore, has had thirteen applications for trained instructors to fill vacancies in different departments of the modern languages. With such a demand as this before them, and one which is likely to increase in the immediate future, young men who are looking for employment as teachers need not hesitate which way to turn. They must satisfy the requirements of a good preparation for their work, as in other branches of learning, and then a position is ready for them.

—We spoke last week of the field of historical research open to cultivated women of leisure. Elizabeth M. Farrand's unpretentious 'History of the University of Michigan' is an example of what we had in mind. It is the more remarkable, perhaps, as being a woman's production where we might have expected a man's. Forty years have elapsed since the University held its first commencement, and only fourteen since women were admitted to an equal enjoyment of its privileges, in simple default of any statute or regulation to the contrary. The number of bachelors' degrees taken by them is but 106; of degrees in medicine, 176, in pharmacy, 17, in dentistry, 6, in law, 17. It is clear that the aim of the majority has been to acquire the means of independence. Two-thirds, at least, we are told, of those who have taken academic degrees, "have, within a few months after graduation, commenced a course of teaching which still continues." This is rightly regarded as an evidence of the compatibility of the higher education with sound health. Another curious fact is, that a larger percentage of women than of men have, after taking a regular course, graduated from it.

—The chief interest pertaining to the history of the Michigan University lies in its dependence upon the State, in which respect it is, of course, typical of a large number of Western institutions of the same class. On the whole, the relation, here as in Wisconsin, has been such as to confirm the wisdom of these State foundations. The temptation on the part of the body which sustains, to interfere with the working of the University is constant, but the courts have kept this in check to some extent, as in the case of the Legislature's endeavor to force homœopathic professors upon the medical school. In the end, the Legislature founded a special college for this school, and then, of course, the Regents had no objection to supplying it with professors. An irregularity in the financial conduct of the Laboratory led to a legislative "investigation," and that to the importation of politics into the controversy. Still, the University has kept pretty clear of entanglements. It is perhaps worth noting that chapel exercises were compulsory from the start, and twice a day. Afternoon prayers were given up when the dormitory system was abandoned. For a dozen years there has been no compulsory attendance at the chapel. Harvard, therefore, so far from setting an evil example of innovation, as Dr. Peabody fears she might, will be at least half a generation behind Michigan.

—In the *Revue Critique d'histoire et de littérature* for May 18, M. Henry Harrisse, the biographer of Christopher Columbus and his natural son Fernando, gives a pathetic account of the pitiable fate of the celebrated "Biblioteca Colombina." Fernando Columbus, who was the greatest bibliophile of his time, left his books, numbering nearly 20,000 volumes, at his death in 1539, to the chapter of the Cathedral at Seville. Here they suffered, from various calamities, to such an extent that in 1684 the library contained only four or five thousand volumes originally belonging to him. From this date, apparently, greater intelligence was shown in caring for it, and acquisitions were made from time to time by gift and purchase, so that in 1871 it was estimated to contain 34,000 volumes and 1,600 manuscripts. When Fernando bought a book he was accustomed to write a note of its classification on the top of the first page, and the price and the place at which he bought it at the bottom of the last leaf, so that it was perfectly easy to separate all his books from the others. M. Harrisse proposed some years ago to the librarian that this should be done, and offered to bear the expense of locked cases to contain them. Unfortunately, this design was never carried out, with the single exception that three volumes annotated by Christopher Columbus were placed in a case by themselves. During the last winter M. Harrisse discovered in Paris certain manuscripts and books, many of which were incunabula, which he recognized as belonging to the Biblioteca Colombina. So far as he was able to discover, or is willing to tell, they were brought from Seville with other precious works of art to a dealer in bric-à-brac, who sold the books for "a morsel of bread" to an ignorant bookseller. He, in his turn, sold them at a comparatively slight advance upon the price which he paid. M. Harrisse gives a list of eight books out of a lot sold for 650 francs, one only of which had brought at auction 11,000 francs. He also sold 'Les Œuvres de Lovize Labé, 1555,' for forty crowns, which the purchaser immediately resold, if we are not mistaken, for 15,000 francs. The only answer to inquiries addressed to Seville has been that these thefts are "one of the effects of the earthquake"! It may be well to note here that this same Cathedral of Seville had a library in 1454 which the chapter valued so highly that it procured from the Pope, Nicholas V., a bull threatening with the greater excommunication "all those who should dare to take away the books of this collection, even with the consent of the chapter, were they kings, cardinals, or archbishops."

TWO RECENT TRANSLATIONS OF THE DIVINE COMEDY.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. Translated verse for verse from the original into Terza Rima, by James Innes Minchin. London: Longmans. 1885. 8vo, pp. lxxvi-390.

The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. The Inferno. A Translation, with Notes and an Introductory Essay, by James Romanes Sibbald. Edinburgh: Douglas. 1884. 8vo, pp. cxix, 277.

THE circumstances in which Mr. Minchin made his translation of the 'Divine Comedy' were striking. In 1857, the year of the Indian Mutiny, he was living alone as the only English officer in charge of a large sub-district in the Madras Presidency.

"Throughout that year I was absolutely without any English companion, and with the terrible tales of mutiny and massacre that reached me daily through the press, I lived unarmed and in absolute security amidst a peaceful agricultural community. Such a life was singularly

suitable for literary labor, and during my many hours of solitary leisure in that stirring year I completed, in the month of October, my translation of the 'Divine Comedy.'"

After nearly thirty years, during which the work has been subjected to careful revision, it is at length published. "In my opinion," says Mr. Minchin, "Dante cannot be fairly represented to the English reader without his triple rhyme." "In his interlinked rhyme and marvellous melody consists the most exquisite portion of his charm." "The terza rima is a metre perfectly suited for English poetry." "My effort has been to reproduce with exactitude the thoughts and, when possible, the words of Dante, in verse that may give the English reader some idea of the exquisite harmony of the original."

Mr. Sibbald, in his translation of the 'Inferno,' has made use of the same kind of verse, but admits that "whoever chooses to adopt it with its constantly recurring demand for rhymes necessarily becomes in some degree its servant," while he still believes it "to be that best fitted to give some idea, however faint, of the rigidly measured and yet easy strength of Dante's *terza rima*."

These two versions are but the latest in a long series of attempts to render the 'Divine Comedy' into English verse, in which the triple rhyme of the original should be reproduced. It began more than forty years ago. Byron, Shelley, Merivale, and others had already tried their hands on fragments of the poem rendered in this wise, but the first complete version of the 'Inferno' in triple rhyme was that of Mr. Dayman in 1843. This was followed by a translation of the whole poem in similar mode, by Mr. Cayley, in 1851 to 1854; and this, in turn, by a triple-rhyming version of the 'Inferno' by Mr. Brooksbank in 1854, by Mr. Thomas in 1859, by Mr. Bruce Whyte in 1859, by Mr. Prebendary Ford in 1865, and finally by Mr. Warburton Pike in 1881. To complete the list, the version of the first ten cantos of the 'Inferno' by Mr. Ellaby, in 1874, may be added.

It is plain that the task has a charm for certain scholars, perhaps because of its very difficulty. The wrecks of previous adventurers do not deter from new attempts. Most of these versions show patience and ingenuity, and some of them considerable skill in versification. The most labored if not the best of them is probably that of Mr. Cayley. But the student of the original will not be inclined to rate even his work as a success, if measured by the aim to give a just expression to the form no less than to the substance of the poem.

The difficulties of making any sort of a translation of the 'Divine Comedy' in which the qualities of its style and form may be adequately rendered are, indeed, in larger measure insuperable than is the case with any other poem. For, in the whole range of literature, there is no other in which the form and the spirit are so intimately combined; in which so much of the spirit resides in the precise word and phrase, in the measure, the accent, the vocalization of its lines. With all its depth and intricacy of significance, and all the elaboration of its verse, the simplicity and directness of its expression are yet unique. There are scarcely a dozen passages in it in which any difficulty of interpretation arises from obscurity inherent in the form given to the thought. The style, elevated throughout, is yet as plain as prose. There are comparatively few inversions in the natural order of the words, and few forced constructions, in spite of the exactions of rhythm and rhyme. At the time that Dante wrote, the Italian language still possessed not only a primitive simplicity, but also a pliability that allowed the poet to adapt it alike to the external needs of his verse and to the more intimate demands of his own poetic temperament and taste. There is truth, though it requires some limitation, in the often-repeated passage from the 'Ottimo Commento,' in which the writer declares, "I heard Dante say that the rhyme never led him to say aught else than he intended, but that he many a time and oft made words say in his rhymes other than that which, as used by other poets, they were wont to express."

Now it is quite evident that even if the laws of versification and the forms of language were similar in another tongue to those of the Italian, yet the difference in words alone would make it difficult to render the quality of Dante's verse. But the difficulty is enormously increased if a translation be made into a language so different from Italian as English in its accentual character, in the range of its rhymes, and in its natural forms of construction. To set this forth in full would require more space than we have here to devote to it. But it is obvious that the highest art of versification would be incompetent to overcome these differences to the degree that the impression produced by a version in the same form should be equivalent to that of the original. Whether the translator undertake to give us the triple rhyme or not, he will be forced by the genius of the language into verse widely differing in effect from the hendecasyllabic line of Dante, with its five iambic feet and its closing unaccented vowel, and with its marked cæsura after the fourth or sixth sy'lable. And if he try the rhyme it must force him often into inversions remote from Dante's style, or into the employment of unusual words, or into verse-endings which match but imperfectly.

Every one of the translations of which we have given the list affords frequent illustrations of these facts. Take the tenth canto of the 'Inferno,' for instance, in Mr. Minchin's version. Here we find such rhymes as these: *drew, do, view; know, how, now; mien, strain, keen; speed, bed, heed; bestirred, heard, reared.* This jingling hardly corresponds with that "interlinked rhyme and marvellous melody" in which Mr. Minchin finds the most exquisite charm of the original. Nor is Mr. Sibbald more felicitous: he gives us, in the same canto, *down* and *son* rhyming with *thrown*, and *on* with *known; knot, sought* and *got; house, anxious, brows; raised, amazed, placed;* and other scarcely less imperfect rhymes.

An illustration of the mode in which the tone and quality of the original are lost by the translator who holds to the rhyme, may be given briefly by taking the three lines from the same canto in which Cavalcanti asks concerning his son, Dante's friend—lines, as Dante wrote them, characteristically simple, direct, impressive:

> "Piangendo disse: se per questo cieco
> Carcere vai per altezza d'ingegno,
> Mio figlio ov'è? e perchè non è teco?"

"Weeping he said, 'If through this blind prison thou goest through loftiness of genius, my son where is he? and why is he not with thee?'"

How different from this, in all that makes it poetry of the noblest order, is Mr. Sibbald's:

> "Weeping: 'By dint of genius if it be
> Thou visit'st this dark prison, where my son?
> And wherefore not found in thy company?'"

Mr. Minchin succeeds no better in spite of omission and addition:

> "Weeping he said, 'If through this prison free
> To wander thou through genius dost attain,
> Where is my son, and wherefore not with thee?'"

But both these versions are superior to Mr. Cayley's somewhat comic rendering, forced from him by the rhyme:

> "He weeping said, 'If thou into this blind
> Prison-house by loftiness of soul art brought,
> Where is my son? Why is he not combined?'"

No, this is not translation of Dante! Nor can any similar attempt be counted so. We may admit that the authors of these versions are, like the knight in 'Don Quixote,' "masters of the Italian idiom, who, where the Italian says *piace*, translate it *please*, where it says *più*, render it *more; sù above* and *giù beneath*," but Don Quixote's criticism still holds good: "This kind of version is like viewing a piece of Flemish tapestry on the wrong side, where, though the figures are distinguishable, yet there are so many ends and threads that the beauty and exactness of the work are obscured."

It is an interesting question how the 'Divine Comedy' may be best translated; how much of the poem can be adequately brought into English, and whether it be not necessary to sacrifice even the poetic form in order to preserve what is most essential in the spirit of the original.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Duchess Emilia. By Barrett Wendell. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

A Modern Dædalus. By Tom Greer. E. P. Dutton & Co.

A Week of Passion. By Edward Jenkins. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Kamêhaméha, the Conquering King. By C. M. Newell. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE term "a Romance" is added to the title-page of 'The Duchess Emilia' in that special sense of the word which implies an element of the supernatural in the story. There is no more hazardous undertaking for an author, since only consummate skill can maintain, both in action and in style, the poetic dignity which alone can save the improbable from becoming the absurd in the eyes of a sceptical generation. To choose such a theme is perhaps a mistake at the outset; but, having once taken it up, even a partial success is praiseworthy, and it is not surprising that the execution should fall short of the conception. Were a reviewer to say that the plot is based on the old theory of the transmigration of souls, and that we are told how the soul of a sinful woman is whirled over the earth till it finds a body in which to work out an expiation for her crimes, a marked injustice would be done the book, and the reviewer would be only setting up a story of his own upon which to pass judgment, instead of studying Mr. Wendell's.

The author has chosen and has very carefully kept the only point of view from which any coherent presentation of his idea is possible. From first to last it is an hallucination, existing only in the brain of the writer of the journal which makes the chief part of the book. He believes that upon him has been laid the burden of atonement for the sin of another. Only by his struggles and his personal suffering can the wrong be expiated. No one of the whole group of personages has any knowledge of his fantasies until the dying appeal to the old Cardinal, whose conscience, quick with remorse, responds in faith and hope. Is it needful to point out how entirely different this presentation is from what it would have been blankly narrated as a series of *events* by a third person? It must be admitted that the action falters and at times breaks off, but the leading conception is very noble, especially after the hope of redeeming one's self is exchanged for the higher aim to lose one's self in the happiness of others.

It is a pity that such a story is in danger of being taken wholly *à tort*, and a first impression of that sort is almost ineffaceable. With this risk in mind the author should have set double guard upon his pen. There are lapses in style, there are false notes often enough, we fear, to cost him more than one reader. He was the more bound to spare no pains in finish, since the manner he has adopted—that of studied simplicity—is in itself full of peril to the unwary. But all these mistakes we pass, and permit ourselves the more gracious part of indicating to the reader some of the best of the work, such as, on page 148, the story of Santa Emilia, and the description of her festival on page 160. We copy two admirable

passages which give the treatment—the one of outward, the other of inward things:

"Whence came the colors which the dead masters laid upon their canvases, he wondered for a while in vain. Then, one evening, as he stood at Fiesole and looked down on the soft valley of the Arno, the sunset light of Italy came streaming up from the west and told him."

"It is not like the peace of the blessed, that great contentment which comes to happy souls when their work is done. It is like the peace of one who has shuddered for years in the fear that death may take him unawares, and who finds himself at last face to face with a fate that may not be shunned, and breathes freely because the terrors of uncertainty are past; yet all the time the death that he sees before him is ever a vaster mystery."

'A Modern Dædalus' belongs to the class of books of which 'The Battle of Dorking' is the well-known type. Nothing could be purer fiction, and nothing could be less like the ordinary novel. If, and if, and if, is always the premise of such a tale, but this, it must be owned, goes a long way beyond its predecessors. If the problems of the aeronaut are so fully settled that a few hours will make a man as skilful upon the wing as a sea-gull, and if dynamite is as regular a material of warfare as gunpowder, why, then, whoever is first in the fight is master of all the rest. Though Mr. Tom Greer chooses Ireland for his suppositious experiments, he is very careful to insist that he is no enemy of England, but that he is a believer in the necessity of a firm and lasting union between the two countries. Granted his premises, he is a good master of the logic of events. He makes a very vivid and dramatic story, which, we should add, it will take strong nerves to enjoy. The timid will comfort themselves with remembering that there are certain marked peculiarities in the Irish character which will prevent them from combining and winning success in the obvious way suggested. The dénouement is worked out through a travesty of the scare about the Channel Tunnel, and some droll satire upon the English Ministry, so anxious not to be outwitted and so perplexed how to prevent it.

The poisoned dagger and the fatal ring were accepted stage properties to the Romanticists. Shall dynamite hold the same place for the realists, or will the use of it put a writer into the former class? The question will be of little consequence, so long as it is used to no better effect for literary purposes than it is by Mr. Edward Jenkins. While the 'Modern Dædalus' proposes to take the terrible explosive out of the hands of political assassins to use it in legitimate warfare, 'A Week of Passion' goes quite the other way, and shows it employed for the most private and personal villany. True, to dispose of the victim so completely that there is nothing left of him but spatters has its convenience, but the effect is too gruesome for the first chapter of a novel. The book is a poor imitation of Boisgobey and Trollope, incongruous as the combination may seem. The first supplies the hair-breadth escapes, the detectives, the murders; the latter, the model young man in whom the noble lord is deeply interested, and to whom he at last marries his daughter.

The number of titles of books, pamphlets, and monographs that have been written about the Hawaiian Islands since Cook discovered, or rather rediscovered, them — for their situation was marked on the Spanish charts long before the time of the great English sailor—is to be counted by many hundreds. In this long list works of fiction are scarce. Jarves's 'Kiana' and a few collections of native myths, notably Judge Fornander's and Adolf Bastian's, are among the foremost; and a few modern Hawaiian stories and poems have been published at Honolulu. Doctor Newell's 'Kaméhaméha' easily leads the list of Hawaiian-founded fiction, whether we regard the extent of the work or the scope of treatment. It is a romantic story, half mythic, half historic. The era which it covers is that of the generations immediately preceding and including the visit of Captain Cook. Its characters, divine and human, are the progenitors of the great Kaméhaméha; that prince himself, from the time of his birth in the *adytum* of the heathen temple to that of his conquest of the entire Hawaiian group; his chief warriors and councillors; and the divine Pélé herself, goddess of the volcano, presiding genius of war, and chief of the island deities. The charms of the islands are vividly drawn, from the beauties of Hilo to the gloomy ravines of Maui and the grandeur of Kilauea, the home of Pélé. This pagan paradise, placed as it was in the Halemaumau, or lake of everlasting fire in the great lateral crater of the Mauna Loa, was a somewhat embarrassing thing for the Protestant missionaries, and required new explanations on their part of theological cosmogony as related to the future state. Doctor Newell's narrative is, however, concerned with the Hawaiian as he was before any foreign civilization, and in the social state to which many centuries of undisturbed development had brought him. He was by no means a savage as the term is generally understood; he had well-established social grades, with a system of land tenure closely resembling that of feudal France in the early middle ages; and he had an elaborate religious and a less developed military system. Of the latter, Doctor Newell's hero was for many years, until his death in 1819, the chief. His romantic birth, his exploits, his loves and conquests, are described with a glow of enthusiasm which sometimes gives almost excessive color to the style. The book is one, indeed, which lies outside of the beaten track of romance; it is Hawaiian myth and history as seen by an impressionable foreigner, and seen by the moist light of a Northern imagination. It is to be wished that the historic parts of the narrative had been more clearly distinguished from the romantic. The ordinary reader may sometimes confound them; the reader who is versed in Hawaiian history will have no trouble in disengaging the two.

Collected Essays in Political and Social Science. By William Graham Sumner. Henry Holt & Co. 1885.

It is a significant fact that the English Social Science Association holds no meeting this year. We cannot suppose that no social topics remain to be investigated, or that the supply of essays upon these subjects has failed. It is more probable that the leaders of the Association have reached the conviction that their work had become so hampered by the irresistible intrusion of incompetent sympathizers as to be more mischievous than profitable. Of all the sciences, social science is the least deserving of the name. No department of knowledge requires a more profound and thorough preparation on the part of its votaries as a condition precedent to the attainment of any valuable results, and in no department is there a more prodigious accumulation of the crude productions of feeble and ill-trained minds. The body politic labors under grievous ills, but its case is not rendered less doleful by the officious platitudes of Eliphaz the Temanite and Bildad the Shuhite and Zophar the Naamathite.

This evil plight of social science is partly due to the fact that it lacks the defence of a nomenclature of its own. The problems of physiology or mathematics are couched in technical language, and the mere difficulty of acquiring this language is sufficient to repel the obtrusiveness of amateurs. But the terms of social science are the terms of common speech, and any ignoramus can use them without much danger of making himself ridiculous to the community. Nor is it possible to supply this lack, for the principles of the science must be applied for the most part by legislation, and they must therefore be expressed in language fitted for the comprehension of the ordinary legislator. Moreover, social subjects are of the most supreme and general interest. They concern every one, and it would be highly unreasonable to expect people to keep silence about them. The advisory propensity in human nature is extremely strong: we all love to tell other people what is best for them when they are sick; and when it comes to prescribing for a whole nation or a universe, only a man of trained self-control and educated wisdom can hold his tongue. Were the "counsel of fools" never followed, we might regard this propensity as an amiable weakness; but unfortunately quacks are sometimes gifted with an eloquence that is fatally popular.

As a counteractive to all "false doctrine, heresy, and schism" in social science this book of Professor Sumner's is to be recommended. It may be urged that he is deficient in intellectual sympathy; that, as Sidgwick says of Cairnes, he cannot help representing any doctrine that he does not hold in such a way as to make it almost inconceivable to his readers that it can possibly be maintained by a man of sense. But we do not find that his roughest blows are struck in the discussion of what are fairly debatable doctrines. It is to palpable blunders in logic and wilful misstatements that he is merciless, and we know of no reason why he should not be, if he so chooses. He is not likely to make converts of those whose heads have come in contact with the bludgeon of his logic, but the spectacle of their overthrow is a terrible warning to all who may be tempted to talk of what they do not know. It is not a mere gladiatorial exhibition: it is like a well-deserved punishment inflicted upon malefactors with due process of law. For bad reasoning is here an immorality. It is quite as wrong to urge measures upon the public without having made sure that they are supported by arguments logically sound, as it is to offer for sale adulterated food or unsafe houses. The law takes care of offences of the latter kind, but the former can only be repressed by the firm stand of able and public-spirited men, and it is their duty to do this work, as it is their duty to expose any dangerous humbug.

Although the essays collected in this volume treat of a diversity of subjects, they are marked by a striking continuity of thought. The author is so thoroughly master of the system that he has adopted, that he is guilty of no inconsistencies, whether his theme be Bi-metallism, or Protection, or the Theory of Elections. But although we heartily concur in most of his conclusions, we cannot but regard the statement of his principles as occasionally unfortunate. He declares that he rejects all theories of natural rights: "Men are born without any endowment of either physical or metaphysical goods. A man is born to struggle, work, and endure, as long as he can, by the expenditure of his energies." But, Professor Sumner immediately adds, man has certain "moral claims" to help in this struggle. One of these moral claims is for "good government"; and good government embraces "peace, order, liberty, security, justice, and equality before the law." Now, it seems to us quite immaterial whether we say that a man has a natural right or a moral claim to all these blessings; the practical consequence is the same. At all events, if the distinction is to be taken, it would be well to explain the difference; there is a difference at law between a right and a claim, but we can hardly suppose that Professor Sumner has this in mind.

A more striking illustration of the obscurity

resulting from arbitrary statements concerning fundamental principles is afforded by the following definition of justice: "The fundamental notion involved in justice is that each shall get his deserts. This can be realized only under the play of natural forces, for we have no definition of a man's deserts except what he actually gets in return for his efforts under the free play of natural forces." We have no hesitation in saying that this passage is certain to mislead and likely to disgust any reader who is not already familiar with political science; for it is most reasonable to suppose that when what takes place "only under the play of natural forces" is spoken of, the institutions of government, if not of civilized society, are not included among these forces. If they are, we have the absurd proposition that every man actually gets justice in this world; if they are not, then it should seem that justice is to be found only among the lower animals, and that men can attain it only in a state of anarchy. The latter proposition would be heartily accepted by the Communists, but of course their adhesion would not be pleasing to Professor Sumner. Justice is the most important concept in social science, and time spent in clearly defining it is never thrown away.

We fear that we can put no construction upon Professor Sumner's language upon this point that will lessen its offensiveness to most readers: "Nature has no system for handicapping superiorities. On the contrary, she gives them all full operation. The state in establishing justice does not aim to correct Nature in this, but to leave her laws undisturbed." It is hard to make anything out of this but

> " . . . the good old rule,
> . . . the simple plan,
> That they should take who have the power,
> And they should keep who can."

We must maintain that it is precisely the chief end of the state to correct Nature in this, and to handicap such superiorities. The stern law of natural selection is modified by the institution of government in response to the craving for an ideal justice that is never realized in Nature, and we must still trust that love is

> " . . . Creation's final law—
> Though Nature, red in tooth and claw,
> With ravine, shriek against the creed."

It is because of our hearty sympathy with Professor Sumner's practical aims that we make these strictures upon his method of exposition. He occupies a position of singular responsibility, and he has made the position what it is by his own courage and ability. He is the most distinguished, almost the only distinguished, trustee, in this country, for a theory of government that has had the mightiest results for good to the English race. In the discharge of this great trust, assailed as it now is not only by socialistic dreamers but also by many benevolent though misguided persons, every possible effort should be made to win converts. No amount of labor would be thrown away that should serve to make the principles of social science clearer, or its precepts more impressive.

Harrow School and its Surroundings. By Percy M. Thornton, author of 'Foreign Secretaries of the XIX. Century.' London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1885. Pp. xii and 483.

A SCHOOL of the age and fame of that at Harrow on the Hill well deserves a formal history. This, in the fulness of time, we now have, and from one of her grateful and admiring sons; for Mr. Thornton was, as he tells us, a Harrow boy between 1856 and 1860. Agreeable throughout are his memories of his Harrow school-days. Even his services as a fag, as he recalls them, are untinged by any unpleasant associations. But then it was to one who evidently imposed a light yoke, the recent Cabinet Minister, Mr. G. O. Trevelyan, that he officiated in that capacity. "It may," he thinks, "prove a consolation, to learn that a hungry boy who cleared away the tea-things, when the stentorian voice of Macaulay's nephew summoned him by the word 'Bo-o-o-y!' (a prolongation which Harrovians will understand), often received, as a reward, a capital hot meal, and always a kind word for his pains." However, there is fagging and fagging. More especially the imperious bearing which so largely characterizes English gentlemen, is just what might be expected from those who once discharged the duties of virtual menials. Fagging, in spite of all that we have ever seen urged in its defence, we are compelled to regard as most likely, in the case of the majority of youths, to be demoralizing.

What has long been known as Harrow School, the successor of a school of which all that has been discovered is that it had existence, was founded by John Lyon, in 1571. Since that date it has been presided over by twenty-one masters, the last of whom, the Rev. J. E. C. Welldon, has just been elected. The characters and achievements of these masters, down to Mr. Welldon, with an account of the vicissitudes experienced by the school under each of them, Mr. Thornton details with a particularity which leaves little to be added by whoever may tread in his footsteps. Nor does he concern himself with these matters only. With laborious research he has amassed all the facts, apparently, that are available as contributory to a history of Harrow itself, and also of its neighborhood. Their picturesqueness he never wearies of expatiating on. And, certainly, there is a charm about Harrow and its environs which cannot but impress for life any one whose fortune it may be to link them with the reminiscences of his boyhood.

It would require a long list to enumerate all the notabilities who have received their early education at Harrow. The school of Sir William Jones, Doctor Parr, Sheridan, and Byron has, in later years, fully sustained the reputation which it earned, toward the end of the last century and at the beginning of this, as a nursery of youths destined to acquire fame. Of members of Parliament who were sitting in April, 1884, no fewer than sixty-four, comprising an equal number of Liberals and of Conservatives, were Harrovians. One of our former ministers at the British court, Rufus King, sent two of his sons to Harrow; and his avowed reason for selecting it was, in Mr. Thornton's words, "because it was the only school in which no special honor was attached to rank." That the system pursued at the school is, on the whole, one calculated to develop and foster a spirit of manliness and independence, has never been questioned.

Onerous as is the programme of studies which was devised by John Lyon, amusements, and as an integral part of the duties of a student, were not forgotten by him. Besides tennis, he, like Roger Ascham, laid great stress on archery. At Harrow, as at all other English public schools, the form of athletics now mainly in vogue is cricket. For this diversion the historian of Harrow School evinces an enthusiasm which must recommend him warmly to schoolboys. In connection with his favorite game, he tells a story which will bear repeating. In the days when one F. C. Cobden distinguished himself by his fast bowling, an Harrovian stripling, to whom he was, of course, a subject of laudatory discourse, was asked by one of his parents what relationship his hero bore to the great Cobden. "He *is* the great Cobden," replied the lad, with naturally indignant emphasis.

To the numerous alumni of Harrow—among whom is a fair sprinkling of Americans—scattered over the two hemispheres, the outcome of Mr. Thornton's zeal and diligence will doubtless be acceptable. His book supplies a desideratum, and, in point of exhaustiveness, it may be said to afford a veritable model for works of the class to which it belongs.

Democratic Government. A Study of Politics. By Albert Stickney. Harper & Bros. 1885.

ANY man who gives time and thought and money to the study of the means of improving the machinery of our Government is entitled to praise, and it is one of the most hopeful signs of the times that so many are ready to do this in a disinterested spirit. We fear, however, that Mr. Stickney is more to be congratulated upon the motive than the results of his labors. In politics, the most dangerous method of reasoning is the *a priori*. As the science has to do with that very arbitrary product, human nature, the first step must be to examine thoroughly how that product has been developed and manifested itself in the past. For Mr. Stickney, as far as appears from this book, history has no existence. Assuming that while other governments have had some democratic features, ours is the only one which has really been democratic, he pays no attention to any other. We have been unable to find any reference to precedent except in the most general terms. Thus, in speaking of his idea of the public meeting, he says: "The system has been tried, tried for ages. It has, whenever it has been tried by ordinarily honest and reasonable men, worked well." A little specification as to when, where, and by whom it has been tried, and with what concrete results, would have added materially to the weight of evidence. Even as to our own country, with the exception of some faint praise of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, and some vague denunciation of professional politicians, there is no attempt to enforce the lessons of actual experience. Evidently that which absorbs Mr. Stickney's whole interest is the plan which he has evolved from his own consciousness, and which he feels to be strong enough to dispense with anything more than general argument.

In his introduction, after saying that it is not necessary that every reader should agree with the details of his conclusions, he adds: "It will be sufficient for my immediate purpose if he shall be convinced that we must have constitutional reorganization of some kind, and that to that end it is necessary that the people of these United States should again assemble in its National Constitutional Convention." We regret to say that even this preliminary conviction has not been borne home to our mind; and lest we should be charged with wilful obtuseness, we will submit one of the arguments upon which his own conviction rests: "The Convention of 1787 was in effect only a convention of the individual men who were its members. It had the assistance of no outside thought. But a National Constitutional Convention of the people of the United States, held at this day, will be, in effect, a convention of all the wisest political thinkers on the face of the earth." Shades of Madison and Hamilton! And then Mr. Stickney adds (the italics being ours): "It will be certain to have in its membership many very able men. Most of them will be men who have, to some extent, *made politics a profession.*" We will not be so severe as to suppose that Mr. Stickney expects to derive this superhuman wisdom from Congress as it has of late years been composed; but then he falls upon the other horn of the dilemma, that by some new and patent process it is to be evoked from the mass of the nation. In fact, he thinks that by a particular organization of the public meeting and of the method of voting, which, as he repeats in at least six different places, would secure the free and healthy action of the people, this result would be obtained. Without stopping

to inquire whether his expectations are justified, we remark that he has omitted to point out how this organization is to be brought about. We should think a study of the great conventions for nominating Presidential candidates, and of their "platforms," might shake even his robust faith; but if it does not, there is a fruitful field in the constitutional conventions of the States. We believe it has come to be admitted, at least in the older States, that these bodies are as unpractical and absurd as any of those which have excited so much ridicule in France; and this conviction has led to the adoption of the much more commonsense process of the passage of particular amendments by two or more successive Legislatures, and the submission of that particular question to the popular vote.

The cumbrous, expensive, and dangerous experiment of a national convention for the mere purpose of reconstructing the Constitution, without any definite plan, is too wild to be thought of, and Mr. Stickney evidently means, though modesty forbids him from saying so plainly, that its object should be the making of certain changes which he thinks desirable. We will therefore state what these are, so far as they make any material change from what exists:

1. The continuance in office, until removed, of the present national officials—the members of the Senate and House of Representatives, the President, and all other officials of the national Government.

2. The abolition of the system of term elections for members of Congress and the President.

3. The adoption, for the filling of vacancies hereafter occurring in Congress and in the office of President, of a system of popular election, wherein the popular assembly, of citizens and their representatives, at every stage shall be the fundamental feature.

4. The conversion of the present Senate and House of Representatives into one supreme legislative body.

5. The giving to that body the control and removal of its own members and the control and removal of the President.

Without stopping to discuss the surprising arguments by which these propositions are supported, we merely ask what probability there is that a national convention would listen to anything of the kind, and what must be the state of mind and knowledge of the people of this country in a man who seriously thinks they could be adopted.

Alaska: its Southern Coast and the Sitkan Archipelago. By E. Ruhamah Scidmore. 8vo, pp. viii, 333. Map and illustrations. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1885.

THIS little volume is the result of several summers passed by the author in the region it refers to, and is based on correspondence written for the press. In the revision and arrangement of the material many errors have been corrected, new matter incorporated, and the style revised. The illustrations are from various sources, some of which are of unusual interest, especially the "process" renderings of amateur photographs of the Muir glacier and vicinity.

The author has given a pleasant and readable narrative of her experience, a graphic account of the unparalleled scenery of the archipelago, and has preserved in her work a number of historical incidents, interesting in themselves, and for the rescue of which the future historian may be grateful. The book in its literary finish and verification of facts is decidedly in advance of the usual work of newspaper correspondents, whose misfortune it is to be always hurried and therefore necessarily more or less superficial and inaccurate. There are a few errors, most of which are so obvious as not to mislead—for instance, the rendering of the old watchword, "fifty-*nine*, forty, or fight" (p. 23); but on the whole the author's accuracy is commendable. The map is rather small to enable the narrative to be followed, but with the maps of the 'Coast Survey Pilot of Alaska,' which most travellers would find a useful adjunct for an Alaskan summer excursion, this little work will form a very entertaining handbook for the inland passage, and as such will be welcome to the adventurous tourists who are only now beginning to find out the marvels of Alaskan scenery and the ease with which they can be reached.

There is an interesting account of the rise and progress of the mining interest in southeastern Alaska, and of other resources of the Territory. The author does not seem to have heard the story of the sturdy miner, prospecting far in the interior, whose partner died from an accidental wound, and who, to preserve his reputation, hauled the frozen body on an improvised sledge over 200 miles of ice and snow to the nearest settlement, where he was honorably acquitted. But of other tales of hardy endurance and of the local color of this unique region, the book has a fair share and will well repay the reading.

Obiter Dicta. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1885.

THIS little volume of essays, which, after a warm welcome in London, has run through several editions, and finally made its appearance on this side of the Atlantic, contains seven essays, on Carlyle, on Browning, on Truth-Hunting, on Actors, on A Rogue's Memoirs, on the Via Media, and on Falstaff. They are all more or less humorous, and are written in that leisurely essayistic style which lends itself so readily to humor. This humor is sometimes natural and naïf, as where the author says: "It becomes plain that the real wants of the age are not analysis of religious belief, nor discussions as to whether 'Person' or 'Stream of Tendency' are the apter words to describe God by; but a steady supply of honest, plain-sailing men who can be safely trusted with small sums," etc. The idea is not new, but the mode of expression certainly is. More often his humor is studied and literary in character, as in the following distinction between actors and artists of another kind: "Again, no record of his art survives to tell his tale, or account for his fame. When old gentlemen wax garrulous over actors dead and gone, young gentlemen grow somnolent. Chippendale the cabinet maker is more potent than Garrick the actor. The vivacity of the latter no longer charms (save in Boswell); the chairs of the former still render rest impossible in a hundred homes." The author has, too, a gift for a certain kind of pathos that is closely allied to humor, as in his essay on Truth-Hunting, where, after quoting Dr. Newman's account of his prayers for Truth, followed by his extraordinary statement about the impossibility of doubting the liquefaction of the blood of St. Januarius at Naples, the motion of the eyes of the Madonna, and other modern miracles, he goes on:

"So writes Doctor Newman, with that candor, that love of putting the case most strongly against himself, which is only one of the lovely characteristics of the man whose long life has been a miracle of beauty and grace, and who has contrived to instil into his very controversies more of the spirit of Christ than most men can find room for in their prayers. But the dilemma is an awkward one. Does the Madonna wink, or is Heaven deaf? Oh, Spirit of Truth, where wert thou when the remorseless deep of superstition closed over the head of John Henry Newman, who surely deserved to be thy best-loved son?"

The critical portions of the essays, those relating to Carlyle and Browning, contain some good but not very original points. The author seems to have not wholly escaped from the prejudice against criticism which has led to so many denunciatory remarks by authors. A certain species of critics constitutes, we presume, the literary body referred to as "that ghastly crew, the wreckers of humanity, who are never so happy as when employed in pulling down great reputations to their own miserable level." If this is what criticism really is—that is, if the motive of criticism is usually personal malice—such language is none too strong. Our feeling is, that every one should let the critics "have it" as hard as possible. They can say what they like: why should not others say what they like of them? They have a great advantage, too, in writing anonymously, and in numbers greatly disproportioned to those of their victim. Carlyle was only one author against hundreds of savage critics; common fairness requires that he should have the right to use all the weapons within his reach—and, as a matter of fact, we believe he did.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Agge, Anne A., and Brooks, Mary M. Marblehead Sketches. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Allison, Frances Ekin. Men, Women, and Money. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 50 cents.
Anecdotes Nouvelles. Wm. R. Jenkins. 30 cents.
Annual Register: A Review of Public Events at Home and Abroad, for the Year 1884. New Series. London: Rivingtons.
Architectural Studies. Part I. Twelve Designs for Low-Cost Houses. Wm. T. Comstock. $1.
Auerbach, B. Briefe an seinen Freund Jakob Auerbach. 2 vols. Frankfort: Rütten & Loening.
Azarias, Brother. An Essay Contributing to a Philosophy of Literature. Fifth revised edition. P. O'Shea.
Bartlett, Dr. E. A. Cholera; its History, Cause, and Prevention. Albany: H. H. Bender. 50 cents.
Bastian, A. Der Papua des dunkeln Inselreichs. Berlin: Weidmann.
Bridel, L. La Femme et le Droit. Étude historique. Paris: F. Pichon.
Brown, Dr. J. C. Forests and Forestry in Poland, Lithuania, the Ukraine, and the Baltic Provinces of Russia. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd.
Bourne, E. G. The History of the Surplus Revenue of 1837. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Brownell, Henrietta M. K. God's Way: Man's Way. A Story of Bristol. Catholic Publication Society.
Buddhist Catechism. Biogen Series, No. 3. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances Hodgson. Kathleen. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 50 cents.
Cervantes, M. Don Quixote. A Translation by John Ormsby. Vol. II. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Clifford, W. K. The Common Sense of the Exact Sciences. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Dæmon of Darwin. Biogen Series, No. 2. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Dernburg, F. Russische Leute. Berlin: Julius Springer; New York: Westermann. $1.50.
De Voe, T. F. Genealogy of the De Veaux Family. The author.
Dolley, Dr. C. S. The Technology of Bacteria Investigation. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.
Dunning, Charlotte. Upon a Cast: a Novel. Harper & Bros.
Egan, M. F. Songs and Sonnets. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Ewing, Juliana Horatia. The Story of a Short Life. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Fasnacht, G. E. Progressive German Reader. I. First Year. Macmillan & Co.
Flaubert, G. Madame Bovary. (Édition définitive.) Paris: A. Quantin.
Forbes, H. O. A Naturalist's Wanderings in the Eastern Archipelago. Harper & Bros.
Gibbon, C. Heart's Delight. A Story. Franklin Square Library. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
McLaughlin, J. F. Life and Times of John Kelly, Tribune of the People. American News Company.
McMaster, Prof. J. B. History of the People of the United States. Vol. 2. D. Appleton & Co.
Missy. A Novel. By the author of 'Rutledge.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Morgan, A. Der Shakespeare-Mythus. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus.
Norris, W. E. Adrian Vidal. A Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Pallen, C. B. Carmina. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Parkman, F. Historic Handbook of the Northern Tour: Lakes George and Champlain, Niagara, Montreal, Quebec. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.
Pfleiderer, Prof. O. The Influence of the Apostle Paul on the Development of Christianity. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Porter, Noah. The Two-Hundredth Birthday of Bishop George Berkeley. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Practical Work in the School-Room. Part I. A Transcript of the Object Lessons of the Human Body. A. Lovell & Co. 75 cents.
Revised Version of the Old Testament. Parts II., III. Harper & Bros. 20 cents.
Robinson, F. Mabel. Mr. Butler's Ward: a Novel. Harper & Bros. 25 cents.
Ryan, J. E. The Vocalist. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Sherwood, Kate Brownlee. Camp-Fire, Memorial Day, and Other Poems. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.
Spaulding, R. First Lessons in Amateur Photography. Scovill Manufacturing Co.
Starrett, Helen Ekin. Future of Educated Women. Chigo: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 50 cents.
Tales from Many Sources. Vol. IV. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
The Home of Fiesole and the Times of Savonarola. A Story. Thomas Whittaker. $1.25.
Turgeneff, Ivan. Annals of a Sportsman. Translation. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Voltaire's Romances. Translated from the French. New ed. Peter Eckler. $2.

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ERRATA.

Page 102, col. iii, line 23. For "Hall" read "Holt."

Page 119, col. iii, lines 26, 27. For "will resume editorial charge of," read "will retire from."

Page 125, col. i, last line. For "must" read "most."

Page 146, col. ii, line 16 from bottom. For "Dunyel" read "Danyel."

Page 250, col. ii, line 12 from bottom. For "Senate" read "Assembly."

Page 254, col. ii, line 8. For "paymasterships" read "quartermasterships."

Page 257, col. ii, line 24. For "Brol-Slater" read "Brol-Plater." Col. ii, line 17 from bottom. For "Krönlein" read "Kinkelin." Line 19 from bottom. For "Grot" read "Grob."

Page 440, col. iii, paragraph 4 of the parallel columns. On the German side, for "treue" read "Treue."

Page 477, col. ii, line 28. For "2,485,829" read "2,485,829,000."

Page 489, col. iii, line 16. For "Salturin" read "Khalturin." Lines 30-32 from bottom. Dele "Russia's. . . . Vereshchagin."